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UNDERSTANDING AUTOIMMUNE DISEASE: AN UPDATE REVIEW

Shashi Pratab Singh¹*, Pranay Wal¹, Ankita Wal¹, Vikas Srivastava², Ratnakar Tiwari², Radha Dutt Sharma²

Pranveer Singh Institute of Technology, Kanpur- 209305, U.P., India Indian Institute of Toxicology Research, CSIR, Lucknow-226001, U.P., India

ABSTRACT

Autoimmune diseases are pathological conditions identified by abnormal autoimmune responses and characterized by auto-antibodies and T-cell responses to self-molecules by immune system reactivity. Some other common autoimmune disorders include rheumatoid arthritis, systemic lupus erythematosus (lupus), and vasculitis. Human autoimmune diseases (AD) occur frequently (affecting in aggregate more than 5% of the population worldwide), and impose a significant burden of morbidity and mortality on the human population. AD are defined as diseases in which immune responses to specific self-antigens contribute to the ongoing tissue damage that occurs in that disease. ADs may be either tissue-specific (e.g., thyroid, β-cells of the pancreas), where unique tissue-specific antigens are targeted, or may be more systemic, in which multiple tissues are affected, and a variety of apparently ubiquitously expressed autoantigens are targeted. Women account for about 75% of the estimated 23.5 million people in America afflicted by autoimmune diseases, and autoimmune diseases constitute some of the leading causes of death and disability in women below 65 years of age. The development of autoimmune diseases depends on a combination of genetic and environmental factors. Most autoimmune diseases are thought to be polygenic, involving more than one gene. For clinicians, autoimmune diseases appear to be either systemic (e.g. systemic lupus erythematosus) or organspecific (e.g. Type 1 diabetes mellitus). This classification, although clinically useful, does not necessarily correspond to a difference in causation. A more useful division distinguishes between diseases in which there is a general alteration in the selection, regulation or death of T cells or B cells and those in which an aberrant response to a particular antigen, self or foreign, causes autoimmunity. Antigens are taken up by antigen presenting cells (APC) such as dendritic cells (DC) and processed into peptides which are loaded onto MHC molecules for presentation to T cells via clonotypic T cell receptors (TCR).

Keywords: - Autoimmune diseases, T-cell, B cells, Auto-antibodies, Autoantigens.

INTRODUCTION

Autoimmune disease is a condition which is

 $\hbox{*Corresponding Author:}\\$

Shashi Pratab Singh, Research Scholar Pranveer Singh Institute of Technology,

Kanpur- 209305, U.P., India

E.Mail: shashipratapsingh111@gmail.com

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triggered by the immune system initiating an attack on self-molecules due to the deterioration of immunologic tolerance to auto-reactive immune cells.[1] Smith and Germolec state that "autoimmune disorders affect approximately 3% of the North American and European

populations, >75% of those affected being women." The initiation of attacks against the body's self-molecules in autoimmune diseases, in most cases is unknown, but a number of studies suggest that they are strongly associated with factors such as genetics, infections and /or environment.^[1] An immune system is a highly regulated biological mechanism that identifies and reacts to antigens from various foreign substances found in an organism's body and reacts to these possible pathological threats by producing certain types of lymphocytes such as white blood cells and antibodies that have the ability to destroy or neutralize various germs, poisons and other foreign agents.[2] Typically, the immune system is able to distinguish the foreign agents from the organism's own healthy cells and tissues. Autoimmunity, on the other hand, describes a diseased condition in which an organism fails to recognize its own cells and tissues, thereby enabling the immune system to trigger response against its own components.[2]

Autoimmune diseases are pathological conditions identified by abnormal autoimmune responses and characterized by auto-antibodies and T-cell responses to self-molecules by immune system reactivity.[3] Autoimmune diseases occur when there is interruption of the usual control process, thereby allowing the system to malfunction and attack healthy cells

and tissues.^[4] A common example of autoimmune disease is Type I Diabetes, which affects nearly a million people in the United States. It is a condition in which the pancreas does not produce enough insulin to control sugar blood levels due to the autoimmune destruction of the insulin-producing pancreatic cells.[5] Some other common autoimmune disorders include rheumatoid arthritis, systemic lupus erythematosus (lupus), and vasculitis.[4]

