



Review

Hereditary systemic autoinflammatory diseases

Juan I. Aróstegui

Unidad de Enfermedades Autoinflamatorias, Servicio de Inmunología, Hospital Clínic, Villarroel, Barcelona, Spain

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received January 7, 2010

Accepted January 10, 2010

Keywords:

Autoinflammatory diseases
Hereditary periodic fever syndrome
Innate immune response
Inflammasome
Nod-like receptor
Pyrin
Interleukin-1beta
TNF

Palabras clave:

Enfermedades autoinflamatorias
Síndromes hereditarios de fiebre periódica
Respuesta inmune innata
Inflamasoma
Nod-like receptor
Pirina
Interleucina-1beta
TNF

ABSTRACT

Systemic autoinflammatory diseases encompass different rare clinical entities characterized by recurrent acute inflammatory episodes secondary to a dysregulated inflammatory process. Since their first clinical descriptions, the Mendelian hereditary nature of some of them became evident, with their genetic and molecular basis being recently elucidated. There are disease-causing mutations in genes encoding for different proteins involved in the innate immune response and inflammation. Herein, we will introduce the reader to an updated review of the main clinical, physiopathological and therapeutic features of the different hereditary systemic autoinflammatory diseases.

© 2010 Elsevier España, S.L. All rights reserved.

Enfermedades autoinflamatorias sistémicas hereditarias

RESUMEN

Las enfermedades autoinflamatorias sistémicas engloban un conjunto de enfermedades poco frecuentes caracterizadas todas ellas por la presencia de episodios inflamatorios agudos y recurrentes, que son consecuencia de una disregulación del control del proceso inflamatorio. Desde sus respectivas descripciones clínicas, se había observado un claro patrón hereditario mendeliano para algunas de ellas. En fechas recientes se han identificado los defectos genéticos y moleculares subyacentes al identificarse mutaciones responsables de enfermedad en diferentes genes relacionados con la respuesta inmune innata y con la inflamación. A lo largo de la presente revisión se abordarán de una manera actualizada los principales aspectos clínicos, fisiopatológicos y terapéuticos de las diferentes enfermedades autoinflamatorias hereditarias.

© 2010 Elsevier España, S.L. Todos los derechos reservados.

The concept of systemic auto-inflammatory disease was put forth in 1999 by Dr. Kastner, of the National Institute of Arthritis and Musculoskeletal and Skin Diseases (NIAMS), to encompass certain diseases with apparently similar clinical manifestations and physiopathological bases (recurrent febrile and inflammatory episodes). Ever since it appeared, a counterposition was set up between these diseases and autoimmune diseases, with which they may share certain clinical similarities, although they present evident physiopathological differences, in that autoimmune response markers (high titre auto-antibodies or self antigen-specific T cells) are not detected in auto-inflammatory diseases.¹ At present, the dysregulation of the inflammatory process has been posited as the common physiopathological basis for all auto-inflammatory

diseases. As we will see throughout this revision, some of these auto-inflammatory diseases are hereditary, with a typical Mendelian pattern, the consequence of mutations affecting genes that code for proteins directly involved in inflammation and its regulation.²

Ever since it was defined, the number of hereditary auto-inflammatory diseases has slowly increased, due to the greater knowledge about them that has been acquired and thanks to advances in the field of genetics.³ Although there are various different classifications, this revision will use the one based on the criterion of periodicity or persistence of the underlying inflammatory process with a clear distinction between 2 large groups: hereditary periodic fever syndromes and persistent hereditary auto-inflammatory diseases (see Table 1).

E-mail address: jiaroste@clinic.ub.es

Table 1
Classification of hereditary systemic auto-inflammatory diseases, genes responsible and type of inheritance

Hereditary periodic fever syndromes	Familial Mediterranean fever–FMF TNF receptor associated periodic syndrome–TRAPS		<i>MEFV</i> -AR Gene <i>NFRSF1A</i> -AD Gene
Persistent auto-inflammatory diseases	Hyper-IgD and periodic fever syndrome–HIDS Criopyrinopathies or criopyrin-associated periodic syndromes (CAPS)	Familial cold-induced auto-inflammatory syndrome–FCAS Muckle–Wells syndrome CINCA-NOMID syndrome	<i>MVK</i> -AR Gene <i>NLRP3</i> (<i>CIAS1</i>)-AD Gene
	Paediatric granulomatous arthritis	Blau syndrome Early onset sarcoidosis	<i>NOD2</i> -AD Gene <i>CD2BP1</i> -AD Gene
	Pyogenic aseptic arthritis, pyoderma gangrenosum, and cystic acne syndrome–PAPA		

AD indicates autosomal dominant; AR, autosomal recessive.

