

Creating a Kidney Transplant Risk Calculator

Alex Wong

GitHub code repository is [here](#)

This version was compiled on August 4, 2020

Important Note to Markers:

Our Risk Calculator has 3 different components, and some of them have a very long computation time to process the data and create models. To avoid excessive time in compiling a single PDF, we have decided to put our code onto three separate .Rmd files, each representing the code used for data processing and model selection involved for each component of our product (e.g. “Part1.Rmd” etc.).

Please also note that since our PDF does not have direct access to the R objects from these separate Rmd files, the figures within this report were embedded as .PNGs, which can still be reproduced by running the .Rmd files of each part (i.e. Part1.Rmd, Part2.Rmd, Part3.Rmd), since the chunks save PNGs from the figure-producing code.

In summary, the figures/models within this report for each part of our product can be entirely reproduced by running the three separate .Rmd files. This separation was done otherwise knitting this report in one go could potentially take ~ 30 minutes.

Please let us know if you have any further questions regarding the reproducibility of this report. Also note that `tinytex` needs to be installed for the PDF to knit through `install.packages('tinytex')`, and then `tinytex::install_tinytex()`

Kidney | Transplant | Immunosuppression | Logistic Regression | Survival Analysis

Aim and Background.

Motivation. End-stage renal disease (ESRD) is the final stage of chronic kidney disease and poses a major threat to the body as the excretory system fails to function properly. To combat kidney failure, patients can choose two forms of treatment in terms of medical intervention: renal dialysis or organ transplantation. Renal dialysis imitates kidney functionalities by maintaining blood pressure and removing excess waste from the body. However, forms of renal dialysis (e.g. haemodialysis) can be discomforting and place mobile restrictions on the patient as they are physically connected to a hemodialyzer.

Alternatively, kidney transplantation is a lifesaving treatment that is greatly preferred over renal dialysis since it poses less restrictions on diet and lifestyle whilst lessening long-term health problems. However, kidney organ allocation has posed itself as a major resource allocation problem due to a disproportionately high number of patients to kidney donors. This shortage in donor kidneys results in the need for a careful assessment in allocating organs to patients that potentiate in maximal survivability

Aim of the Project. With this problem in mind, we developed a risk calculator tool to aid in the effective and efficient allocation of donor organs to potential patients, assisting practitioners in their decision making for kidney allocation, as well as providing insight into immunosuppressive drug prescriptions.

The risk calculator was developed with the intention that it would be used in a clinical setting where patient-nephrologist shared decision making is implemented. According to Gordon (2013), shared decision making promotes patient-centred care - it permits the nephrologist's expertise to be integrated with the patient's personal values and beliefs concerning future treatment. Within this clinical setting, we hope that our calculator provides an opportunity for discussion that concerns the nature of treatment across the transplantation process.

Multidisciplinary Context. The risk calculator draws from three related areas of organ transplantation and donor-patient matching.

The first portion of the calculator utilises the patient's genetic expression from RNA-Seq to predict the probability that they experience T-cell or antibody mediated acute rejection (AR). Here, we define acute rejection as a sudden decline in renal graft function before 3 months post-transplantation. This portion of the calculator can aid practitioners in deciding the degree of immunosuppressive medication needed initially for the patient.

The second portion of the risk calculator estimates the time until *de novo* donor specific antibodies (DSA) arise for the patient's phenotype (e.g. age and gender), based on the potential number of Class II eplet mismatches between recipient and the donor kidney. DSA presence has been found to be associated with many forms of rejection and graft failure. Hence, this portion of the calculator aims to estimate graft survivability of different age and gender subpopulations (Dayoub 2018) based upon the potential number of mismatches between patients and future donors.

While immunosuppressive drugs like tacrolimus and mycophenolate mofetil minimise adverse graft effects, they unfortunately create weakened immune systems. However, some rare patients are operationally ‘tolerant’ (OT) and can maintain stable graft function after drug removal. Hence, our final part will be predicting the patient's reliance on immune suppression from their genetic data, which can further help with the practitioner's prescription making. Ultimately, with ~10% of Australian adults experiencing forms of chronic kidney disease in 2011-12 (AIHW), we hope that our product improves ESRD management for practitioners and allow better quality-of-life for patients.

