Machine-learning algorithms define pathogen-specific local immune fingerprints in peritoneal dialysis patients with bacterial infections

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ABSTRACT

The immune system has evolved to sense invading pathogens, control infection and restore tissue integrity. Despite symptomatic variability in patients, unequivocal evidence that an individual's immune system distinguishes between different organisms and mounts appropriate responses is lacking. We here used a systematic approach to characterise responses to microbiologically well-defined infection in a total of 83 peritoneal dialysis patients on the day of presentation with acute peritonitis. A broad range of cellular and soluble parameters was determined in the peritoneal effluent, which covered the majority of local immune cells, inflammatory and regulatory cytokines and chemokines as well as tissue damage-related factors. Our analyses utilising machine-learning algorithms demonstrate that different groups of bacteria induce qualitatively distinct local immune fingerprints, with specific biomarker signatures associated with Gram-negative and Gram-positive organisms, respectively, and with culture-negative episodes of unclear aetiology. Even more, within the Gram-positive group, unique immune biomarker combinations identified streptococcal and non-streptococcal species including coagulase-negative Staphylococcus spp. These findings have diagnostic and prognostic implications by informing patient management and treatment choice at the point of care. Our data demonstrate the power of non-linear mathematical models to analyse complex biomedical datasets, and highlight key pathways involved in pathogen-specific immune responses.
INTRODUCTION

The immune system is an intricate network of specialised cell types and molecular structures evolved to sense and target invading pathogens, control and clear the infection, and repair and restore the integrity of affected tissues and organs. The human body is constantly exposed to a plethora of pathogenic, opportunistic, commensal and environmental microorganisms, and has developed mechanisms to discriminate between harmful and harmless colonisation, through receptors and pathways that specifically recognise pathogen and danger-associated molecular patterns and unique antigenic epitopes.\textsuperscript{1-4} However, unequivocal evidence that the human immune system distinguishes between different types of organisms in a physiological context and mounts appropriate responses that are distinct enough to be exploited as rapid diagnostic indicators driving appropriate therapy is missing.\textsuperscript{5-10}

Individuals with end-stage kidney disease receiving peritoneal dialysis (PD) serve as well-defined exemplar of a clinical infection requiring immediate medical intervention. Peritonitis is a common complication of PD and remains a major cause of early dropout, technical failure and mortality.\textsuperscript{11,12} In addition to its clinical relevance for individuals with end-stage kidney failure who depend on dialysis as life-saving renal replacement therapy, PD offers unparalleled insights into complex local cell interactions and molecular mechanisms that underpin the clinical severity of infectious episodes, and that are readily translatable to improve patient management and outcomes.\textsuperscript{13-15} Importantly, peritoneal effluent can be sampled repeatedly and non-invasively, thus providing early and continuous access to the site of infection, even before antibiotic treatment is initiated. Moreover, PD-related peritonitis is caused by a wide spectrum of bacterial species, thereby allowing the study of acute responses to defined groups of organisms under closely related conditions.\textsuperscript{6,15} However, whilst highly elevated white cell counts with a proportion of >50% granulocytes in the peritoneal effluent are used as indicators
of peritonitis, only little progress has been made with regard to a reliable discrimination between infection and non-infectious inflammation. Culture-based diagnosis of infection is slow and unsatisfactory, and rapid identification of disease-causing organisms using molecular techniques with sufficient sensitivity and specificity remains a challenge.\textsuperscript{11,12,16} Treatment of peritonitis therefore continues to be largely empirical, and early but untargeted treatment with broad spectrum antibiotics and antifungals is recommended.\textsuperscript{12,17}

