

# DEOXYRIBONUCLEIC ACID AND ITS ANTIBODIES IN SYSTEMIC LUPUS ERYTHEMATOSUS

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## SYNOPSIS

Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) and the antibodies directed against it are closely associated with systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) and there is strong evidence that they are pathogenetic. Titres of these antibodies not always correlate with disease severity or activity. Antibodies to double-stranded DNA (dsDNA) are specific for SLE unlike those to single-stranded DNA. Present-day tests for dsDNA antibody estimation must ensure that the exogenous source of DNA used as antigen for detection of its antibody is free of single-stranded contamination. Three newer tests - the *Crithidia luciliae* kinetoplast, synthetic poly dAT and the bacteriophage PM2DNA - are mentioned.

Qualitative variables of DNA antibodies, such as their avidity, complement-fixing ability, immunoglobulin class and subclass, their interaction in immune complex formation, and the role of the reticuloendothelial system are examined to try and explain the differences in clinical manifestations between SLE patients (lupus subsets) and also within the same patient but at differing stages of the disease. The modifying influence of the extractable nuclear antigen (ENA) and their antibodies (to ribonucleoprotein (RNP) and Sm antigen) is highlighted. Finally there is discussion on the immuno-regulatory dysfunction involving the IgG and IgM classes of anti-DNA antibody. The cellular aspects of immuno-regulation have been omitted.

## INTRODUCTION

Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) is basically a double-stranded molecule and antibodies directed against this "native" double-stranded DNA (dsDNA) were discovered in sera of patients with systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) more than 20 years ago (1, 2). These anti-dsDNA antibodies are important in the pathogenesis of SLE and their levels correlate with disease activity and active nephritis (3-5). Detecting these dsDNA antibodies in patients'

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sera is now routine in most clinical laboratories. In the plethora of techniques that have been employed, e.g. gel diffusion, complement fixation, agglutination, radioimmuno-electrophoresis, counter-immunoelectrophoresis and ammonium sulphate precipitation (Farr assay), an exogenous source of DNA, whose purity for double-strandedness is not always assured, is used. Metabolic processes such as replication, transcription and repair temporarily disrupt the double-stranded nature of DNA. Handling of the DNA prior to its use in the actual estimation of anti-dsDNA antibody level can and does result in shearing the DNA molecule exposing small single-stranded (ss) regions on the ends or sides of the large ds molecule. Replication and recombination cause the formation of internal singlestranded regions during intermediate stages. For these reasons, the most carefully prepared DNA from bacterial and eukaryotic DNA usually shows 10-20% of the total supposedly dsDNA as having ss regions (6). Work by Arana and Seligman (7) suggests that many SLE sera contain at least three types of antiDNA antibodies.

- (1) anti-dsDNA antibodies that react only with "native" dsDNA
- (2) anti-dsDNA antibodies that react with "native" dsDNA but cross-react with denatured or incompletely dsDNA.
- (3) anti-ssDNA antibodies.

Some antibodies in SLE sera are directed against purine or pyrimidine bases while others appear to be directed against the sugar-phosphate "backbone". Workers have showed that antibodies to dsDNA may recognise the antigenic determinants involving the external deoxyribose phosphate "backbone" in contrast to the internal nucleoside-specific determinants said to be sterically protected in dsDNA but exposed and detectable in ssDNA (7, 8).

#### DNA antibodies in sera and tissues

DNA is not the only antigen to which antibodies are found against in SLE. Brentjens et al (9) showed immune complex deposits in vasculitic lesions in SLE in organs like the kidneys, lungs, spleen, liver, intestines, peritoneum and the choroid plexus. The composition of these immune complexes especially in lupus nephritis has been identified with both DNA and its antibody being present in eluates from lupus nephritic renal tissue (10). Primary involvement of DNA/antiDNA complexes in the development of renal injury in SLE has been further established (4, 11-13) and increased serum levels of anti-dsDNA and to a lesser extent anti-ssDNA correlate closely with clinical activity and hypocomplementaemia (4, 11, 12). Both dsDNA (10) and ssDNA (14) have the same distribution along the glomerular basement membrane as gamma globulin and complement components. Accumulating evidence favours dsDNA antibodies as being specific for SLE and do not just reflect antibodies to denatured and single stranded regions in the test material. Locker et al (6) concluded that non-SLE sera do not contain antibodies specific for dsDNA at levels comparable to those found in SLE sera, but rather

contain high levels of antibodies reacting with ss regions or mixed DNA.