Table 2
Main characteristics of hereditary periodic fever syndromes

	FMF	HIDS	TRAPS
Time parameters			
Debut	<20 years	<12 months	<10 years
Duration	1-3 days	4-6 days	>7 days
Periodicity	10-12 a year	9-10 a year	3-6 a year
Fever	Yes	Yes	Yes
Digestive manifestations	Very common Sterile peritonitis	Common Abdominal pain, diarrhoea	Very common Abdominal pain
Joint manifestations	Common Polyarthralgias/monoarthritis	Common Polyarthralgias/occasional arthritis	Common Polyarthralgias/monoarthritis
Myalgias	Occasional	Occasional	Very common/migratory
Skin manifestations	Erythema erisipela	Maculopapular exanthema	Migratory erythematous exanthema
Eye manifestations conjunctivitis	Uncommon	Uncommon	Very common/periorbital oedema/
Adenopathies	Occasional	Very frequent (98%)	Occasional
Amyloidosis	Variable	Very uncommon	Variable (2%-25%)
Gene	<i>MEFV</i>	<i>MVK</i>	<i>TNFRSF1A</i>
Protein	Pyrin/marenostrin	Mevalonate kinase	TNF receptor 1
Pattern of inheritance	Autosomal recessive (in discussion)	Autosomal recessive	Autosomal dominant

FMF indicates Familial Mediterranean Fever; HIDS, hyper-IgD and periodic fever syndrome; TRAPS, TNF receptor 1.

Before getting into details, we feel it would be wise to comment on a series of premises that are valid for all these diseases. Given their low prevalence, they should be considered rare diseases (fewer than 5 cases/10,000 inhabitants, according to the EU criterion), and, as such, it is possible that their dissemination in the medical community is quite limited. On the other hand, despite the fact that they are hereditary diseases, the presence of a positive family history of illness tends to be low ($\approx 10\%$ of all cases), which makes a definite diagnosis difficult. Finally, there are no specific laboratory markers for each of these diseases, with the exception of genetic testing. For all these reasons, it is not easy to establish a definitive diagnosis in ordinary clinical practice, with more or less delay seen between the debut of the illness until its diagnosis, multiple complementary testing being carried out, and the appearance of complications during the natural course of the illness.

Hereditary periodic fever syndromes

This group encompasses a set of diseases characterized by the appearance of acute, self-limiting, inflammatory episodes of varying duration that recur periodically.⁴ Time parameters can be identified in them (age at onset and duration and periodicity of the episodes) that are tremendously useful for their differential diagnosis. The main diseases in this group are Familial Mediterranean Fever (FMF),

the periodic syndrome associated with the TNF receptor 1 (TRAPS) and hyper-IgD and periodic fever syndrome (HIDS) (Table 2).

Familial Mediterranean fever

FMF is the most common hereditary auto-inflammatory disease in the world. It basically affects populations adjacent to the Mediterranean, with a high incidence in certain populations on its Eastern basin (Turks, Armenians, Jews, and Arabs).^{4,6} There are no data regarding its true incidence in our country. Nevertheless, the fact that it is better known in the medical community and the availability of genetic analyses for its definitive diagnosis has made it possible to identify several cases in our country over the course of the last decade.

The first descriptions of FMF date back to the 20th century, when it was already observed that it is an illness that courses with brief (48–72 h) acute inflammatory episodes that recur periodically every 3–5 weeks, albeit with a fair degree of variability from one patient to the next. The chief clinical manifestations are: 1) fever (96%); 2) sterile inflammatory serositis, the peritoneum and pleura being the most commonly affected serous membranes (92% and 57%, respectively); 3) musculoskeletal manifestations, such as polyarthralgias, polymyalgias, and, less commonly, arthritis; 4) skin manifestations, and 5) an intense acute phase reaction.^{2,4,6} During the intercritical

intervals, patients may be totally symptom-free or they may present less intense symptoms.

As a consequence of these uncontrolled recurrent inflammatory episodes over the years, some patients develop clinical symptoms due to the deposition of the amyloid protein in different organs (secondary amyloidosis), with the kidney being the most often affected, generally presenting as chronic kidney failure.^{5,7} Oddly enough, before the appearance of colchicine, early-onset kidney failure (in 3rd or 4th decade of life) was one of the main causes of mortality in FMF patients. At present, the treatment of choice is colchicine *per os*, which is efficacious in totally or partially controlling episodes in 85%–95% of the cases.^{8–10}

It has long been thought that FMF was a disease handed down to the offspring, and classically, it was assigned an autosomal recessive pattern of inheritance. In 1997, 2 international groups discovered its genetic basis, by identifying the mutations that cause the illness in a new gene called *MEFV* (for MEditerranean FeVer), which codes for the pyrin/marenostrin protein.^{11,12} Many of its functions are unknown, but different research papers have pointed toward a possible role as a negative inflammasome regulator, a multiprotein complex in charge of generating the active form of caspase 1 and of the pro-inflammatory cytokines IL-1 β , IL-18, and IL-33.¹³

Ever since 1997, the mutational analysis of the *MEFV* gene has been consolidated as the definitive diagnostic test for FMF, making it possible to distinguish it from other auto-inflammatory diseases and to provide appropriate genetic counselling. However, one of the consequences of these studies is the reconsideration of its inheritance pattern, currently subject to debate due to the fact that up to 40% of patients with a clinical diagnosis of FMF in Western countries are carriers of a single mutated allele, a result that would be consistent with a dominant inheritance pattern.¹⁴