As alternative to organism-based diagnostics, we here aimed at exploiting the human host response and used a systematic approach based on machine learning algorithms to identify diagnostically relevant pathogen-specific local immune fingerprints in PD patients who presented with acute peritonitis. The introduction of "big data" technologies in biomedical sciences to address the complexity of the molecular and cellular mechanisms underlying disease has brought about an increasing need for advanced statistical models, machine learning and pattern recognition techniques. In particular, wrapped feature selection methods have proven highly efficient for finding the best feature combination as compared to time-consuming exhaustive searches.\textsuperscript{18} Support Vector Machines (SVMs) are data-driven methods that try to find a separating hyperplane with the maximal "margin" for classification problems and that can also be used for regression or density estimation.\textsuperscript{19-21} Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs) are inspired by biological neural networks with data processing from the input through a network of multiple nodes that are connected with each other in different layers.\textsuperscript{22-24} Random Forests (RFs) are ensemble methods constructed on multiple decision trees for classification and regression.\textsuperscript{25-27} By combining biomarker measurements during acute peritonitis and feature selection approaches based on SVMs, ANNs and RFs, our findings demonstrate the power of advanced mathematical models to analyse complex biomedical datasets, and highlight key pathways involved in pathogen-specific inflammatory responses at the site of infection. The observation that different infecting bacteria induce consistent and unique local immune
responses has immediate diagnostic implications at the point of care, by directing appropriate antibiotic treatment before conventional microbiological culture results become available.
RESULTS

Local immune biomarkers form distinct hierarchical clusters. In order to define combinations of local biomarkers that would constitute relevant disease-specific immune fingerprints, we measured a broad range of cellular and soluble biomarkers in 83 PD patients presenting with microbiologically well-defined episodes of acute peritonitis (Table 1). To cover the breadth and the complexity of local inflammatory and regulatory immune responses during early infection, these biomarkers included frequencies and total numbers of infiltrating leukocytes as well as levels of common cytokines, chemokines and tissue damage-associated molecules, the majority of which were elevated during acute peritonitis compared to baseline parameters in stable individuals (Supplementary Table S1). Perhaps not surprisingly, due to the redundant roles of many inflammatory mediators within the human immune system, some of the 49 biomarkers correlated with each other and formed five distinct hierarchical clusters during acute peritonitis (Figure 1). These data suggested that a signature comprising of as few as five parameters might already suffice to define a reliable immune fingerprint.

Feature selection methods define local fingerprints associated with Gram-negative infections. We next divided the patients into groups according to the type of infecting organism. We initially attempted to define immune fingerprints that would reliably discriminate patients presenting with Gram-negative infections against all other cases of peritonitis (Supplementary Table S2A), based on our earlier observation of certain differences between Gram-negative and Gram-positive infections using logistic regression analyses.6 To this end, recursive feature elimination was employed by evaluating the model performance according to the area under the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve achieved and eliminating the least important features in each step. To reduce variability, five rounds of re-sampling methods were applied in the outer layer of the iteration and cross-validation was used
to avoid over-fitting. These steps clearly demonstrated that Gram-negative infections were associated with unique different immune fingerprints. *Figure 2A* shows the number of features changing during feature elimination and the corresponding performance based on three different models, using SVMs, ANNs and RFs. Whilst all three models successfully discriminated between Gram-negative infections and all other causes of peritonitis, RF-based feature elimination showed the best average performance, with the optimum biomarker combination comprising eight features (area under ROC curve: AUC=0.993; sensitivity 98.5%, specificity 92.6%). In comparison, SVMs and ANNs were far less powerful for the recursive elimination of pathogen-related biomarkers, reaching overall lower degrees of sensitivity and specificity, and requiring combinations comprising of 10 and 30 features, respectively (*Figure 2A*).