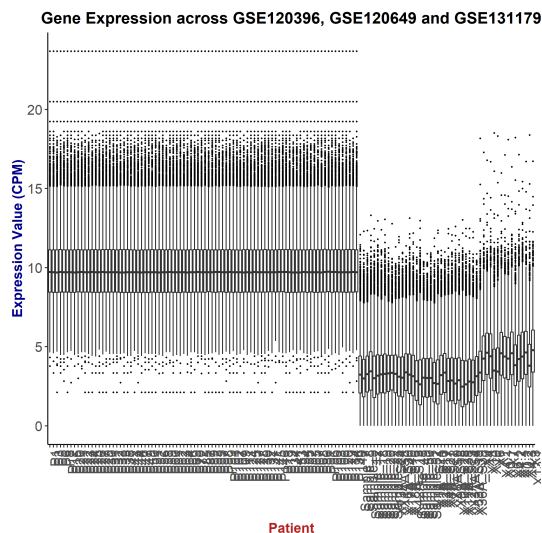
Data Collection.

Part 1. Estimating the Probability of AR. Our ‘Acute Rejection’ (AR) part is based on data taken from the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) series of GSE120396, GSE120649 and GSE131179. We merged the three datasets together in order to achieve a larger sample for model training and potentially have smaller margins of error. However, because of differences in the number of genes measured between datasets, as well as different expression scales (e.g. counts per million), or the use of Ensembl IDs rather than official gene symbols from the HGNC, we had to perform some pre-processing before they can be merged.

The GSE120396, GSE120649 and GSE131179 series contained 88, 16 and 34 files respectively, with each file describing the gene expression count for a patient that was either normal (non-AR), or suffered from AR.

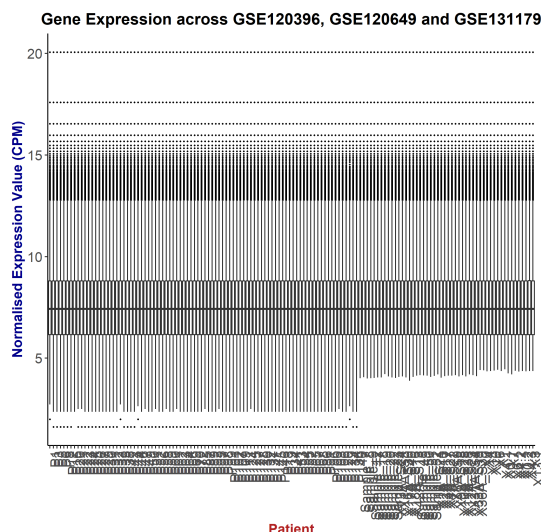
To resolve the issue of different gene expression scales between datasets (e.g. some contained raw counts and others may have already been standardised), ‘Counts per Million’ (CPM) and \log_2 transformation were performed on GSE120649 and GSE131179 to match the already standardised GSE120396. The Ensembl ID in GSE120649 and GSE131179 were also converted to official gene symbols using the `EnsDb.Hsapiens.v79` library.

Following this, the datasets were then joined based on common gene symbols. However, simply merging the datasets produced the following boxplot of gene expression values from patients across the three studies.



It can be demonstrated from the boxplots above that GSE120649 and GSE131179 had a lower expression level than GSE120396. A possible method to account for this is to perform quantile normalisation on the merged data.

Quantile normalization is one of the most widely adopted pre-processing methods for analysing RNA-Seq data - it reduces batch effect and technological noise by scaling the variables to have values between 0 and 1, ensuring that the distribution of gene expressions from each dataset are the same. This potentially allows for more robust predictions that can be generalised to different sequencing platforms (Qiu et al., 2013).



As seen above from the boxplot above, performing quantile normalisation had a substantial effect on gene expression distribution - the data from all three merged studies appear normalised with similar medians around 10.

Part 2. Estimating Time to de novo DSA Presence. The eplet mismatch dataset was provided by Dr. Germaine Wong from the University of Sydney. Based on previous research studies conducted, it was found that there was no significant correlation between BMI category and graft survival (Papalia et al., 2010). Thus, we focused only on using age and gender as phenotypic information when stratifying the data.