TNF-receptor associated periodic syndrome (TRAPS)

The first description of this illness dates back to 1982, when a large Irish family came to light with several of its members affected by a hereditary periodic fever syndrome. The illness presented certain similarities with FMF, but there were evident differences, such as a clear dominant hereditary pattern and protracted inflammatory episodes, lasting for up to several weeks. In light of all this and in contrast with FMF, the first name it received was familial Hibernian fever (FHF).¹⁵ Subsequently, new cases were reported, both familial and sporadic, and received different names such as benign periodic fever, dominant FMF, and dominant periodic fever with amyloidosis.^{16,17}

From a clinical point of view, the disease debuts during childhood (under the age of 10 years) and presents prolonged acute episodes (1–4 weeks) that recur periodically every 3–4 months. The main clinical manifestations are: 1) fever; 2) migratory myalgias, due to inflammatory fasciitis; 3) migratory, centrifuge cutaneous exanthema, located in skin areas on the surface of the muscle groups affected by the fasciitis; 4) aseptic inflammatory serositis, with the peritoneum being the serous membrane most often affected (92%); 5) eye manifestations, such as periorbital oedema and conjunctivitis, and 6) an intense acute phase reaction.¹⁸ As in FMF, secondary amyloidosis is the main complication associated with it, appearing with greater prevalence than in FMF (up to 25% of the cases).¹⁸ Curiously, the main risk factor for said complication appears to be the type of mutation responsible for the illness.

From the first description of the syndrome, an autosomal dominant pattern of inheritance was clearly evident. In 1999, its genetic foundation was discovered with the identification of the disease-causing mutations in the *TNFRSF1A* gene, which codes for TNF receptor 1 (also known as p55 and CD120a). In an attempt to unify the different names that had been given to the illness and associate it with its physiopathological basis, the acronym TRAPS

(*TNF-Receptor Associated Periodic Syndrome*) was proposed in 1999.¹ Since then, more than 50 mutations have been reported to cause the disease, available in the INFEVERS mutational database (e-mail: <http://fmf.igh.cnrs.fr/ISSAID/infevers>).¹⁹

Until 1999, the main treatment for the TRAPS syndrome was steroids, generally given at high doses and for protracted periods.¹⁸ The side effects of this treatment, associated with the young age of many of the patients, made it necessary to search for alternative treatments. The identification of one of the TNF receptors as the molecular basis for the illness made it possible to use TNF blockers (etanercept) with highly satisfactory clinical outcomes.^{18,20} However, a dissociation was seen with these drugs between the clinical response (generally very good) and the biochemical response (highly variable, with important oscillations of the inflammatory parameters).^{21,22} For all these reasons, in an effort to achieve good clinical and biochemical responses and, consequently, to decrease the risk of amyloidosis, the IL-1 blocker anakinra has recently been used successfully.^{23,24}

Hyper-IgD and periodic fever syndrome (HIDS)

Also known as Dutch Fever, this syndrome was described in 1984 by Dr. van der Meer.²⁵ There are currently more than 200 cases identified in the international registry of the illness (<http://www.hids.net>). Although most of the people initially affected were of Central European descent, especially Dutch and French, several cases have now been identified among non-Central European populations.

Clinically, the illness debuts at very early ages (under the age of 12 months) and presents acute inflammatory episodes of intermediate duration (5–6 days), recurring periodically every 5–6 weeks. Curiously, immunizations included on the vaccination schedule have been identified as triggering acute episodes. The main clinical manifestations are: 1) fever; 2) bilateral, laterocervical, inflammatory lymphadenopathies; 3) mouth ulcers; 4) cutaneous exanthema; 5) aseptic inflammatory serositis; 6) acute phase reaction; 7) polyclonal increase of IgD and IgA, and 8) increased urinary excretion of mevalonic acid during the acute episodes, not during intercritical intervals.^{26,27} Unlike what has been said about FMF and TRAPS syndrome, secondary amyloidosis is not a common complication of this syndrome, with only 3 cases having been reported thus far.^{28,29}

The HIDS syndrome presents an autosomal recessive pattern of inheritance, and in 1999, its genetic base was discovered when disease-causing mutations were identified in the *MVK* gene, which codes for the mevalonate kinase enzyme.^{30,31} Oddly, this same gene had been identified as being responsible for mevalonic aciduria, a serious metabolic pathology.³² It is currently believed that both diseases represent the extremes of a continuous spectrum of seriousness. Thus, the mevalonic aciduria would constitute the most severe form, as a result of the total and permanent loss of activity of the mevalonate kinase enzyme, whereas HIDS would be the most mild form, caused by the partial, but not total loss of the enzyme's activity.³³ This hypothesis is founded on the high prevalence of the p.V377I mutation in HIDS, which has been proven to generate a protein with residual enzymatic activity (3%–5%).^{30,31,34}

From a treatment perspective, any number of anti-inflammatory approaches have been used in these patients (NSAIDs, colchicine, thalidomide, IV immunoglobulins, steroids, statins, TNF blockers,...) with highly disparate responses from one patient to another.^{35–38} The recent identification of the physiopathological link between the HIDS syndrome and the inflammasome and IL-1 have made it possible to apply the IL-1 blocker anakinra in the treatment of this syndrome, with clearly promising results.^{39,40}

Persistent hereditary auto-inflammatory diseases

A set of auto-inflammatory diseases are encompassed in this section, all of which follow a chronic, non-episodic course that

can present exacerbations. This heading includes the criopyrin-associated periodic syndromes (CAPS), paediatric granulomatous arthritis, and pyogenic aseptic arthritis, pyoderma gangrenosum and acne syndrome (PAPA).