The top 5 and 10 individual biomarkers selected by the three different models and the corresponding average performance of the models based on combinations of these biomarkers are listed in *Supplementary Table S2B*. Of note, although the three models yielded different sets of biomarkers, the frequencies of Vγ9+ and Vδ2+ T cells within peritoneal T cells featured prominently in each. These findings appear to concur with our previous data suggesting a key role for Vγ9/Vδ2 T cells in Gram-negative infections and emphasise the diagnostic potential of those cells at the point of care.15,28 Soluble biomarkers of particular interest for the prediction of Gram-negative infections using the RF model included local levels of tumour necrosis factor (TNF)-α, interleukin (IL)-12p40 and vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF). Taken together, our findings demonstrate that RF models showed striking performance at combinations of five and fewer biomarkers, thereby making it the algorithm of choice for a clinically viable prediction of the causative pathogen in individuals presenting with PD-related peritonitis.
Internal validation of individual biomarkers constituting Gram-negative immune fingerprints. We next sought to validate the findings from the feature elimination process, by assessing the distribution and performance of the top five biomarkers that had been selected by the RF model. Using skewness as a measure of symmetry and kurtosis as a measure of peakedness, all five biomarkers showed very low positive skewness and only limited or even negative kurtosis in patients presenting with Gram-negative infections (Figure 2B). In contrast, these five biomarkers had generally higher skewness and considerable positive kurtosis in patients with other episodes of peritonitis, especially in the case of Vδ2+ T cell frequencies and levels of IL-12p40 and VEGF. Amongst the top five biomarkers, the local frequencies of Vγ9+ and Vδ2+ T cells and the levels of TNF-α on their own already showed relatively good sensitivities and specificities to identify Gram-negative infections with AUCs ≥0.75 for each biomarker, much more so than levels of IL-12p40 and VEGF (Figure 2C), but far lower than the full signature that reached an AUC of 0.99 (Supplementary Table S2B). This conclusion was supported by classical analyses using Mann-Whitney U tests showing that levels of Vγ9+ and Vδ2+ T cells and TNF-α, but not of IL-12p40 and VEGF, were markedly different between patients with Gram-negative infections and patients with other episodes of peritonitis (Figure 2D). These results confirmed the importance of the biomarkers selected by recursive feature elimination, especially of local levels of Vγ9+ and Vδ2+ T cells and of TNF-α, in identifying Gram-negative organisms. However, our analyses also identified shortcomings of conventional statistical methods that were especially apparent when visualising the individual readings across all patients in the form of a heatmap, where the overall differences between Gram-negative and other episodes of peritonitis were not very pronounced (Figure 2E). Overall, the performances of the individual biomarkers lagged behind their combined performance in an RF model, demonstrating the importance of defining complex signatures comprising distinct biomarkers and of assessing their relationships in non-linear models.
Patients with culture-negative episodes of peritonitis show distinct local immune fingerprints associated with milder inflammation. While microbiological culture remains the method of choice for diagnosis of infection, a considerable proportion of samples does not yield any culture results, thereby not allowing a reliable designation of the underlying cause of the inflammatory episode, which may or may not be infectious. Patients with culture-negative episodes often show less severe inflammation and have better clinical outcomes, suggesting that local biomarkers might aid in the diagnosis, treatment and prognosis of such episodes. Here, RF models selected biomarker signatures that reliably distinguished samples with no growth against cases with confirmed bacterial infection (Figure 3A; Supplementary Tables 3A+B). The top five biomarkers all showed great potential in identifying culture-negative episodes that were characterised by relatively low total cell counts, an increased proportion of CD14+ monocytes/macrophages in the cellular infiltrate, and lower levels of IL-1β, matrix metalloproteinase (MMP)-8 and the chemokine CCL4, compared to confirmed infections (Figure 3B-E; Supplementary Table S3B). Despite the heterogeneity of this patient group, where the failure to grow organisms might be due to inappropriate sampling, poor handling and culture techniques, low organism numbers, ongoing treatment with antibiotics for unrelated infections, or non-microbial disease such as sterile inflammation or viral infection, our findings indicate that culture-negative episodes are immunologically distinct from confirmed cases of bacterial peritonitis and are characterised by a less severe inflammatory response.

Different types of Gram-positive bacteria induce distinct immune responses that allow discrimination between organism subgroups. We next sought to define immune fingerprints in PD patients with confirmed infections caused by Gram-positive bacteria (Supplementary Table S4A). Here, feature elimination models were able to discriminate between Gram-positive infections and other episodes, yet required combinations of 30 and more biomarkers for optimal
performances and failed to reach satisfactory AUCs (Supplementary Figure S1). The best five biomarkers together only reached an AUC=0.711 in the RF model, and none of the individual markers on their own – IL-17A, IL-12p40, interferon (IFN)-γ, IL-1β and total cell count – exceeded an AUC=0.72 or stayed well below that value (Supplementary Table S4B).