The Immune System and Autoimmunity

Immunology is the science that deals with body's response to antigenic challenge (Latin Immunitas, freedom from). The term 'immunity' traditionally refers to the resistance exhibited by host toward injury caused by microorganisms and their products. Immunity is of different types it can be innate (native) or acquired (adaptive) immunity. Immunity is a very broad scientific discipline involving concept mechanism are involved in the protection of the body against infectious agent but they can also damage host autoimmunity. [6] organism called as Autoimmunity is the mechanism where an organism fails to recognize its own constituent parts (down to the submolecular levels) as 'self', which results in an immune response against its own cells and tissues. Any disease that results from such an aberrant immune response is termed an autoimmune disease.[7]

Autoimmunity is characterized by the reaction of cells (auto reactive T-lymphocytes) or products (autoantibodies) of the immune system against the organism's own antigens (autoantigen). It may be part of the physiological immune response (natural autoimmunity) or pathologically induced, which may eventually lead to development of clinical abnormalities (autoimmune disease).[8] Yet, despite Rose's discovery, over a decade passed before autoimmunity became a commonly accepted precept; the damage was done. The time it took the scientific community to fully accept the growing reality of autoimmunity has delayed the of findings translation its into medical knowledge, with grave implications in current diagnosis of epidemiological autoimmune diseases demonstrated to be a possible factor in reducing incidence of cancer through versatile CD8+ T cells, which kill target self-cells by releasing cytokines capable of increasing the susceptibility of target cells to cytotoxicity, or by secreting chemokines that attract other immune cells to the site of autoimmunity.[9]

Autoimmune Diseases

Human autoimmune diseases (AD) occur frequently (affecting in aggregate more than 5% of the population worldwide), and impose a significant burden of morbidity and mortality on the human population.[10] AD are defined as

diseases in which immune responses to specific self-antigens contribute to the ongoing tissue damage that occurs in that disease. ADs may be either tissue-specific (e.g., thyroid, β-cells of the pancreas), where unique tissue-specific antigens are targeted, or may be more systemic, in which multiple tissues are affected, and a variety of apparently ubiquitously expressed autoantigens are targeted.[11] The etiology of autoimmune diseases has been difficult to elucidate. Several factors are thought to contribute to the development of immune response to self, including genetics and environment.[12-14]

Several common autoimmune diseases, such as rheumatoid arthritis. systemic lupus erythematosus and multiple sclerosis, genetically linked to distinct human major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class II molecules and other immune modulators. Furthermore. autoimmunity often clusters families, indicating the potential for a broadspectrum genetic defect in immunological tolerance mechanisms. However, the genetic factors leading to the development of immune responses against specific antigens in a tissue and/or organ-specific manner remain largely unknown. Among the environmental factors, infections have been implicated in the onset and/or promotion of autoimmunity.[15]

Classification of Autoimmune Diseases

For clinicians, autoimmune diseases appear to be either systemic (e.g. systemic lupus erythematosus) or organ-specific (e.g. Type 1 diabetes mellitus). This classification, although clinically useful, does not necessarily correspond to a difference in causation. A more useful division distinguishes between diseases in which there is a general alteration in the selection, regulation or death of T cells or B cells and those in which an aberrant response to a particular antigen, self or foreign, causes autoimmunity. An example of a general defect is the absence of the Fas protein or its receptor- proteins involved in cell death- and a representative antigen specific disorder is the demyelination syndrome follows that enteric infection Campylobacterjejuni. This classification is useful in deciding on therapy, which may differ according to the pathogenic mechanism. Alterations that lower the threshold for the survival and activation of autoreactive B cells often cause the production of multiple autoantibodies, as in the case of the antinuclear and anti-DNA antibodies in systemic lupus erythematosu.[16-19] Low levels of these autoantibodies are the rule in all people. Genetic alterations with .global effects on the function of regulatory T cells or cytokine production often leads to inflammatory bowel disease.[20,21]

There are more than eighty identified autoimmune diseases.[22]

ADs traditionally have been categorized as organ specific or systemic or both (Table 1). The organ-specific ADs may represent examples of normal immune responses that produce disease because they are "misdirected" against a self-antigen or organ. By contrast, in systemic ADs, multiple organs are targets for immune attack, and chronic activation of innate and adaptive immune cells is usually present. SLE is considered to be the prototypic systemic AD. However, it should be noted that the categorization of an AD as organ-specific or systemic is based primarily on clinical observations rather than the expression pattern of the self antigen that appears to be targeted in the attack.[30] Table1&Figure1.