Criopyrin-associated periodic syndromes (CAPS) or criopyrinopathies

Also known as familial urticariform syndromes, this section includes 3 diseases [familial cold-induced auto-inflammatory syndrome (FCAS), Muckle–Wells syndrome, and CINCA-NOMID syndrome], initially described as unrelated entities. All three follow an autosomal dominant pattern of inheritance, share a single molecular mechanism, and represent different degrees of severity along a continuum.

The first clinical reports of the FCAS syndrome go back to the 1940s and represent the mildest form within CAPS.^{41,42} It debuts early, oftentimes at birth, and is characterized by the appearance of urticariform exanthema following generalized exposure to cold, which may be accompanied by low-grade fever, abdominal discomfort, conjunctivitis and arthromyalgias. The Muckle–Wells syndrome was described in 1962 and represents an intermediate degree of severity.⁴³ It debuts during childhood and is characterized by the appearance of urticariform exanthema accompanied by recurrent fever, abdominal pain, arthromyalgias and arthritis. During later stages (3rd decade of life) the complications defining the syndrome may appear: secondary amyloidosis (25% of cases) and progressive sensorineural hearing loss (35%). The CINCA-NOMID syndrome was described at the beginning of the 1980s as an independent rheumatic entity and different from systemic onset JAI.^{44,45} It debuts during the neonatal period and is characterized by the presence of urticariform exanthema, an important degree of joint involvement (recurrent arthritis or arthropathies), significant neurological involvement (chronic aseptic meningitis, papilloedema, convulsions, sensorineural hearing loss), recurrent fever and dysmorphic traits.

In 2001, the molecular basis of the FCAS and Muckle–Wells syndromes was discovered when disease-causing mutations were identified in a new gene, then named *CIAS1* and currently known as *NLRP3*.⁴⁶ In 2002, two independent groups identified mutations in the *CIAS1* gene in patients with CINCA-NOMID syndrome, thus establishing the concept of gradient of severity.^{47,48} The *NLRP3* gene codes for the criopyrin protein or Nalp3, a member of the cytoplasmic Nod-like receptor (NLR) family, involved in the innate immune response. This protein is part of the inflammasome, a multiprotein cytosolic complex that, once assembled, aims to generate the active form of caspase-1, which, in turn, generates the active form of the inflammatory cytokines IL-1 beta, IL-18, and IL-33.¹³ At present, it is thought that the mutations responsible for CAPS syndromes generate a hyperfunctioning criopyrin, which translates into an excessive, uncontrolled production of the said inflammatory cytokines.⁴⁸

Given the different severity of each entity, the treatments used in each has differed historically, ranging from antihistamines and protective measures against the cold in FCAS syndrome to high-dose steroids in the case of CINCA-NOMID syndrome. Ever since the role of IL-1 beta was discovered in the physiopathology of these syndromes, the treatment of choice for them is IL-1 blockage, the most widely used drug being anakinra, which is the human recombinant form of IL-1 receptor antagonist.^{49–52} Nevertheless, there are other IL-1 blocking compounds, with different mechanisms, in more or less advanced stages of clinical trials.^{53,54}

Paediatric granulomatous arthritis

This group includes 2 diseases, early onset sarcoidosis (EOS) and Blau syndrome (BS), described as independent clinical entities during the 1970s and 1980s.^{55–58} Despite the significant clinical and pathological similarities between the two, there was intense medical

debate for more than 20 years as to whether they were actually one or two diseases, due to the fact that patients with EOS were individuals without a positive family history of the illness (sporadic cases), whereas those with BS did present a family history of the illness, with an autosomal dominant pattern of inheritance.⁵⁹ In 2005, it was established that the genetic foundation of both entities was one and the same, thereby resolving the debate and proposing the name paediatric granulomatous arthritis to cover both.^{60,61}

From a clinical perspective, the illness debuts early (<4 years of age) with the following initial manifestations: 1) discreetly granular cutaneous erythematous exanthema and 2) symmetric chronic polyarthritis, which affects large and small joints and that is accompanied by intense tenosinovitis due to granulomatous infiltration of synovia. During the natural course of the disease, different manifestations may appear such as: 1) aggressive, generally multifocal uveitis, the leading cause of morbidity in these patients; 2) recurrent fever (50%); 3) granulomatous infiltration in different organs (kidney, liver, heart), and 4) adenopathies. There is no pulmonary involvement in the initial form, enabling differential diagnosis with adult-form sarcoidosis. From an anatomical-pathological point of view, multiple non-caseating granulomas are observed in different organs and tissues.^{60–62}