#### Tests for DNA antibody

SLE patients' sera react with DNA irrespective of whether the DNA is of plant, viral, bacterial or mammalian source. However, sera from one patient when tested against DNA from these various sources gave a % binding ranging from 5 to 95% in the Farr assay (15). This was ascribed to variations in the molecular weight of the DNA; the higher the molecular weight of DNA, the greater the binding.

Thus the heterogeneity of molecular size of the DNA and its purity for ds are very important considerations in any test used to detect dsDNA antibodies. False positive results can easily result from ssDNA contamination.

To circumvent these problems of the DNA antigen, the dsDNA of the haemo-flagellate, *Crithidia lucillae* kinetoplast (16), synthetic dAT (17) and circular viral DNA (18) have been used. With the same sera run on these supposedly pure dsDNA antigens, the results would hopefully be more specific for SLE. However, some problems have arisen.

With the *Crithidia* assay, which is now available in a kit form commercially, indirect immunofluorescence does also detect serum antibodies that react with a non-kinetoplast non-nuclear antigen present in the regions of the basal feet associated with the basal body of the organism's flagellum (19). Unless one is aware of this possibility, this immunofluorescence could be misinterpreted as positive for dsDNA antibody. The significance of this antibasal feet antibody is unknown. It was found in 16 sera of 31 patients with SLE (19).

Synthetic dAT is alternating copolymers of deoxyadenate and deoxythimidyate. Steinman et al (20) found that high concentrations of antibodies to this dAT, using the % binding assay, correlated with high incidence of active renal lupus in patients. Proceeding further, Heinzerling and co-workers (21) found that only sera containing a high concentration of IgG antibody to DNA would bind to dAT. Thus it appeared that the selectivity of IgG antibody for dAT correlated with IgG being the main antibody type involved in lupus nephritis.

Supercoiled, circular viral DNA is isolated from the pseudomonas bacteriophage PM2. Though not very stable, it does have extraordinarily high specificity for the dsDNA antibody in active SLE. Another advantage is that variations in molecular weight of the DNA are excluded. Such variations give rise to enormous fluctuations of dsDNA binding values (22, 23).

Therefore although these three DNA sources may offer advantages, they are not ideal as yet. The kind of antibodies detected will also depend much upon the technique used, as methods selective for high avidity antibodies differentiate better between SLE and non-SLE sera (24).

#### Significance of DNA antibody

It is now accepted that the detection of antibodies to

dsDNA has a quite remarkable degree of specificity for SLE, despite the loss of tolerance also to other nucleic acid antigens. High binding activity of serum for dsDNA is unquestionably of diagnostic value (25) and the presence of anti-dsDNA antibody almost defines spontaneously developing SLE, (in contrast to drug-induced LE), although this parameter is not in the ARA criteria for the classification of SLE. The correlation of levels of high binding antibodies with clinical activity, with progress of the disease, or even with renal involvement may be disappointingly erratic (26) but together with hypocomplementemia and clinical parameters of disease activity, they are useful in guiding therapy. In cerebral lupus on the other hand, fluctuations in the levels of DNA binding antibodies do not seem to correlate with the clinical activity. In part this is contributed by the poor criteria in defining cerebral lupus. Laboratory markers of active neurologic involvement in SLE have included the measurement of cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) complement C4 (27, 28), CSF DNA-antiDNA complexes and DNA antibodies (29) and serum brain-reactive lymphocytotoxic antibodies (30). More recently, CSF cyclic GMP was found to correlate with active neurologic disease (31), but this was not specific for SLE, occurring also with other pathologic states. Thus elevated CSF cyclic GMP is useful only as a marker of active central nervous system dysfunction regardless of its aetiology.