Women and Autoimmune Diseases

Approximately one-third of the risk of developing an autoimmune disease can be attributed to heritable factors, especially gender. Women account for about 75% of the estimated 23.5 million people in America afflicted by autoimmune diseases, and autoimmune diseases constitute some of the leading causes of death and disability in women below 65 years of age.[23,24] In several instances, such as rheumatoid arthritis, multiple sclerosis, and myocarditis, the autoimmune disease can be induced experimentally by administering selfantigen in the presence of adjuvant (collagen, myelin basic protein, and cardiac myosin, respectively).[25]An important unifying theme

in autoimmune diseases is a high prevalence in women. (Figure- 2)[26,27]

Conservative estimates indicate that 6.7 million or 78.8% of the persons with autoimmune diseases are women.[26] While the relationship between sex and prevalence of autoimmune disorders remains unclear, researchers have noted that women have higher levels of antibodies and mount larger inflammatory responses than men when their immune systems are triggered, possibly increasing the risk of autoimmunity.[23,24] Autoimmune diseases tend to fluctuate in accordance with hormonal changes, such as during pregnancy, menstrual cycle, menopause, aging and usage of birth control pills.[23] Autoimmune diseases fluctuate by racial lines as well, since two gene variants were found that are related to an increased risk of lupus among African American women.[28]TABLE-2[29].

Genetic Risk Factors

The development of autoimmune diseases depends on a combination of genetic and environmental factors. Most autoimmune diseases are thought to be polygenic, involving more than one gene. There is familial clustering, and the rate of concordance for autoimmune disease is higher in monozygotic twins than in dizygotic twins.[31-33] A few autoimmune diseases, such autoimmune as lymphoproliferative syndrome and the syndrome

of autoimmune polyglandular endocrinopathy with candidiasis and ectodermal dysplasia (APECED), are due to mutations in single gene. Even in these conditions, other genes modify the severity of disease and not all who possess the mutant gene manifest the disease. Most autoimmune diseases are multigenic, with multiple susceptibility genes working in concert to produce the phenotype. In general, the polymorphisms also occur in normal people and are compatible with normal immune function. Only when present with other susceptibility do they contribute genes to autoimmunity.[34,35] Some of these genes confer a much higher level of risk than others; for e.g. the major histocompatibility complex makes an important contribution to disease susceptibility. Most autoimmune diseases are linked to a particular class I or II HLA molecules[36]

Environmental Factors

Environmental factors may have various roles in promoting, causing or modifying autoimmune diseases. If, and when specific environmental factors contribute to autoimmune diseases, they may well determine the onset of illness, the nature of initial manifestations, or be a determining factor on whether an autoimmune disease contained within an individual might occur at all.[37]

Besides genetic factors, pathological environmental factors play a role in initiating or exacerbating certain autoimmune disorders. For example, the product of a human gene that confers susceptibility to Crohn's disease recognizes components of certain bacteria, and viral infections have long been suspected as triggers of Type 1 Diabetes. Conversely, other research suggests that the numbers of regulatory T cells that normally hold potentially destructive immune responses in check are reduced by viral infections. Exposure to various synthetic chemicals and metals in the initiation of autoimmune disease may also increase susceptibility disorders. to autoimmune Generally, inhibit immune metals cell proliferation and activation; mercury, gold, and silver, for example, can induce lymphocyte proliferation and subsequent autoimmunity. A broad range of synthetic chemicals, including hormone supplementation, hormone blockers, pesticides, insecticides, fungicides, and food and herbal products, may elicit estrogenic or antiestrogenic activity.[38]