Each transplant recipient from the dataset was categorised into a certain age group (i.e. '25-35', '36-45', and '46-55'), and whether they had less-than or greater-than-or-equal-to 30 Class II eplet mismatches (30 was approximately the median number of Class II eplet mismatches).

```
survdt_m <- survdt_m %>%
  mutate(agetxn = case_when(agetxn >=
    25 & agetxn <=
    35 ~ "25 - 35",
    agetxn >= 36 &
    agetxn <=
    45 ~
    "36 - 45",
    agetxn >= 46 &
    agetxn <=
    55 ~
    "46 - 55"))

survdt_m <- survdt_m %>%
  mutate(MM = case_when(MM <=
    30 ~ "<= 30 MM",
    MM > 30 ~ "> 30 MM",
  ))
```

From this, a Survival object was created based on these age/gender subpopulations stratified by their number of Class II mismatches (< 30 or ≥ 30), with the event as the presence of DSA and the time taken for the event to occur.

```
# E.g. Selecting a
# male aged 46 - 55
# years
user_survdt = survdt_m %>%
  dplyr::filter(Gender ==
    "Male", Age ==
    "46 - 55")
```

The visualisation of the survival curve for the subpopulation was represented through a Kaplan-Meier curve.

Part 3. Predicting Operational Tolerance. To predict operational tolerance, we collected the GSE22229 dataset which contained raw CEL files pertaining to the gene expression for patients that were either tolerant or not.

CEL files are created by the Affymetrix DNA microarray image analysis software, and contain estimated probe (sequence of DNA base pairs) intensity values extracted from Affymetrix Genechips. Each probe was mapped to a specific gene symbol using the GPL570 Chip Description File (CDF).

Since the data is in the newer Affymetrix Arrays format (Gene ST arrays), we utilised the `oligo` library to read a list of CEL files. This list was then converted from an `AffyBatch` object into an `ExpressionSet` (i.e. gene expression) using the `rma` function from the `pd.mogene.2.0.st` library. The `rma` function, short for *Robust Multiplex Average*, also simultaneously \log_2 transforms and normalises the gene expressions.

```
setwd("data/GSE22229_RAW/")
celFiles <- list.celfiles()
affyRaw <- read.celfiles(celFiles)
eset <- rma(affyRaw)

setwd("../..")
write.exprs(eset, file = "tolerance.txt")
my_frame <- data.frame(exprs(eset))
write.table(my_frame,
  file = "tolerance.txt",
  sep = "\t")
```

After converting our `ExpressionSet` object into a dataframe, we then investigated the gene expression distribution amongst patients using a boxplot to ensure that the data has been normalised and can be used for further processing.



The boxplot above demonstrates strong similarity in gene expression between patients and so our dataframe can be further analysed without concern of batch effects between sample measurements.

After quantile normalization and batch effect removal, we performed feature selection. Firstly, genes that were lowly expressed in both groups were removed by using the `filterByExpr()` function from the `edgeR` package; these genes do not provide much biological meaning and removing them allows for less statistical tests to be performed, as well as allowing greater reliability in observing the variance between different groups (Law et al., 2018)

We then selected the most differentially expressed genes between the two groups using multiple *t*-tests from the `limma` package. Finally, a review by Massart et al. (2017) suggested a collection of genes that were highly differential between tolerant and normal patients, and so these were also added to our final training dataset (if they weren't already filtered for previously).

Evaluation Strategies. We decided to implement penalised logistic regression methods when creating separate predictive models for Part 1 and Part 3 of our risk calculator. Logistic regression was utilised as it provides a probabilistic output for a specific risk, which may be more informative than a binary outcome. Furthermore, the penalised nature of some methods (e.g. Ridge, LASSO, Elastic Net) can address the overfitting or multicollinearity issue prevalent in large *p*, small *n* situations in gene expression data.

The models for Part 1 and Part 3 were trained using their respective pre-processed data onto a 50-repeated 5-fold cross validation (CV) procedure. The performance of our models in predicting the CV test-set under Ridge, LASSO and Elastic Net methods were evaluated using three primary metrics: accuracy, AUC and the Brier Score.

In the case of class imbalance within the training dataset, the accuracy metric may suggest an inflated performance. As such, the AUC and Brier Score were also calculated.

- The AUC is a more robust metric with less bias to class size. Briefly, it can be thought of as the probability that a true-positive sample (e.g. AR patient) has a greater predicted risk than a true-negative sample (e.g. normal patient).