Of note, there is considerable heterogeneity in the Gram-positive organisms causing PD-related peritonitis, comprising streptococci, staphylococci, coryneforms and other bacteria, which cause clinically distinct diseases with different outcomes, and require different antibiotics. We therefore attempted to define the pathogen-specific immune responses to subtypes of Gram-positive organisms. These analyses demonstrated that within the Gram-positive group, streptococcal infections caused by *Streptococcus* and *Enterococcus* species were associated with markedly distinct immune responses compared to all other cases of peritonitis (Figure 4A; Supplementary Table S5A). The most promising biomarker combination consisted of the local levels of IL-1β, TNF-β and IL-15 levels together with the enzymatic activity of matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) in the PD effluent, as measured by specific cleavage of a fluorogenic MMP substrate and by gelatin zymography upon gel electrophoretic separation (Figure 4B). Individually, IL-1β, TNF-β and zymography showed differences between streptococcal infections and all other patients, yet only a RF based model revealed their full diagnostic potential with an AUC=0.969 (Figure 4C-E; Supplementary Table S5B).

Similarly to the definition of *Streptococcus/Enterococcus*-specific immune fingerprints, non-streptococcal Gram-positive infections caused by *Staphylococcus aureus*, coagulase-negative *Staphylococcus spp.* (CNS) and *Corynebacterium spp.* were associated with biomarker signatures that distinguished them from all other episodes of peritonitis (Supplementary Figure S2; Supplementary Table S6A). Yet, despite statistically significant difference between such non-streptococcal Gram-positive infections and other episodes,
especially for local levels of IL-17A, IFN-γ and IL-15, RF-based algorithms were not as powerful in this case as for the above predictions of Gram-negative or streptococcal infections, most likely due to the remaining heterogeneity of the organisms in that patient group (Supplementary Table S6B).

Given that CNS species such as *Staphylococcus epidermidis* are the major cause of peritonitis in PD patients and are also clinically associated with a relatively benign outcome, we finally determined immune fingerprints that would specifically define CNS infections. Despite having only marginal or no statistical significance as individual biomarkers in conventional tests, the combination of IL-15, IL-16 and soluble IL-6 receptor (sIL-6R) levels, total cell count and MMP substrate turnover showed excellent performance in the RF model, with an AUC=0.961 (Figure 5; Supplementary Tables 7A+B), demonstrating that CNS infections are sufficiently immunologically distinct to allow a pathogen-specific diagnosis in PD patients.

Local biomarkers on the day of presentation correlate with subsequent clinical outcomes over the following 90 days. The nature of the causative pathogen and the underlying inflammatory response profoundly affect clinical outcomes from peritonitis in PD patients, indicating a need for prognostic biomarkers in early disease. When applying recursive feature elimination methods to our dataset, certain models accurately predicted the risk of downstream complications, defined as technique failure over the following 90 days, including catheter removal, transfer to haemodialysis and death (Figure 6). Patients experiencing technique failure after an episode of acute peritonitis had marginally higher levels of calprotectin, MMP-8, sIL-6R and transforming growth factor (TGF)-β in their dialysis effluent as well as lower CD4⁺:CD8⁺ T cell ratios, compared to uncomplicated cases. Whilst not being significantly different on their own, the combination of these five parameters in RF models yielded an
AUC=0.911 with excellent sensitivity (Supplementary Tables 8A+B), implying that the development of prognostic tests is feasible.

Taken together, our findings show that combinations of local biomarkers readily identify clinically meaningful subgroups of peritonitis patients, depending on the culture results and subsequent clinical outcomes (Figure 7). With microbiologically distinct infections also displaying immunologically distinct immune responses, most individual parameters constituting meaningful fingerprints were only associated with single patient groups. However, certain biomarkers featured more prominently in these mathematical models than others, suggesting that they are particularly important factors in acute peritonitis, such as IL-1β and IL-15, which each contributed to three different biomarker signatures, and the total cell count that was included in four different signatures and is thus likely to be of utmost relevance in the diagnosis of PD patients.
DISCUSSION

The present study demonstrates that different groups of bacteria induce qualitatively distinct local immune responses in infected patients. Specific biomarker signatures were associated with acute infections by Gram-negative and Gram-positive organisms, respectively, and with culture-negative episodes of peritonitis of unclear aetiology. Taking advantage of the unique access to local inflammatory responses that is possible in PD patients via the peritoneal catheter and drained dialysate, we were also able for the first time to define pathogen-specific local immune responses to defined genera of organisms such as streptococcal species and coagulase-negative staphylococci. These findings demonstrate the feasibility of developing rapid pathogen-specific diagnostics that exploit the exquisite responsiveness and specificity of the human immune system for different types of organisms. Such rapid methods might have greater utility than microbiological and molecular methods that aim at directly detecting such organisms but that are too slow, subject to confounding contaminants and often lack sufficient sensitivity to inform early patient management and target antibiotic therapy on the day of presentation with acute disease.31