Miniter et al (32) following up SLE patients longitudinally over three years, found that only slightly more than half of the episodes of active disease were associated with low levels of total hemolytic complement (CH50) and high dsDNA binding, and there was a significant occurrence of high DNA binding or low CH50 with inactive disease. In contrast, they found no dsDNA antibody (as measured by complement fixation using  $^{14}\text{C}$  dsDNA from *E. coli* and  $^{14}\text{C}$  poly dAT) in the absence of clinical disease. Further most episodes of central nervous disease occurred without depressed CH50 or high dsDNA binding. Thus it would appear that besides the quantity of dsDNA antibodies, their varied qualitative characteristics have to be considered.

#### **Avidity of dsDNA antibody**

Gershwin and Steinberg (33) investigated some of these qualitative characteristics and found that patients with lupus nephritis had either precipitating antibodies to DNA or a mixture of precipitating and nonprecipitating antibodies whereas those without nephritis had only nonprecipitating antibodies to DNA. Furthermore, the avidity for DNA was greatest in sera from patients with nephritis. Since then conflicting results on the avidity of antiDNA antibody in lupus nephritis have appeared (34-37). In mice, non-precipitating and low avidity antibodies are important in the development of glomerulonephritis (38). In rabbits, those producing low avidity antibodies developed membranous glomerulonephritis while those with high avidity produced membranoproliferative glomerulonephritis (39). Human studies by Asano and Nakamoto (37) showed that high avidity antiDNA antibodies localised in immune complexes in the mesangial and subendothelial positions while those with low avidity

antibodies were associated with subepithelial deposits. Contrary results were reported by others (33, 35). Winfield et al (34) however postulated that high avidity anti-dsDNA antibodies are primarily responsible for the renal injury induced by DNA-anti-dsDNA immune complexes and are removed quickly from the circulation after the combination with dsDNA, leaving the lower avidity antibodies in the serum. Critical to this problem of avidity measurements is the many different methods used:- dissociation technique (38), association constants using serial dilutions of antibody (Scatchard's technique) (35, 36), the slopes of plots of % bound DNA against serial antibody dilutions (33) and Sips plots of  $1/\text{bound}$  and  $1/\text{free}$  antigen using different antigen dilutions (34), and they may not all be measuring the same quality of these antibodies. All the studies, except one, have concentrated on the sera of patients rather than the renal eluates.

#### **Complement-fixing ability of dsDNA antibody**

Beaulieu and co-workers (40) using the kinetoplast of *Crithidia lucillae* to study the antibodies to dsDNA found that complement fixing activity varied independently of antibody content in the whole serum and in IgG fractions. Thus antibodies to dsDNA constitute a heterogeneous population in terms of ability to activate complement. The importance of these differences lies in the concept that antibodies to DNA produced in patients with active nephritis may be of a different quality to those produced in patients without active nephritis, and these same workers found that this correlation of complement fixing with activity of lupus nephritis appears related to qualitative rather than solely quantitative differences. Earlier work by Sontheimer and Gilliam (41) showed that nephritis patients usually had dsDNA antibodies in all three major Ig classes and more frequently had the IgG dsDNA antibody subclasses that fix complement, that is, IgG1 and IgG3. IgM, IgG1 and IgG3 antibodies can activate complement via the classical pathway. However, IgA cannot, but does so by the alternate pathway. But, a more recent report (32), provides evidence that differences in complement-fixing activity are not due to class or subclass composition of the dsDNA population of antibodies as previously suggested (41-43). These same workers also found complement fixing dsDNA antibodies associated mainly with episodes of renal disease, whereas all types of disease activity except those involving predominantly the central nervous system, showed some correlation with the combined parameters of low CH50 and high dsDNA binding.

#### **Immunoglobulin class of dsDNA antibody**

Despite the uncertain correlation of complement fixing ability with the immunoglobulin class of dsDNA antibodies (as discussed above), there appears to be some correlation of the immunoglobulin class with disease activity and severity. The mechanisms of tissue injury for these relationships is at present unclear. Patients with predominantly IgM dsDNA antibodies in the serum had less active disease, mild or