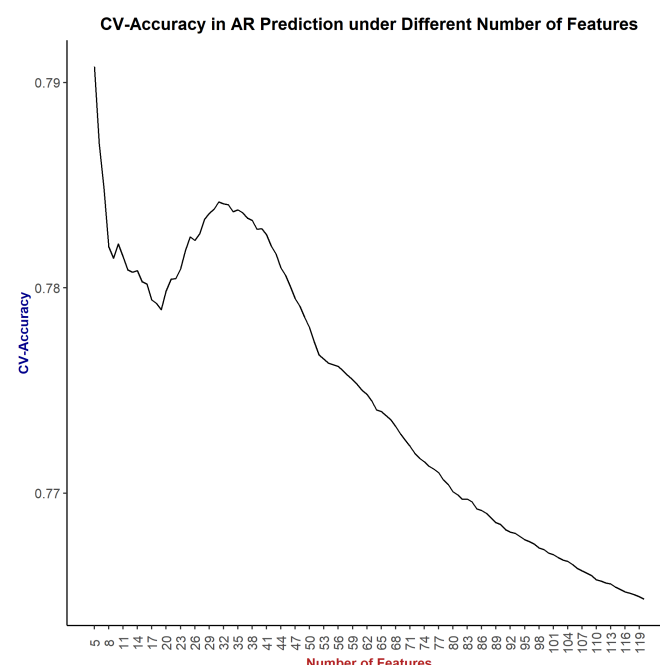
- The Brier Score meanwhile complements the AUC by checking that the predicted risk of a sample is actually similar to the true value. For example, in a true-positive case (i.e. label = 1) with a predicted risk of 0.8, the Brier Score quantitatively measure how close the 0.8 value is to 1. Better predictions are reflected as a lower Brier Score.

To select our final models for Part 1 and Part 3 respectively, we evaluated the accuracy, AUC, and Brier Score from different penalised models (Ridge, LASSO, and Elastic Net) using boxplot visualisations.

For Part 2, since we are not predicting the probability of graft failure over time, there was no need to build and train a model.

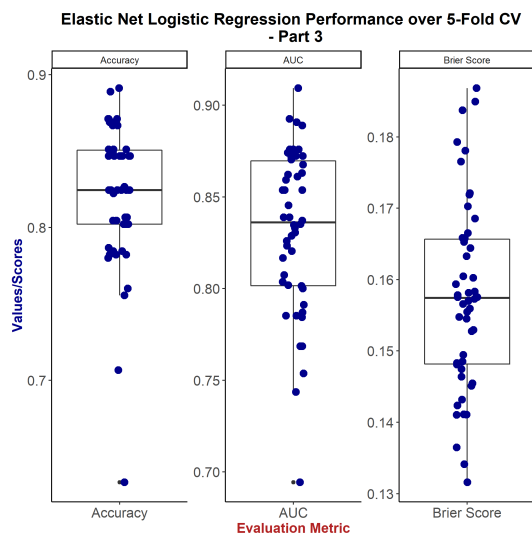
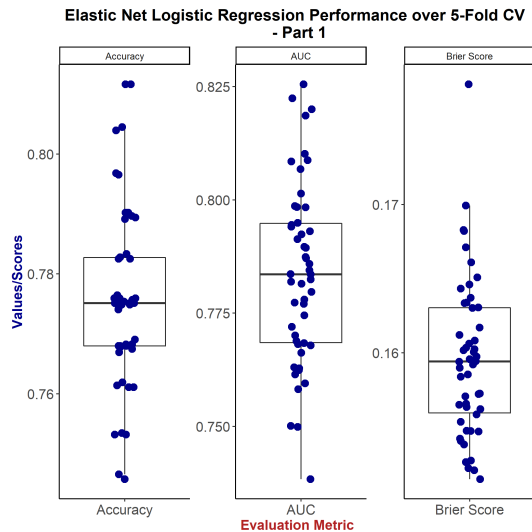
Model Selection. To select the optimal number of features (i.e. genes) for our model, the CV accuracy using the top 5 up to the top 120 most significant genes were calculated respectively.

For Part 1, high LASSO accuracy was seen around *n* = 12 with 79%. However, this may not be robust when applied to real world data. In particular, it is unlikely that AR is caused only by the 12 genes, and it is also unlikely that incoming patient data will have these 12 significant genes.



Combined with the fact that penalised regression models can elicit further variable reduction, the choice of using 12 genes as predictors in our model may not be statistically wise. Hence, we decided to instead incorporate the top 100 most significant genes into our model for Part 1, which had a CV accuracy of 77%. Indeed, while this is marginally smaller than the CV accuracy for the top 12 genes, the use of top 100 genes may be more robust to independent data. As such, we also selected the top 100 most differentially expressed genes between OT and non-OT patients as our features for the Part 3 model.

When evaluating the CV accuracy, AUC, and Brier Score of Ridge, LASSO, and Elastic net, it was found that for both Part 1 and Part 3 data, Elastic Net mostly produced the best performance based on the three metrics. Below are the CV results from Elastic Net for both Part 1 and Part 3 (see Appendix for Ridge and LASSO results).