Our study also demonstrates the power of using non-linear approaches for mining complex biomedical datasets where conventional statistical methods fail to yield satisfactory results and where individual biomarkers on their own are unlikely to reach sufficient sensitivity and specificity to change clinical practice. Notably, the nature of the signatures identified in this study varied according to the mathematical model applied. By directly comparing three different approaches and assessing their performance when predicting microbiological and clinical endpoints in PD patients, we identified RFs as the most suitable models in this study and patient cohort, yielding superior performances and at fewer biomarkers than SVMs and ANNs, in accordance with investigations in other fields of research.32-34
Gram-negative bacteria, streptococci and CNS are the major types of bacteria causing peritonitis in individuals receiving PD.\textsuperscript{11} Strikingly, clinical outcomes from infections by those organisms differ, implying differences in their pathogenicity, their susceptibility to antibiotics, and/or the pathophysiology of the host responses they trigger.\textsuperscript{12,15} Our findings demonstrate that in addition to their microbiological differences, Gram-negative bacteria, streptococci and CNS elicit fundamentally distinct immune responses, which is not only of relevance for the development of novel diagnostics but potentially also highlights key factors and cell types involved in sensing and fighting such infections. In this context, Vγ9/Vδ2 T cells and TNF-α appear to be particularly relevant in Gram-negative infections; IL-1β and MMPs in streptococcal infections; and IL-16 and sIL-6R in CNS infections. IL-15 featured in prediction models for streptococcal, non-streptococcal and CNS infection, indicating that this cytokine may play a role in all Gram-positive infections. In addition, the fact that IL-17A and IFN-γ featured prominently in non-streptococcal Gram-positive infections (which included CNS) but not in CNS infections themselves may argue for a particular role of both cytokines in response to Gram-positive bacteria other than streptococci and CNS, \textit{i.e.} in infections by \textit{Staphylococcus aureus} and/or coryneform bacteria. The organism-specific contributions of these soluble mediators during acute disease, the cell types that produce them and the targets that respond to them, can now be addressed in appropriate cellular assays, suitable animal models that mimic the situation in patients as closely as possible, and well-defined cohorts with bacterial peritonitis and other infections with access to the site of inflammation. This will ultimately further our understanding of antimicrobial immune responses and how to exploit such knowledge diagnostically and therapeutically. The roles of calprotectin, MMP-8, sIL-6R and TGF-β as well as the balance between CD4\textsuperscript{+} and CD8\textsuperscript{+} T cells may deserve special attention, with regard to their involvement in regulating pathological processes in the peritoneal cavity, and their contribution to predicting clinical outcomes.
Taken together, we have successfully applied different machine learning models to complex biomedical datasets, and identified key pathways involved in pathogen-specific immune responses at the site of infection. It is apparent that the nature of the signatures identified depends on both biological and analytical parameters. However, our present findings demonstrate that such methodologies have immediate diagnostic and prognostic implications at the point of care, by informing patient management and the choice of treatment before traditional culture results become available. Being based on a relatively small population in a single hospital, the biomarkers identified in this study and the corresponding algorithms now await external validation in larger patient cohorts at multiple sites, in order to demonstrate the applicability of the chosen approach to other centres where the spectrum of the infecting organisms and the previous infection history as well as patient demographics and healthcare settings may vary. Validated biomarker combinations can then be incorporated into appropriate diagnostic tests to be used in central laboratories or at the point of care, and into new patient management and treatment guidelines based on such test results. The final choice of biomarkers to be taken forward will depend on the desired performance requirements, with soluble proteins being equally suitable for automated immunodiagnostic analysers and bedside or home tests, whilst assessments of immune cell subsets such as Vγ9/Vδ2 T cells would require standardised flow cytometric protocols. In the meantime, our study reaffirms the importance of correctly interpreting simple parameters such as the total cell count (contributing to four different immune fingerprints), and the differential leukocyte count (reflected in the proportion of CD14+ cells amongst total cells), which already convey vital information about the nature of the causative pathogen.
MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Patient samples.** This study was approved by the South East Wales Local Ethics Committee (04WSE04/27) and registered on the UK Clinical Research Network Study Portfolio under reference number #11838 "Patient immune responses to infection in PD". All individuals provided written informed consent. The local cohort comprised 83 adults PD patients admitted between 2008 and 2016 to the University Hospital of Wales, Cardiff, on day 1 of acute peritonitis. 24 age and gender-matched stable PD patients with no infection in the previous 3 months were included as controls. Subjects positive for HIV or hepatitis C virus were excluded. Clinical diagnosis of acute peritonitis was based on the presence of abdominal pain and cloudy peritoneal effluent with >100 white blood cells per mm$^3$. According to the microbiological analysis of the effluent from pre-inoculated blood culture bottles by the routine Microbiology Laboratory, Public Health Wales, peritonitis episodes were defined as culture-negative ($n=19$; after incubation of up to 5 days) or as confirmed bacterial infections by Gram-positive ($n=47$) and Gram-negative organisms ($n=17$) (Table 1). Cases of fungal infection and mixed or unclear culture results were excluded from the present study. Clinical outcomes were recorded by following patients for 90 days after presenting with peritonitis. Technique failure was defined as catheter removal, transfer to haemodialysis (HD) or death within 90 days, and occurred in 21.1% of culture-negative episodes, 23.4% of Gram-positive infections and 47.1% of Gram-negative infections (Table 1). Samples from ≥ 8 hour dwells with volumes of 1-2.5 litres were collected for biomarker measurements and processed as described before.$^{6,13-15}$