no renal involvement, and longer survival than those with predominantly IgG dsDNA antibodies in the serum. Renal biopsies in patients with predominantly IgM dsDNA antibodies in the serum showed relatively benign histologic changes in the kidney while in contrast, those with predominantly IgG dsDNA antibodies showed more severe histologic changes. It was therefore suggested that the immunoglobulin class of dsDNA antibody was a critical factor in determining whether diffuse proliferative glomerulonephritis developed (44), with IgG DNA complexes producing more severe renal injury than IgM DNA complexes (45). Talal et al (46) and others (21) also correlated IgG dsDNA antibodies with severe renal lupus. However, a most recent paper by Clough and Valenzuela (47) showed that the group of patients with diffuse proliferative glomerulonephritis as contrasted with another group with focal proliferative glomerulonephritis, had a higher IgM to IgG ratio of dsDNA antibody, with both groups having almost identical total anti-dsDNA antibody levels. The IgA dsDNA antibody levels were not significantly different.

In the skin of lupus patients, there is a good correlation between the immunoglobulin classes of dsDNA antibodies present in the serum and that stained at the dermoepidermal junction (44). Also the skin lesions are similar to the renal lesions in SLE in that deposits containing immunoglobulin and complement are present (48). The deposits in uninvolved skin in SLE correlate with depressed CH50, high titres of dsDNA antibody and renal disease (49). A recent study by Sontheimer and Gilliam (50) demonstrated that the intensity of band fluorescence in clinically normal skin of SLE patients is directly related to the anti-dsDNA antibody titre as determined by the Crithidia luciliae indirect immunofluorescence assay. Furthermore, the presence of IgG alone or in combination with other immunoglobulins in a positive lupus band test from clinically normal non-sun-exposed skin correlated with more marked disease activity, than the presence of IgM alone which indicated mild clinical disease (44, 51).

### Immune complexes in SLE

Immune complexes are macromolecules formed as a result of combination of antigen and antibody. These macromolecules may vary greatly in size and structure depending on the size of the antigen, the class and avidity of the antibody, the lattice-work structure which itself is dependent on the valency of the antigen and antibody and the configuration of the reacting molecules. Immune complexes may be physiological in clearing antigens, this rapid elimination being dependent on phagocytosis by mononuclear and polymorphonuclear phagocytic cells. Phagocytosed antigen is rapidly catabolised. In other circumstances, immune complexes may persist and it has been suggested that low avidity antibodies may do this (52). Immune complexes may also exert important effects on cellular immune responses.

Factors which favour localisation of circulating immune complexes in vessel walls include hydrodynamic forces, filtering pressure across the vascular

basement membrane, the state of vascular permeability, size, lattice structure of immune complexes and their avidity for specific tissues (53). In renal glomerular vessels, size of the macromolecules has been thought important in determining the subendothelial, intra or extra-membranous location of the immune complexes (54).

The pathogenic significance of immune complexes in SLE is widely accepted as there is evidence for the presence of circulating DNA, antibodies to DNA, immune complexes composed of DNA and antiDNA antibodies (55, 56), activation of the complement cascade leading to hypocomplementemia and deposition of DNA-antiDNA antibody and complement components in tissues, especially the glomeruli (57). There is an increased prevalence of immune complexes in SLE and assays for circulating immune complexes may have a value in the assessment of clinical activity of disease (58, 59-63). To be more specific, circulating DNA-antiDNA complexes have been demonstrated in SLE patients' sera by some workers (56, 64) but others (65) have failed to detect them. In SLE, immune complexes of molecular weight exceeding 2500,000 spared the kidneys altogether (66). Thus high levels of circulating immune complexes in SLE without analysing for DNA-antiDNA in them cannot implicate this system as other antigen-antibody systems may be involved instead (62, 67). Even when circulating DNA-antiDNA immune complexes are found, this does not indicate whether or not these circulating immune complexes deposit in tissues or are cleared by the reticuloendothelial system. There is evidence for the local formation of the immune complexes found in pathological lesions (65, 68). Izui and co-workers showed that *in vitro* DNA tends to bind spontaneously to isolated glomerular basement membrane and to collagen and that injected radiolabelled DNA showed a very big degree of binding in the kidneys of mice given intravenous lipopolysaccharides (LPS) (65, 69, 70). Immune complexes containing DNA in kidneys of such LPS-treated mice were also shown. Thus an alternative hypothesis to SLE lesions being the result of DNA-antiDNA immune complexes formed in the blood stream and then being deposited in capillary beds is the postulate that DNA released from cells, bacteria or viruses is bound by collagen or basement membrane; simultaneously present circulating antiDNA antibodies would thus be immunoadsorbed to tissue-bound DNA and give rise to *in-situ* DNA-antiDNA complexes and resultant inflammation.