In 2001, BS-causing mutations were identified in the *CARD15* gene (nowadays known as *NOD2*), which codes for the Nod2 protein, a member of the NLR family of receptors of the innate immune system.^{63,64} In 2005, mutations in the same *CARD15* gene were identified in patients with EOS, some of them the same as had previously been described in BS.^{65,66} The only difference between the two diseases is that in BS the mutations were identified in all the members of a family with the disease, whereas in EOS, the mutations identified were *de novo* mutations that appeared for the first time in the patient and are responsible for the absence of a positive family history of the disease (sporadic cases). Since 2001, more than 10 mutations have been identified as causing the illness, with the most prevalent mutations being located on codon 334 of the protein (p.R334Q and p.R334W).^{60–62}

The leading treatment for this illness has been prolonged treatment with high-dose steroids; less potent anti-inflammatory therapies have proven to be for the most part ineffective. In the light of the side effects in paediatric patients, TNF blockers (infliximab) have recently been used with satisfactory clinical results.⁶¹

Sterile pyogenic arthritis, pyoderma gangrenosum and acne syndrome (PAPA)

Described for the first time in 1997, PAPA syndrome is one of the most uncommon hereditary auto-inflammatory syndromes.⁶⁷ It follows an autosomal dominant hereditary pattern, predominantly affecting joints and skin, presenting at different times in the patient's life. The illness debuts at early ages (<5 years); joint manifestations are the first to appear. The most common form is recurrent monoarthritis, generally of the large joints, which is destructive and presents purulent, sterile synovial fluid. As age increases, skin manifestations emerge, the most important of which are: 1) pyoderma gangrenosum, generally following small trauma or injections, which are difficult to treat, and 2) cystic acne, that tends to appear starting with puberty. Likewise, other less common clinical manifestations have been reported, such as hidradenitis suppurativa.^{67,68}

The genetic basis for this disease was described in 2002, when the mutations responsible for the illness were identified in the *CD2BP1* gene, encoding for the ptpip1 protein and participating in inflammation regulation by physically interacting with the pyrin/marenostrin protein and acting on the inflammasome.^{69,70}

Various different treatment approaches have been used in this disease; classically, the most widely used ones are with high-dose steroids. Since the introduction of cytokine blockers (TNF and IL-1),

different case reports have shown outstanding clinical responses to these drugs, hinting at the possibility of them being the treatment of choice for this disease.^{71–73}