Autoimmune Disease: Pathogenesis

Multiple arms of the immune system may be involved in autoimmune pathology. Antigens are taken up by antigen presenting cells (APC) such as dendritic cells (DC) and processed into peptides which are loaded onto MHC molecules for presentation to T cells via clonotypic T cell

receptors (TCR). Cytolytic T cells (Tc, activated by MHC class I on APC) can directly lyse a target, while T helper cells (Th, activated by MHC class II) release cytokines that can have direct effects or can activate macrophages, monocytes and B cells. B cells themselves have surface receptors that can bind surface antigens. Upon receiving signals from Th cells, B cells secrete antibodies specific for the antigens. Antibody may bind its specific target alone or bind to and activate may macrophages simultaneously via the Fc receptor. Multiple mechanisms have been described to explain how pathogens might induce activation and critical expansion of autoreactive T cells and start autoimmune disease.[39-44]

A microbial antigen can include an epitope that is structurally similar to an autoantigen epitope, providing the basic element of the mechanism referred to as molecular mimicry.[45-50]

Another mechanism would imply that the inflammatory setting and the paracrine secretion of T cell growth factors induce the expansion of activated autoreactive T cells, whose small number was previously insufficient to drive an autoimmune disease. Such a mechanism is referred to as bystander activation.[51] Pathogen-induced tissue inflammation may result in local activation of APC and enhanced processing/presentation of self-antigens that causes T cell priming, followed by T cell

activation and expansion of additional specificities (epitope spreading) [52,53]. Activation of resting autoreactive T cells may be achieved by viral and bacterial superantigens that bind a variety of MHC class II molecules and activate large numbers of T cells, irrespective of their specificity.[54]

Pathogen responses and autoimmunity

The ability of the host to defend against invading pathogens is to a large extent mediated by a group of germline-encoded receptors known as pattern-recognition receptors (PRR). These molecules include Toll-like receptors (TLR), nucleotide-binding and oligomerization domain (NOD)-like receptors (NLR), (RIG-I)-like helicases and a subset of C-type lectin receptors, which together recognize a large number of molecular patterns present in bacteria, viruses and fungi.[55]

Molecular mimicry

Antigen recognition by the TCR allows T-cell activation by different peptides bound to one or even several MHC molecules [56]. The pathogen may carry elements that are similar enough in amino acid sequence or structure to self-antigen, so T cells that are activated in response to the pathogen are also cross-reactive to self and lead to direct damage and further activation of other arms of the immune system. Similarly, antibodies reflecting B-cell receptor specificity

were found to recognize both microbial and selfantigens, this hypothesis is know as molecular mimicry.[57]

It is now generally accepted that a single T cell can respond to various distinct peptides, and that different peptide/MHC complexes can lead to cross-reactivity by the same TCR as long as the complexes have similar charge distribution and overall shape.[58-60]

Animal models in which molecular mimicry can trigger autoimmune disease are abundant. These include: Theiler's murine encephalomyelitis virus (TMEV)-induced demyelinating disease (TMEV-IDD), a model of human multiple sclerosis in which intracerebral TMEV infection of mice leads to an autoimmune demyelinating 30-40 after disorder days infection.[53] Mechanism by which pathogens may cause autoimmunity. a) Molecular mimicry describes the activation of crossreactive T cells that recognize both the pathogen-derived epitopes and the self-derived epitopes. Pathogen-derived epitops are taken up by APC and presented to T cells. Activation of T cells results in the direct lysis of self-tissue or release of cytokines and chemokines that activate macrophages, which mediate self-tissue damage, and provide help to pathogen-specific B cells. The subsequent release of self-tissue antigens and their uptake by APC perpetuates the autoimmune disease. b) Bystander activation is the nonspecific activation of self-reactive T cells. Activation of pathogenspecific T cells leads to inflammation that damages self-tissue in an antigen non-specific manner, and triggers activation of self-reactive T cells. c) Epitope spreading involves a persistent pathogen infection that causes damage to selftissue. This results in the release of self-peptides, which are engulfed by APC and presented to self-reactive T cells. Continual damage and release of self-peptides results in the spread of the self-reactive immune response to multiple self-epitopes.