Therefore, our final model for Part 1 and Part 3 separately is an Elastic Net logistic regression model with 100 features that can address both internal and external validity.

Deployment Process. Our risk calculator was deployed as an interactive Shiny application with a simple UI for patient input. An 'Information' tab (Appendix) was also present that explains our mission, as well as providing theoretical information about AR and OT such that patients may be more medically informed and possibly be encouraged to demonstrate adherence and understanding to prescriptions.

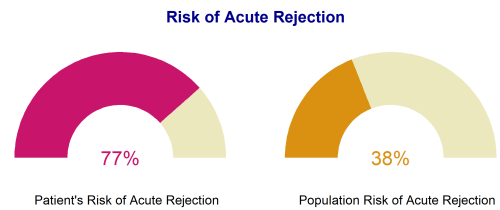
To predict the risk of acute rejection and the likelihood of the patient relying on immunosuppression, the two trained Elastic Net models from Part 1 and Part 3 respectively will be applied to incoming gene expression data from the patient. Our Shiny application allows the user to input a .csv or .txt file containing raw gene counts (Appendix), which will be transformed with CPM and log~2 functions. If the input file contains Ensembl ID, our application will automatically convert it to official gene symbols.

The inbuilt pre-processing function ensures that the app is efficient and easy to use for practitioners, who may not be confident to transform and process gene expression data. If all 100 genes used for the model are present in the input data, the trained model will be used.

However, if the input data only includes a portion of the 100 filtered genes, an alternative Elastic Net model will be trained on the spot as mentioned in our *Evaluation Strategies* section, but

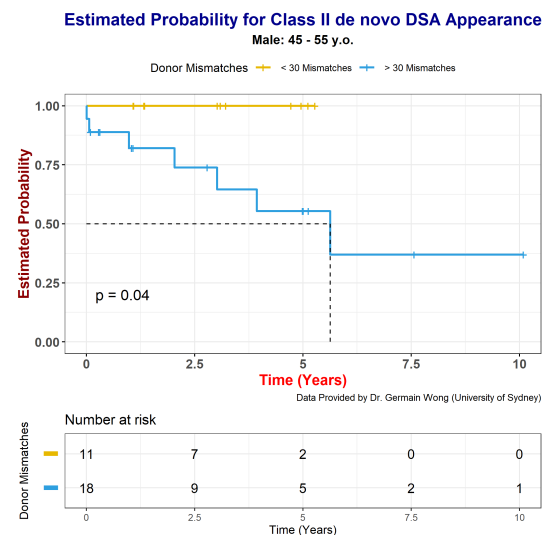
only on these portions of genes as the features in the original dataset. As the prediction from the alternative model can be different depending on the training-test split, we use the mean of 30 repeats to increase reliability.

The output of the risk calculator includes two colour-coded gauge plots, showing the predicted risk for the individual, and the population risk. This ensures that the information is easy to understand and can be easily understood by the patient to promote shared decision making. Below is an example output for AR prediction after patient data has been supplied. For results in predicting immunosuppression reliance, please see the Appendix.



The population risk for AR were based on the findings by Menon et al. (2017), and the percentage of the population not having OT (and thus requiring sustained immunosuppression) were based on the review by Newell et al. (2018)

For Part 2, a Kaplan-Meier curve was used to visualize the predictive outcome (time to DSA presence) for a subset of a population, which in our case was based on age and sex stratified by the potential number of eplet mismatches the recipient may have with the donor.



This may assist in better kidney allocation and prescriptions based on historical performance of other recipients who belong to the same subgroup.

Discussion and Conclusion.

Potential shortcomings.

Shortcomings with Part 1 (Predicting AR) The main shortcoming of the risk calculator is the long computational time involved when the patient's input data is in the form of Ensembl ID as it has to be converted to official gene symbols. Furthermore, if the patient does not contain all 100 genes used to train the original model, then the alternative model (as mentioned previously) must be made on-demand, with computational times that can be rather long (~ 1 minute).

Furthermore, as demonstrated in the boxplot showing quantile-normalized counts, the median of normalised gene expression in the training data is around 10. This means that if the median of the input counts differs significantly from 10, the prediction is likely to be invalid.

Shortcomings with Part 2 (Estimating DSA Presence) The main shortcoming of this methodology is the use of a small dataset (198 entries after removing null entries). Thus, when we stratify the data based on subgroups of variables, we have limited information available for creating the Kaplan Meier curve. Hence, some subpopulations are inaccurately represented, with some curves being uninformative.