**Cellular biomarkers.** Cells from cloudy peritoneal effluents were acquired on an eight-color FACSCanto II (BD Biosciences) and analyzed with FlowJo 10.1 (TreeStar), using monoclonal antibodies against CD3 (SK7), CD4 (RPA-T4), CD8 (RPA-T8), CD15 (HI98 or HIM1) and TCR-Vδ2 from BD Biosciences; anti-TCR-Vγ9 (Immu360) from Beckman Coulter; and anti-
CD14 (61D3) from eBioscience; together with appropriate isotype controls. Leukocyte populations were gated based on their appearance in side scatter and forward scatter area/height and exclusion of live/dead staining (fixable Aqua; Invitrogen). Biomarkers determined were the total cell counts; the percentages of CD3\(^+\) T cells, CD14\(^+\) monocytes/macrophages, and CD15\(^+\) neutrophils amongst total cells; the frequencies of CD4\(^+\), CD8\(^+\), V\(\gamma\)9\(^+\) and V\(\delta\)2\(^+\) cells within the CD3\(^+\) T cell gate; and the ratios of CD4\(^+\) to CD8\(^+\) T cells.

**Soluble biomarkers.** Cell-free peritoneal effluents were analyzed on a SECTOR Imager 6000 (Meso Scale Discovery) using the V-PLEX Human Cytokine 30-Plex Kit to measure levels of IL-1\(\alpha\), IL-1\(\beta\), IL-2, IL-4, IL-5, IL-6, IL-7, IL-10, IL-12p40, IL-12p70, IL-13, IL-15, IL-16, IL-17A, IFN-\(\gamma\), TNF-\(\alpha\), TNF-\(\beta\), GM-CSF and VEGF, as well as the chemokines CCL2, CCL3, CCL4, CCL11, CCL13, CCL17, CCL22, CCL26, CXCL8 and CXCL10; ultrasensitive single-plex assays for soluble IL-6 receptor (sIL-6R) and IL-18 (Meso Scale Discovery); and a customer-made single-plex assay for IL-22 using capture (MAB7822) and biotinylated detection antibodies (BAM7821) and recombinant human IL-22 from R&D Systems. Conventional ELISA kits were used to measure TGF-\(\beta\), total MMP-8, total MMP-9 and surfactant protein D (SPD) (R&D Systems); calprotectin (Hycult); and CCL2 Bioscience). Human neutrophil elastase (HNE) was measured using a B.I.T.S. ELISA kit (Mologic). Active HNE was measured using the fluorogenic substrate MeOSuc-Ala-Ala-Pro-Val-AMC (Bachem); active MMP was measured using the fluorogenic substrate Mca-Lys-Pro-Leu-Gly-Leu-Dpa-Ala-Arg-NH\(_2\) (Enzo Life Sciences) and by zymography using pre-cast Novex gelatin zymogram gels (Invitrogen) scanned on a BioRad GS800 densitometer and analysed using Image J software. Total protein was measured using the Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Measurements that were below or above the detection limit were replaced by the lowest and highest detectable values for each biomarker, respectively.
**Data pre-processing.** All analyses were performed using R software version 3.2.5 (2006-04-14). Before applying machine learning models, missing data imputation was applied to fit gaps due to missing or failed measurements by adopting Multivariate Imputation by Chained Equations,\textsuperscript{36} which imputes an incomplete feature by generating synthetic values taking into account their relationship with other biomarkers, using RF models (Supplementary Table S9). Data were then standardized to a mean of zero and a variance of one to reduce the effect of large feature range variation. After pre-processing, the samples in the minority groups were un-sampled so that minority and majority groups had equal frequencies.