FIGURE-3[61]

Treatments for Autoimmune Diseases

Since cures are currently unavailable for most autoimmune disorders, patients often face a lifetime of debilitating symptoms, loss of organ and tissue function, and high medical costs.[62] For many autoimmune disorders, the goals of treatments are to reduce chronic symptoms and lower the level of immune system activity while maintaining the immune system's ability to fight foreign contaminants. Treatments vary widely and depend on the specific disease and the symptoms. For example, those afflicted with Type I Diabetes must replenish their insulin levels. usually through injections. In autoimmune diseases like Type I Diabetes, patients may need supplements to provide a hormone or vitamin that the body is lacking. If the autoimmune disorder either directly or indirectly affects the blood or the circulatory system, such as autoimmune hemolytic anemia (AIHA), lupus, and antiphospholipidal antibody syndrome (AAS), patients may require blood transfusions. In autoimmune disorders that affect the bones, joints, or muscle, such as multiple sclerosis (MS) and rheumatoid arthritis, patients often require assistance to maintain mobility or medication to suppress pain and reduce inflammation in affected areas.[63]

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Table 1(A): Organ-Specific Autoimmune Diseases

| Organ | Diseases | Self-antigen | Major Autoimmune Mechanism |
|--------------------|-------------------------------------|---|-------------------------------|
| Adrenal cells | Addison's disease | Cytochrome P-450 antigens | Autoantibodies |
| Blood cells | Autoimmune hemolytic anemia | Red blood cell membrane proteins | Autoantibodies |
| Pleatlets | Idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura | Platelet antigens (GP IIb/IIIa) | Autoantibodies |
| Stomach | Pernicious anemia | Gastric parietal cell antigens (H+/ATPase, intrinsic factor) | Autoantibodies /T cells |
| Small bowl | Celiac sprue (gluten enteropathy) | Transglutaminase | Autoantibodies /T cells |
| Thyroid | Hashimoto's thyroiditis | Thyroid cell antigens (e.g., thyroglobulin) | Autoantibodies |
| | Graves' disease | Thyroid-stimulating hormone receptor | Autoantibodies /T cells |
| Muscle | Myasthenia gravis | Acetylcholine receptors | Autoantibodies /T cells |
| Pancreatic islets | Type 1 diabetes | Beta cell antigens (glutamic acid decarboxylase, insulin) | Autoantibodies /T cells |
| Hepatocytes | Autoimmune hepatitis | Hepatocyte antigens (cytochrome P450 2D6) | Autoantibodies |
| Bile duct cells | Primary biliary cirrhosis | Intrahepatic bile duct (pyruvate dehydrogenase complex protein) | Autoantibodies |
| Heart | Rheumatic heart disease | Myocardial antigens | Autoantibodies |
| Kidney/lungs | Goodpasture's syndrome | Basement membrane antigens (type IV collagen α3 chain) | Autoantibodies |

Table 1(B): Systemic Autoimmune Diseases

| Table 1(D). Systemic Autominium Diseases | | | | |
|--|--|---|--|--|
| Disease(s) | Self antigen | Major Autoimmune Mechanism | | |
| Ankylosing sponkylitis | Vertebrae | Immune complexes | | |
| Multiple sclerosis | Brain or white matter | TH1 cells and TC cells, auto- antibodies | | |
| Rheumatoid arthritis | Connective tissue, IgG | Auto-antibodies, immune complexes | | |
| Systemic lupus erythematosus | DNA, nuclear protein, RBC and platelet membranes | • • | | |
| Scleroderma | Nuclei, heart, lungs, gastrointestinal tract, kidney | Auto-antibodies | | |

Table 2 Types of Autoimmune Diseases & Their Symptoms

| Disease | Symtoms |
|--|--|
| Alopecia areata (Al-uh-PEE-shuh AR-ee-AYT-uh) | Patchy hair loss on the scalp, face, or other areas of |
| The immune system attacks hair follicles (the structures | your body |
| from which hair grows). It usually does not threaten health, | |
| but it can greatly affect the way a person looks. | |
| Autoimmune hepatitis | Fatigue, Enlarged liver, Yellowing of the skin or |
| The immune system attacks and destroys the liver cells. | whites of eyes, Itchy skin, Joint pain, Stomach pain |
| This can lead to scarring and hard-ening of the liver, and | or upset |
| possibly liver failure | |
| Antiphospholipid (an-teye-FOSS-foh-lip-ihd) antibody | Blood clots in veins or arteries, Multiple |
| syndrome (aPL) A disease that causes problems in the | miscarriages, Lacy, net-like red rash on the wrists |