References

- McDermott MF, Aksentijevich I, Galon J, McDermott EM, Ogunkolade BW, Centola M, et al. Germline mutations in the extracellular domains of the 55 kDa TNF receptor, TNFR1, define a family of dominantly inherited autoinflammatory syndromes. *Cell*. 1999;97:133–44.
- Kastner DL, Brydges S, Hull KM. Chapter 27: Periodic fever syndromes. In: Ochs HD, Edvard Smith CI, Puck JM, editors. *Primary immunodeficiency diseases. A molecular and genetic approach*, Second edition. Oxford University Press; 2007. p. 367–89.
- Brydges S, Kastner DL. The systemic autoinflammatory diseases: inborn errors of the innate immune system. *Curr Top Microbiol Immunol*. 2006;305:127–60.
- Drenth JPH, Van Der Meer JWM. Hereditary periodic fever. *N Engl J Med*. 2001;345:1748–57.
- Samuels J, Aksentijevich I, Torosyan Y, Centola M, Deng Z, Sood R, et al. Familial Mediterranean fever at the millennium. Clinical spectrum, ancient mutations, and a survey of 100 American referrals to the National Institutes of Health. *Medicine (Baltimore)*. 1998;77:268–97.
- Ben-Chetrit E, Levy M. Familial Mediterranean fever. *Lancet*. 1998;351:659–64.
- Lachmann HJ, Goodman HJB, Gilbertson JA, Galimore JR, Sabin CA, Gilmore JD, et al. Natural History and outcome in systemic AA amyloidosis. *N Engl J Med*. 2007;356:2361–71.
- Goldstein RC, Schwabe AD. Prophylactic colchicine therapy in familial Mediterranean fever. A controlled, double-blind study. *Ann Intern Med*. 1974;81:792–4.
- Dinarello CA, Wolff SM, Goldfinger SE, Dale DC, Alling DW. Colchicine therapy for Familial Mediterranean Fever. A double-blind trial. *N Engl J Med*. 1974;291:934–7.
- Zemer D, Revach M, Pras M, Modan B, Schor S, Sohar E, et al. A controlled trial of colchicine in preventing attacks of familial Mediterranean fever. *N Engl J Med*. 1974;291:932–4.
- The International FMF Consortium. Ancient missense mutations in a new member of the RoRet gene family are likely to cause familial Mediterranean fever. *Cell*. 1997;90:797–807.
- The French FMF Consortium. A candidate gene for familial Mediterranean fever. *Nat Genet*. 1997;17:25–31.
- Martinon F, Burns K, Tschopp J. The inflammasome: a molecular platform triggering activation of inflammatory caspases and processing of proIL-1 β . *Mol Cell*. 2002;10:417–26.
- Dode C, Pecheux C, Cazeneuve C, Cattani D, Dervichian M, Goossens M, et al. Mutations in the MEFV gene in a large series of patients with a clinical diagnosis of familial Mediterranean fever. *Am J Med Genet*. 2000;92:241–6.
- Williamson LM, Hull D, Mehta R, Reeves WG, Robinson BH, Toghiani PJ. Familial hibernian fever. *Quart J Med*. 1982;51:469–80.
- Mulley J, Saar K, Hewitt G, Rüschemdorf F, Phillips H, Colley A, et al. Gene localization for an autosomal dominant familial periodic fever to 12p13. *Am J Hum Genet*. 1998;62:884–9.
- Karenko L, Pettersson T, Roberts P. Autosomal dominant “Mediterranean fever” in a Finnish family. *J Int Med*. 1992;232:365–9.
- Hull KM, Drewe E, Aksentijevich I, Singh HK, Wong K, McDermott EM, et al. The TNF receptor-associated periodic syndrome (TRAPS): emerging concepts of an autoinflammatory disorder. *Medicine (Baltimore)*. 2002;81:349–68.
- Toutouli I, Lesage S, McDermott MF, Cuisset L, Hoffman H, Dode C, et al. INFEVERS: an evolving mutation database for auto-inflammatory syndromes. *Hum Mut*. 2004;24:194–8.
- Drewe E, McDermott EM, Powell PT, Isaacs JD, Powell RJ. Prospective study of anti-tumour necrosis factor receptor superfamily 1B fusion protein, and case study of anti-tumour necrosis factor receptor superfamily 1A fusion protein, in tumour necrosis factor receptor associated periodic syndrome (TRAPS): clinical and laboratory findings in a series of seven patients. *Rheumatology*. 2003;42:235–9.
- Hull KM, Kastner DL, Balow JE. Hereditary periodic fever. *N Engl J Med*. 2002;346:1415.
- Arostegui JL, Solis P, Aldea A, Cantero T, Rius J, Bahillo P, et al. Etanercept plus colchicine treatment in a child with tumour necrosis factor receptor-associated periodic syndrome abolishes auto-inflammatory episodes without normalising the subclinical acute phase response. *Eur J Pediatr*. 2005;164:13–6.
- Simon A, Bodar EJ, Vander Hilst JCH, Van der Meer JWM, Fiselier TJW, Cuppen MPJ, et al. Beneficial response to interleukin 1 receptor antagonist in TRAPS. *Am J Med*. 2004;117:208–10.
- Gattorno M, Pelagatti MA, Meini A, Obici L, Barcellona R, Federici S, et al. Persistent efficacy of anakinra in patients with tumour necrosis factor receptor-associated periodic syndrome. *Arthritis Rheum*. 2008;58:1516–29.
- Van der Meer JW, Vossen JM, Radl J, Van Nieuwkoop JA, Meyer CJ, Lobatto S, et al. Hyperimmunoglobulinemia D and periodic fever: a new syndrome. *Lancet*. 1984;1:1087–90.
- Drenth JPH, Haagsma CJ, Van der Meer JW; International Hyper-IgD study group. Hyperimmunoglobulinemia D and periodic fever syndrome. The clinical spectrum in a series of 50 patients. *Medicine (Baltimore)*. 1994;73:133–44.
- Van der Hilst JCH, Bodar EJ, Barron KS, Frenkel J, Drenth JPH, Van der Meer JWM, et al. Long-term follow-up, clinical features, and quality of life in a series of 103 patients with hyperimmunoglobulinemia D syndrome. *Medicine (Baltimore)*. 2008;87:301–10.
- Obici L, Manno C, Muda AO, Picco P, D’Ossualdo A, Palladini G, et al. First report of systemic reactive (AA) amyloidosis in a patient with the hyperimmunoglobulinemia D with periodic fever syndrome. *Arthritis Rheum*. 2004;50:2966–9.