**Feature elimination.** The caret package in R (ref. \textsuperscript{37}) was adopted for the implementation of recursive feature elimination methods, using three different machine learning models: SVMs with radial basis function (RBF) kernel in the kernlab R package;\textsuperscript{38} RFs with Breiman’s algorithm in the randomForest R package;\textsuperscript{25} and single-hidden-layer ANNs in the nnet R package.\textsuperscript{39} To reduce variability, re-sampling methods were applied in the outer layer of the iteration and cross-validation was used in the model fitting and parameter tuning to avoid over-fitting. During parameter tuning, the search regions for hyper-parameters in different classification models were set as follows; the penalty factor $C$ that controls the trade-off between learning errors and the complexity term and the RBF kernel parameter $\sigma$ ranged both from $2^{-5}$ to $2^5$ with steps of 2; the number of trees in RFs were selected from $[100, 300, 500, 1000, 3000]$; and the size of ANNs ranged from 2 to $2^{10}$ hidden nodes with steps of 2 and a weight decay from $10^{-4}$ to $10^{-10}$ with steps of 10. The number of repeats for re-sampling was set as 5, and for cross-validation and model selection as 10.

**Basic statistical analyses.** Correlations between all 49 biomarkers were determined using the corrplot R package,\textsuperscript{40} based on correlation calculations using the Hmisc R package.\textsuperscript{41} Means, standard errors, skewness and kurtosis were determined with plotrix R and e1071 R
Mann-Whitney tests (two-sample Wilcoxon tests) were applied to assess the relationship between two patient groups. Heatmaps were visualized using the gplots R package.\textsuperscript{44}
DISCLOSURE

Chan-Yu Lin, Nicholas Topley and Matthias Eberl are inventors on patent applications filed by University College Cardiff Consultants Ltd (Cardiff University) in Europe and the USA on the identification of bacterial infections in peritoneal dialysis patients. Paul Davis is the co-founder and chief scientific officer of Mologic Ltd.; Paul Davis and Gita Parekh are shareholders/option holders in Mologic.

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REFERENCES


Table 1. Characteristics of the patient cohort investigated in this study.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Correlation analysis of local biomarkers in a total of 83 PD patients on the day of presentation with acute peritonitis. Ellipses depict the correlation coefficients for each pair of biomarkers in the corresponding cell of the matrix, with the direction of the dip and the colour of the shading representing positive and negative correlations, respectively. Only pairs with significant correlations ($p$<0.05) are shown. Analyses were performed using the corrplot R and Hmisc R packages.

Figure 2. Identification of local immune fingerprints associated with peritonitis caused by Gram-negative bacteria. (A) Performance of recursive feature elimination models based on Random Forest (RF), support vector machines (SVM) and artificial neural networks (ANN), for the prediction of Gram-negative infections ($n$=17) against all other episodes of peritonitis ($n$=66), shown as area under the ROC curve (AUC) depending on the number of biomarkers. Red symbols depict the maximum AUC achieved for each model. (B) Kurtosis and skewness of the top 5 biomarkers selected by RF-based feature elimination. (C) ROC analysis showing specificity and sensitivity of the top 5 biomarkers. (D) Tukey plots of the top 5 biomarkers in patients with confirmed Gram-negative infections and with all other episodes of peritonitis, as assessed by Mann-Whitney tests (*, $p$<0.05; **, $p$<0.01; ***, $p$<0.001). (E) Heatmap showing the top 5 biomarkers across all patients presenting with acute peritonitis.