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|---|---|
| inner lining of blood vessels resulting in blood clots | and Knees |
| in arteries or veins. | |
| Celiac disease: A disease in which people can't tolerate | Abdominal bloating and pain, Diarrhea or |
| gluten, a substance found in wheat, rye, and barley, and | constipation., Weight loss or weight gain, Fatigue, |
| also some medicines. When people with celiac disease eat | Missed menstrual periods, Itchy skin rash, Infertility |
| foods or use products that have gluten, the immune system | or miscarriages |
| responds by damaging the lining of the small intestines | |
| Diabetes type 1 | Being very thirsty, Urinating often, Feeling very |
| A disease in which your immune system attacks the cells | hungry or tired, Losing weight without trying, |
| that make insulin, a hormone needed to control blood sugar | Having sores that heal slowly, Dry, itchy skin, |
| levels. As a result, your body cannot make insulin. Without | Losing the feeling in your feet or having tingling in |
| insulin, too much sugar stays in your blood. Too high | your feet, Having blurry eyesight |
| blood sugar can hurt the eyes, kidneys, nerves, and gums | |
| and teeth. But the most serious problem caused by diabetes | |
| is heart disease. | Towns in Large Eller Weight Loss Hard and Cale |
| Graves' disease (overactive thyroid) | Insomnia, Irritability, Weight loss, Heat sensitivity, |
| A disease that causes the thyroid to make too much thyroid | Sweating, Fine brittle hair, Muscle weakness, Light |
| hormone. | menstrual periods, Bulging eyes, Shaky hands, |
| Cuillain Danna (CEE yahn bab DAV) ann duan | Sometimes there are no symptoms Weekness or tingling feeling in the legs that might |
| Guillain-Barre (GEE-yahn bah-RAY) syndrome The immune system attacks the nerves that connect your | Weakness or tingling feeling in the legs that might spread to the upper body, Paralysis in severe cases |
| brain and spinal cord with the rest of your body. Damage | Symptoms often progress relatively quickly, over a |
| to the nerves makes it hard for them to transmit signals. As | period of days or weeks, and often occur on both |
| a result, the muscles have trouble responding to the brain | sides of the body. |
| Hashimoto's (hah-shee-MOH-tohz) disease | Fatigue, Weakness, Weight gain, Sensitivity to cold, |
| (underactive thyroid) | Muscle aches and stiff joints, Facial swelling, |
| A disease that causes the thyroid to not make enough | Constipation |
| thyroid hormone | |
| Hemolytic anemia (HEE-moh-lit-ihk uh-NEE-mee-uh) | Fatigue, Shortness of breath, Dizziness, Headache, |
| The immune system destroys the red blood cells. Yet the | Cold hands or feet, Paleness, Yellowish skin or |
| body can't make new red blood cells fast enough to meet | whites of eyes, Heart problems, including heart |
| the body's needs. As a result, your body does not get the | failure |
| oxygen it needs to function well, and your heart must work | |
| harder to move oxygen-rich blood throughout the body. | |
| Idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura (id-ee-oh-PATH- | Very heavy menstrual period, Tiny purple or red |
| ihk throm-boh-seye-toh-PEE-nik PUR-pur-uh) (ITP) | dots on the skin that might look like a rash, Easy |
| A disease in which the immune system destroys blood | bruising, Nosebleed or bleeding in the mouth |
| platelets, which are needed for blood to clot. | |
| Inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) | Abdominal pain, Diarrhea, which may be bloody, |
| A disease that causes chronic inflammation of the digestive | Some people also have: |
| tract. Crohn's (krohnz) disease and ulcerative colitis | • Rectal bleeding • Fever • Weight loss • Fatigue |
| (UHL-sur-uh-tiv koh-LEYE-tuhss) are the most common | • Mouth ulcers (in Crohn's disease) • Painful or |
| forms of IBD | difficult bowel movements (in ulcerative colitis) |
| Inflammatory myopathies (meye-OP-uh-theez) | • Slow but progressive muscle weakness beginning in |
| A group of diseases that involve muscle inflammation and | the muscles closest to the trunk of the body. |
| muscle weakness. Polymyositis (pol-ee-meye-uh-SYT- | Polymyositis affects muscles involved with making |
| uhss) and dermatomyositis (dur-muh-toh-meye-uh-SYT- | movement on both sides of the body. With dermato- |
| uhss) are 2 types more common in women than men. | myositis, a skin rash comes before or at the same time as muscle weakness. |
| | May also have: • Fatigue after walking or standing |
| | Tripping or falling • Difficulty swallowing or |
| | breathing |
| Multiple sclerosis (MUHL-tip-uhl sklur-OH-suhss) | Weakness and trouble with coordination, balance, |
| (MS) | speaking, and walking |
| (/ | 1 -T |