Another shortcoming is the inability to verify if some positive events (i.e. DSA presence) were due to censoring or not. As such, this may occasionally manifest as an overestimation in graft failure risk during some periods.

Shortcomings with Part 3 (Predicting Reliance on Immunosuppression) Similar to Part 1, limitations are primarily attributed to long computational times for the same reasons.

However, an additional shortcoming with Part 3 is the small number of OT patients (19) used to train the model. GSE2229 was one of the only datasets with normalised OT gene expression able to be calculated, and so the lack of data may diminish feasibility of predictions for patients with gene expressions recorded from different platforms.

Future work and improvements. The study of epitope compatibility is still in its infant stages and hence, greater research needs to be taken in order to drive advancements in ESRD management (Tambur 2018). Furthermore, a procedural standard in experimental design is encouraged so that consistent results concerning survivability can be reliably reproduced. For example, several studies determining whether BMI is a significant variable for graft rejection have demonstrated contradictory results, possibly due to different experimental designs (Papalia et.al, 2010).

There is also a need for larger and more diverse datasets so that various population confounders and other sources for variation can be accounted for. For example, the eplet data consisted mostly of Caucasoid patients, which could have affected graft outcome.

Finally, further study into operational tolerance (OT) may improve the validity of future predictions as there are currently limited samples of OT patients globally. Indeed, OT diagnosis is difficult due to the ethical issues of temporarily ceasing immunosuppressive therapy.

Conclusion. In conclusion, we believe the risk calculator will aid in the effective and accurate allocation of kidney donor organs to those needing the lifesaving treatment of transplantation. In particular, by predicting a patient's graft outcome in terms of AR, OT, and estimated time until DSA appear (in relation to the sub-population corresponding to their phenotype), we hope that we can assist practitioners in their decision-making and make more informed choices in immunosuppressive prescriptions.

Reference List. Australian Institute of Health and Welfare. (2019) Chronic Kidney Disease. Retrieved from <https://www.aihw.gov.au/reports-data/health-conditions-disability-deaths/chronic-kidney-disease/overview>

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Massart, A., Ghisdal, L., Abramowicz, M., & Abramowicz, D. (2017). Operational tolerance in kidney transplantation and associated biomarkers. *Clinical & Experimental Immunology*, 189(2), 138-157.

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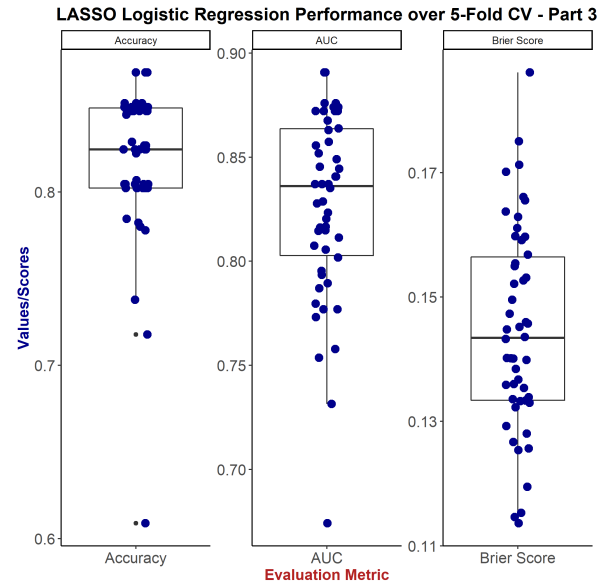
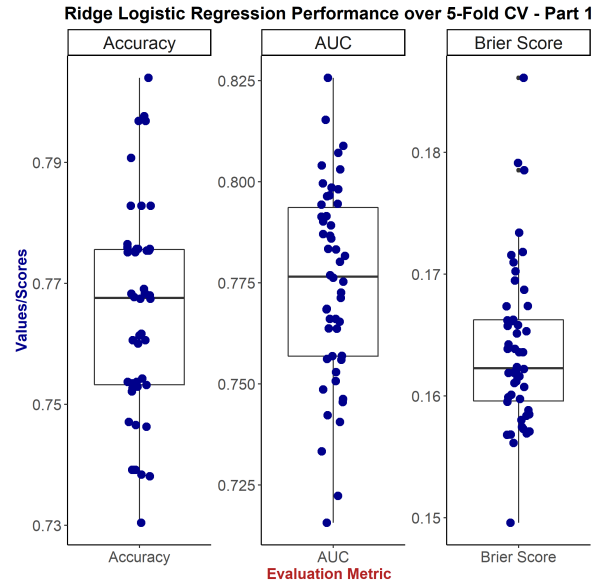
Papalia, T., Greco, R., Lofaro, D., Maestripietri, S., Mancuso, D., & Bonofiglio, R. (2010). Impact of body mass index on graft loss in normal and overweight patients: retrospective analysis of 206 renal transplants. *Clinical transplantation*, 24(6), E241–E246.