Figure 3. Local immune fingerprints in culture-negative episodes of peritonitis. (A) Performance of RF, SVM and ANN based feature elimination models, for the prediction of culture-negative episodes (no growth, $n$=19) against microbiologically confirmed infections (other, $n$=64), shown as AUC depending on the number of biomarkers. Red symbols depict
the maximum AUC for each model. (B) Kurtosis and skewness of the top 5 biomarkers selected by RF-based feature elimination. (C) ROC analysis showing specificity and sensitivity of the top 5 biomarkers. (D) Tukey plots of the top 5 biomarkers in patients with culture-negative peritonitis and with infectious (other) episodes of peritonitis, as assessed by Mann-Whitney tests (*, $p<0.05$; **, $p<0.01$; *** $p<0.001$). (E) Heatmap showing the top 5 biomarkers across all patients presenting with acute peritonitis.

**Figure 4. Local immune fingerprints in streptococcal infections.** (A) Performance of RF, SVM and ANN based feature elimination models, for the prediction of infections caused by streptococcal species (*Streptococcus spp.* and *Enterococcus spp.*, $n=16$) against all other episodes of peritonitis ($n=67$), shown as AUC depending on the number of biomarkers. One episode of peritonitis classified as streptococcal infection was a co-infection caused by *Enterococcus sp.* with light growth of coagulase-negative *Staphylococcus sp.* Red symbols depict the maximum AUC for each model. (B) Kurtosis and skewness of the top 5 biomarkers selected by RF-based feature elimination. (C) ROC analysis showing specificity and sensitivity of the top 5 biomarkers. (D) Tukey plots of the top 5 biomarkers in patients with confirmed streptococcal infections and with all other episodes of peritonitis, as assessed by Mann-Whitney tests (*, $p<0.05$; **, $p<0.01$; *** $p<0.001$). (E) Heatmap showing the top 5 biomarkers across all patients presenting with acute peritonitis.

**Figure 5. Local immune fingerprints in coagulase-negative *Staphylococcus* (CNS) infections.** (A) Performance of RF, SVM and ANN based feature elimination models, for the prediction of infections caused by CNS (*Staphylococcus epidermidis* and related species; $n=21$) against all other episodes of peritonitis ($n=62$), shown as AUC depending on the number of biomarkers. Red symbols depict the maximum AUC for each model. (B) Kurtosis and skewness of the top 5 biomarkers selected by RF-based feature elimination. (C) ROC analysis
showing specificity and sensitivity of the top 5 biomarkers. (D) Tukey plots of the top 5 biomarkers in patients with confirmed CNS infections and with all other episodes of peritonitis, as assessed by Mann-Whitney tests (*, $p<0.05$; **, $p<0.01$; ***,$p<0.001$). (E) Heatmap showing the top 5 biomarkers across all patients presenting with acute peritonitis.

**Figure 6. Local immune fingerprints associated with poor clinical outcomes.** (A) Performance of RF, SVM and ANN based feature elimination models, for the prediction of technique failure over the next 90 days (catheter removal, transfer to haemodialysis or peritonitis-related death; $n=23$) against all other episodes of peritonitis ($n=60$), shown as AUC depending on the number of biomarkers. Red symbols depict the maximum AUC for each model. (B) Kurtosis and skewness of the top 5 biomarkers selected by RF-based feature elimination. (C) ROC analysis showing specificity and sensitivity of the top 5 biomarkers. (D) Tukey plots of the top 5 biomarkers in patients with subsequent technique failure and all other patients, as assessed by Mann-Whitney tests (*, $p<0.05$; **, $p<0.01$; ***,$p<0.001$). (E) Heatmap showing the top 5 biomarkers across all patients presenting with acute peritonitis.

**Figure 7. Summary of disease-specific immune fingerprints in patients presenting with acute peritonitis.** Shown are the top 5 biomarkers associated with the type of causative organism as indicated, or with the risk of technique failure over the next 90 days.