| A disease in which the immune system attacks the | • Paralysis • Tremors • Numbness and tingling feeling |
|---|---|
| protective coating around the nerves. The damage affects | in arms, legs, hands, and feet • Symptoms vary |
| the brain and spinal cord. | because the location and extent of each attack vary |
| Myasthenia gravis (meye-uhss-THEEN-ee-uh GRAV- | Double vision, trouble keeping a steady gaze, and |
| uhss) (MG) | drooping eye, Trouble swallowing, with frequent |
| A disease in which the immune system attacks the nerves | gagging or choking |
| and muscles throughout the body | Weakness or paralysis • Muscles that work better |
| | after rest • Drooping head • Trouble climbing stairs or |
| | lifting things • Trouble talking |
| Primary biliary cirrhosis (BIL-ee-air-ee sur-ROH- | Fatigue |
| suhss) | • Itchy skin |
| The immune system slowly destroys the liver's bile ducts. | Dry eyes and mouth |
| Bile is a substance made in the liver. It travels through the | Yellowing of skin and whites of eyes |
| bile ducts to help with digestion. When the ducts are | |
| destroyed, the bile builds up in the liver and hurts it. The | |
| damage causes the liver to harden and scar, and eventually | |
| stop working. | |
| Psoriasis (suh-REYE-uh-suhss) | Thick red patches, covered with scales, usually |
| A disease that causes new skin cells that grow deep in your | appearing on the head, elbows, and knees |
| skin to rise too fast and pile up on the skin surface. | • Itching and pain, which can make it hard to sleep, |
| | walk, and care for yourself |
| | May have: • A form of arthritis that often affects the |
| | joints and the ends of the fingers and toes. Back pain |
| | can occur if the spine is involved |
| Rheumatoid arthritis (ROO-muh-toid ar-THREYE- | Painful, stiff, swollen, and deformed joints |
| tuhss) | Reduced movement and function |
| A disease in which the immune system attacks the lining of | May also have: • Fatigue • Fever • Weight loss • Eye |
| the joints throughout the body | inflammation • Lung disease • Lumps of tissue under |
| | the skin, often the elbows • Anemia |

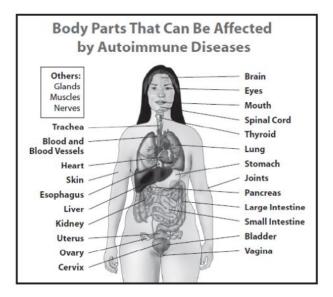


Figure 1: Possible body part affected with Autoimmune disease

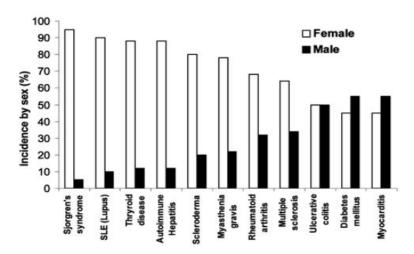


Figure 2: Autoimmune diseases comparison in Male and Female

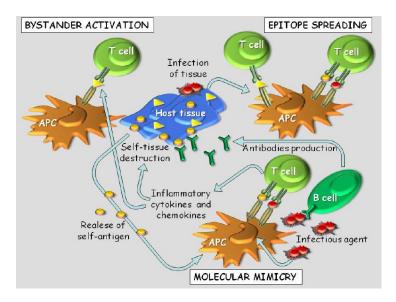


Figure 3: Autoimmune diseases Pathophysiology