Tambur, A. R. (2018). HLA-epitope matching or eplet risk stratification: the devil is in the details. *Frontiers in immunology*, 9, 2010.

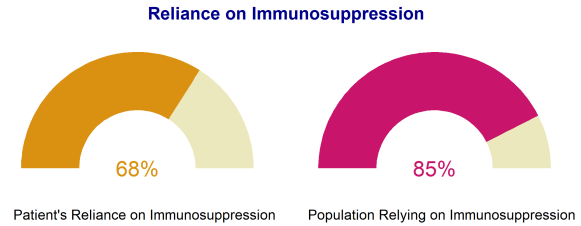
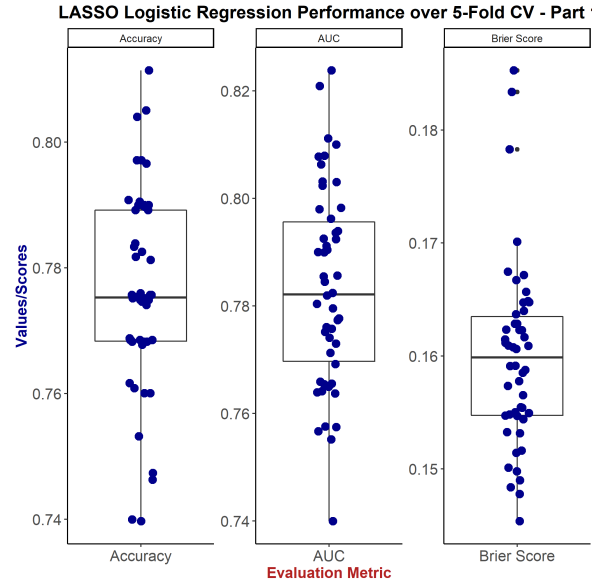
Qiu, X., Wu, H. & Hu, R. The impact of quantile and rank normalization procedures on the testing power of gene differential expression analysis. *BMC Bioinformatics* 14, 124 (2013).

Appendix.

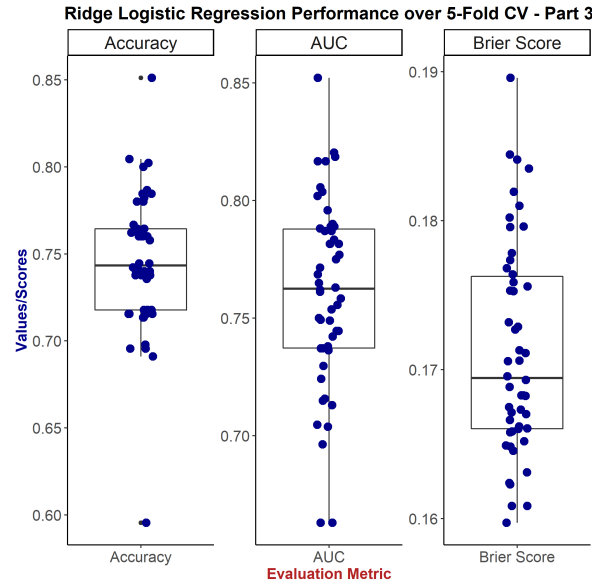
Appendix 1. Ridge and LASSO results for Part 1.



Appendix 3. Gauge Plot result in Predicting Immunosuppression Reliance.



Appendix 2. Ridge and LASSO results for Part 3.



Appendix 4. Patient Input from Shiny Application.

DATA3888 Group 24

Patient Information

Gender

☒ Male

☐ Female

Age Bracket (Years)

36 - 45

Please round the patient's age to the nearest whole number. For example, a 35.7 year old patient would be considered as 36 years of age.

Patient RNA-Seq Data (.CSV)

Browse...

No file selected

Calculate Risk

Please only upload a CSV file with two columns. Each row should consist of a gene and its respective expression value.

We can only accept ENSEMBL Stable IDs or official gene symbols approved by the HGNC.

Please do not press the button while the results are being calculated - doing so will restart the process.