- Lachmann HJ, Goodman HJ, Andrews PA, Gallagher H, Marsh J, Breuer S, et al. AA amyloidosis complicating hyperimmunoglobulinemia D with periodic fever syndrome: are part of two cases. *Arthritis Rheum*. 2006;54:2010–4.
- Houten SM, Kuis W, Duran M, De Koning TJ, Van Royen-Kerkhof A, Romeijn GJ, et al. Mutations in MVK, encoding mevalonate kinase, cause hyperimmunoglobulinemia D and periodic fever syndrome. *Nat Genet*. 1999;22:175–7.
- Drenth JPH, Cuisset L, Grateau G, Vasseur C, Van de Velde-Visser SD, DeJong JG, et al; International Hyper-IgD Study Group. Mutations in the gene encoding mevalonate kinase cause hyper-IgD and periodic fever syndrome. *Nat Genet*. 1999;22:178–81.
- Hoffmann GF, Gibson KM, Brandt IK, Bader PI, Wappner RS, Sweetman L, et al. Mevalonic aciduria: an inborn error of cholesterol and nonsterol isoprene biosynthesis. *N Engl J Med*. 1986;314:1610–4.
- Simon A, Kremer HPH, Wevers RA, Scheffer H, De Jong JG, Van der Meer JWM, et al. Mevalonate kinase deficiency: evidence for a phenotypic continuum. *Neurology*. 2004;62:994–7.
- Cuisset L, Drenth JPH, Simon A, Vincent MF, Van der Velde Visser S, Van der Meer JWM, et al. Molecular analysis of MVK mutations and enzymatic activity in hyper-IgD and periodic fever syndrome. *Eur J Hum Genet*. 2001;9:260–6.
- Picco P, Gattorno M, Di Rocco M, Buoncompagni A. Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs in the treatment of hyper-IgD syndrome. *Ann Rheum Dis*. 2001;60:904.
- Drenth JPH, Vonk AG, Simon A, Powell R, Van der Meer JWM. Limited efficacy of thalidomide in the treatment of febrile attacks of the hyper-IgD and periodic fever syndrome: a randomized, double-blind, placebo controlled trial. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther*. 2001;298:1221–6.
- Takada K, Aksentijevich I, Mahadevan V, Dean JA, Kelley RI, Kastner DL. Favorable preliminary experience with etanercept in two patients with the hyperimmunoglobulinemia D and periodic fever syndrome. *Arthritis Rheum*. 2003;48:2645–51.
- Simon A, Drewe E, Van der Meer JW, Powell RJ, Kelley RI, Stalenhoef AFH, et al. Simvastatin treatment for inflammatory attacks of the hyperimmunoglobulinemia D and periodic fever syndrome. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*. 2004;75:476–83.
- Bodar EJ, Van der Hilst JCH, Drenth JPH, Van der Meer JWM, Simon A. Effect of etanercept and anakinra on inflammatory attacks in the hyper-IgD syndrome: introducing a vaccination provocation model. *Neth J Med*. 2005;63:260–4.
- Cailliez M, Garaix F, Rousset-Rouviere C, Bruno D, Kone-Paut I, Sarles J, et al. Anakinra is safe and effective in controlling hyperimmunoglobulinemia D syndrome-associated febrile crisis. *J Inher Metab Dis*. 2006;29:763.
- Kile RL, Rusk HA. A case of coldurticaria with an unusual family history. *J Am Med Assoc*. 1940;114:1067–8.
- Witherspoon FG, White CB, Hailey H. Familial urticarial due to cold. *Arch Dermatol Syphilol*. 1948;58:52–5.
- Muckle TJ, Wells M. Urticaria, deafness, and amyloidosis: a new heredo-familial syndrome. *QJM* 1962;31:235–48.
- Prieur AM, Griscelli C. Arthropathy with rash, chronic meningitis, eye lesions, and mental retardation. *J Pediatr*. 1981;99:79–83.
- Prieur AM, Griscelli C, Lampert F, Truckenbrodt H, Guggenheim MA, Lovell DJ, et al. A chronic, infantile, neurological, cutaneous and articular (CINCA) syndrome. A specific entity analysed in 30 patients. *Scand J Rheumatology*. 1987;66 (Suppl):57–68.
- Hoffman HM, Mueller JL, Broide DH, Wanderer AA, Kolodner RD. Mutations of a new gene encoding a putative pyrin-like protein causes familial cold autoinflammatory syndrome and Muckle-Wells syndrome. *Nature Genet*. 2001;29:301–5.
- Feldman J, Prieur AM, Quartier P, Berquin P, Certain S, Cortis E, et al. Chronic infantile neurological cutaneous and articular syndrome is caused by mutations in CIAS1, a gene highly expressed in polymorphonuclear cells and chondrocytes. *Am J Hum Genet*. 2002;71:198–203.
- Ting JPY, Kastner DL, Hoffman HM. CATERPILLERS, pyrin and hereditary immunological disorders. *Nat Rev Immunol*. 2006;6:183–95.
- Hawkins PN, Lachmann HJ, McDermott MF. Interleukin-1-receptor antagonist in the Muckle-Wells syndrome. *N Engl J Med*. 2003;348:2583–4.
- Hoffman HM, Rosengren S, Boyle DL, Cho JY, Nayar J, Mueller JL, et al. Prevention of cold-associated acute inflammation in familial cold autoinflammatory syndrome by interleukin-1 receptor antagonist. *Lancet*. 2004;364:1779–85.
- Ramos E, Arostegui JL, Campuzano S, Rius J, Boussoño C, Yague J. Positive clinical and biochemical responses to anakinra in a 3-yr-old patient with cryopyrin-associated periodic syndrome (CAPS). *Rheumatology*. 2005;44:1072–3.
- Goldbach-Mansky R, Dailey NJ, Canna SW, Gelabert A, Jones J, Rubin BI, et al. Neonatal-onset multisystem inflammatory disease responsive to interleukin-1b inhibition. *N Engl J Med*. 2006;355:581–92.
- Hoffman HM, Throne ML, Amar NJ, Sebati M, Kivitz AJ, Kavanaugh A, et al. Efficacy and safety of rilonacept (interleukin-1 Trap) in patients with cryopyrin-associated periodic syndromes: results from two sequential placebo-controlled studies. *Arthritis Rheum*. 2008;58:2443–52.
- Goldbach-Mansky R, Shroff SD, Wilson M, Snyder C, Plenh S, Barham B, et al. A pilot study to evaluate the safety and efficacy of the long-acting interleukin-1 inhibitor rilonacept (interleukin-1 Trap) in patients with familial cold autoinflammatory syndrome. *Arthritis Rheum*. 2008;58:2432–42.
- North Jr AF, Fink CW, Gibson WM, Levinson JE, Schuchter SL, Howard WK, et al. Sarcoid arthritis in children. *Am J Med*. 1970;48:449–55.