Data Sources

Acute Rejection (AR) calculator is based on data from GSE120396, GSE120649, GSE131179 from Gene Expression Omnibus.

Survival curve (from 'Donor Mismatches' tab) is based on data provided by Dr. Germain Wong

Immune Tolerance calculator is based on data from GSE120396, GSE120649, GSE131179 from Gene Expression Omnibus.

Appendix 5. Information Tab from Shiny Application.

Group 24's Risk Calculator

Our Aim

While organ transplantation is a promising treatment for those unable diagnosed with chronic disease, kidney organ transplantation is deemed one most difficult due to the presence of a better quality of life with fewer health problems, reduced maintenance on dialysis and saving of health resources. Kidney organ allocation has also posed itself as an organ response allocation problem. In short, there are a limited number of donor kidney organs which need to be matched effectively and accurately to the patient. We aim to improve efficiency and accuracy of donor allocation matching by performing a search to provide a list of potential kidney organ based on the combined information of the organ recipient's risk calculation, the genetic profile of the patient and the probability of acute rejection, graft mismatches with gene failure, and the need for immunosuppression. Through this risk calculation, we hope that practitioners will be able to confidently assess the success of a kidney transplant for patients and make decisions regarding donor allocation. We also hope to concurrently educate patients about the factors affecting transplant success and see their predicted outcomes when compared to the general population.

Epitope-Donor Mismatches

Epitopes are small fragments of amino acid residues that are antigenic, that they occur in several forms or further subdivide antigens (TAU molecules). They are essential components of TAU epitopes that are recognized by the antibodies. TAU molecules are responsible for regulating human immune systems and therefore play an important part in graft rejection. We will first display a long TAU list as an antigen and target to immune response in this tool, which then leads to the production of antibodies, leading to the rejection of the tissue that does these cells. Therefore, applying TAU matching is important as it determines how well the match is between the donor organ and recipient patient. In essence, the greater the mismatch between the donor and the recipient patient the lower the probability of survival. By extension, the number of mismatches will better inform the probability of the level of immunosuppression medication required for the patient. Risk is also provided a genetic code of the organ recipient's genetic profile by performing the clustering of gene sets and the study of organ compatibility with other organ and genetic response needs to take place in order to see their genetic outcomes (Tombor, 2018). There is a general consensus that other variables like DRB and non are important in organ mismatching but, we have chosen to include these from our application. DRB has shown no significant correlation between graft survival (Pagani et al, 2012) but, rather associated with several other auto-antibodies and demographic factors such as age. We also note that not all organs will lead to the same type of immune response (Dier et al, 2016; Tombor, 2018). For example, two recipient donor combinations may have identical organ mismatches but can exhibit different immunogenicity schemes.

Tombor, 2018. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC633222/>

Acute Rejection & Graft Failure

This section is able to help to differentiate required genetic code to determine whether the patient's recipient is at risk of experiencing acute rejection. This result will be part of the discussion between patient and practitioner in their shared decision-making, in addition to the other outcomes of this application. Graft rejection is defined as the event that the recipient's body identifies the transplanted tissue as foreign. Acute rejection is viewed as the development of antibodies that then lead to graft rejection. Acute rejection of a transplanted organ occurs days, weeks or even months after the transplantation, where immune system of a person identifies the organ and attacks it directly. While in contrast, acute rejection is defined as a chronic response. It should be noted that acute rejection is classified as the grafting of any organ in the body or of other organs post transplantation. To clarify whether the graft did or did not, we already define.

Immunosuppression

This section of the application serves to inform the practitioner and the patient, in their shared decision-making, the genetic markers that indicate whether the patient will benefit from the minimizing or withdrawing from the immunosuppression medication. This will be taken into consideration along with the epigenetic markers and the genetic profile concerning acute rejection. Immunosuppressants are drugs that suppress the body's immune response in order to aid the survival of the transplanted organ. Maintenance drugs like Tacrolimus and Cyclosporine are used to suppress the immune system. Tacrolimus in particular has been used to demonstrate better renal function (Nawroth et al, 2008). While concerning immune response, DRB gene results to indicate a successful after transplanted kidney organ, one of the major drawbacks is the increased chance of infection especially following the organ's high dosage. Infection can further lead to rejection of the kidney and the failure of the graft. Therefore, the decision making that takes place prior to the organ transplantation is an important point of discussion between the practitioner and the patient when considering the dosage of immunosuppressant medication as well as the duration.

Hawes, 2008. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2512122/>

<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2512122/>