56. Gluck J, Miller 3rd JJ, Summerlin WT. Sarcoidosis in a young child. *J Pediatr.* 1972;81:354-7.
57. Blau EB. Familial granulomatous arthritis, iritis, and rash. *J Pediatr.* 1985;107:689-93.
58. Jabs DA, Houk JL, Bias WB, Arnett FC. Familial granulomatous synovitis, uveitis, and cranial neuropathies. *Am J Med.* 1985;78:801-4.
59. Miller 3rd JJ. Early-onset "sarcoidosis" and "familial granulomatous arthritis (arteritis)": the same disease. *J Pediatr.* 1986;109:387-8.
60. Kanazawa N, Okafuji I, Kambe N, Nishikomori R, Nakata-Hizume M, Nagai S, et al. Early-onset sarcoidosis and CARD15 mutations with constitutive enuclear factor-kappaB activation: common genetic etiology with Blau syndrome. *Blood.* 2005; 105:1195-7.
61. Rose CD, Wouters CH, Meiorin S, Doyle TM, Davey MP, Rosenbaum JT, et al. Pediatric granulomatous arthritis. An international registry. *Arthritis Rheum.* 2006;54:3337-44.
62. Aróstegui JI, Arnal C, Merino R, Modesto C, Carballo MA, Moreno P, et al. NOD2 gene-associated Pediatric granulomatous arthritis. Clinical diversity, novel and recurrent mutations and evidence of clinical improvement with interleukin-1 blockade in a Spanish cohort. *Arthritis Rheum.* 2007;56:3805-13.
63. Miceli-Richard C, Lesage S, Rybojad M, Prieur AM, Manouvrier-Hanu S, Hafner R, et al. CARD15 mutations in Blau syndrome. *Nat Genet.* 2001;29:19-20.
64. Inohara N, Nunez G. NODs: intracellular proteins involved in inflammation and apoptosis. *Nature Rev Immunol.* 2003;3:371-82.
65. Priori R, Bombardieri M, Spinelli FR, Merlin F, Miceli-Richard C, La Cava M, et al. Sporadic Blau syndrome with a double CARD15 mutation. Report of a case with lifelong follow-up. *Sarcoidosis Vasc Diffuse Lung Dis.* 2004;21:228-31.
66. Rose CD, Doyle TM, McIlvain-Simpson G, Coffman JE, Rosenbaum JT, Davey MP, et al. Blau syndrome mutation of CARD15/NOD2 in sporadic early onset granulomatous arthritis. *J Rheumatol.* 2005;32:335-73.
67. Lindor NM, Arsenault TM, Solomon H, Seidman CE, McEvoy MT. A new autosomal dominant disorder of pyogenic sterile arthritis, pyoderma gangrenosum, and acne: PAPA syndrome. *Mayo Clin Proc.* 1997;72:611-5.
68. Wise CA, Bennett LB, Pascual V, Gillum JD, Bowcock AM. Localization of a gene for familial recurrent arthritis. *Arthritis Rheum.* 2000;43:2041-5.
69. Wise CA, Gillum JD, Seidman CE, Lindor NM, Veile R, Bashiardes S, et al. Mutations in CD2BP1 disrupt binding to PTP PEST and are responsible for PAPA syndrome, an autoinflammatory disorder. *Hum Mol Genet.* 2002;11:961-9.
70. Shoham NG, Centola M, Mansfield E, Hull KM, Word G, Wise CA, et al. Pyrin binds the PSTPIP1-CD2BP1 protein, defining familial Mediterranean fever and PAPA syndrome as disorders in the same pathway. *PNAS.* 2003;100:13501-6.
71. Dierselhuis MP, Frenkel J, Wullfraat NM, Boelens JJ. Anakinra for flares of pyogenic arthritis in PAPA syndrome. *Rheumatology.* 2005;44:406-8.
72. Stichweh DS, Punaro M, Pascual V. Dramatic improvement of pyoderma gangrenosum with infliximab in a patient with PAPA syndrome. *Pediatr Dermatol.* 2005;22:262-5.
73. Cortis E, De Benedetti F, Insalaco A, Cioschi S, Muratori F, D'Urbano LE, et al. Abnormal production of tumor necrosis factor (TNF)-alpha and clinical efficacy of the TNF inhibitor etanercept in a patient with PAPA syndrome. *J Pediatr.* 2004;145:851-5.