Miniter et al (32) reported the association of rash with depressed CH50 alone when rash was the predominant manifestation of clinical activity. Also there were patients with rash who had low CH50 and high dsDNA titres but in none of these cases was the dsDNA complement fixing and most interestingly, although immunoglobulin and complement deposits are present in similarity to the renal lesions, there is no direct evidence that DNA-antiDNA complexes are present in the skin lesions (48, 71).

Besides the presence of circulating dsDNA antibodies and immune complexes composed of DNA-antiDNA, circulating dsDNA unbound to its antibody has been detected (72) and found to occur specifically

in patients with SLE who have vasculitis and central nervous system involvement. Swaak and colleagues (73) showed in a longitudinal study that when dsDNA antibody titres remained high (they used circular DNA in the Farr assay), no exacerbations were observed but a sharp drop in anti-dsDNA, usually preceded by a rise, was related to a serious exacerbation. It is accepted that in some patients, anti-dsDNA antibody per se is not very harmful as these patients have had high levels of them without major disease activity. The sudden fall in anti-dsDNA antibody might represent complex formation with DNA and thus fit in well with the theory involving DNA-antiDNA in the pathogenesis of SLE. The presence, then, of free circulating dsDNA might imply that all the anti-dsDNA antibody has been complexed and deposited already.

### **Reticuloendothelial system dysfunction**

In a dynamic situation where free DNA as antigen, either circulating or tissue-bound, and circulating dsDNA antibody on the one hand, combine to give immune complexes on the other, the equilibrium or otherwise is dependent to a large extent on the clearance of immune complexes from the circulation. Besides capillary bed deposition or localisation to tissues where the DNA is bound, the reticuloendothelial system must be implicated. In SLE, abnormal clearances by this system correlated with immune complexes titres in the serum and disease activity. It is suggested that the defect in Fc-receptor function of the reticuloendothelial system (RES) may lead to the prolonged circulation of immune complexes thereby contributing to tissue deposition and damage (74). Blockade or saturation of the RES, which retards clearance of immune complexes markedly enhances renal deposition of complexes in laboratory animals (75). Preformed immune complexes, especially those of a larger lattice size, injected into the circulation of laboratory animals are removed rapidly by the RES (76). Efficient clearance of immune complexes will therefore prevent their tissue deposition. The importance of immunoglobulin class of antibody in determining which effector mechanisms an immune complex can activate and in clearance of such complexes by the RES has been recognised (77). It is possible that IgG binding to DNA produces immune complexes of a size that can be tissue deposited but cannot be readily cleared by the RES. Mannik and Arend (78) reported that immune complexes containing two or less IgG antibodies per complex circulate in the blood of humans for many hours whereas IgM complexes are removed rapidly by the RES. Complexes larger than Ag2Ab2 containing IgG1 or IgG3 antibody should be rapidly removed by the RES because of the presence of Fc-receptors for these antibodies on macrophages.

Size of the immune complexes is another important factor. Immune complexes of large size (35S) are formed primarily during periods of antibody excess. Large complexes of dsDNA and anti-dsDNA antibody formed during periods of high dsDNA antibody titre may localise primarily in peripheral tissues and the RES (79). These large complexes are less likely to

reach the kidneys. Small complexes (11 - 19S) do not localise in peripheral tissues but pass through the vasculature and become trapped, e.g. in glomeruli. Since small immune complexes are formed in times of antigen excess, they cannot be present if unbound antibody is present in the sera in significant amounts. Thus the failure of the dsDNA antibody titre to correlate with certain SLE manifestations suggests that small immune complexes may play a primary pathogenic role.

### **ssDNA antibodies**

Antibodies to ssDNA occur in SLE but also in a host of other rheumatic diseases. These antibodies often give a falsely high value to tests designed to detect only dsDNA antibodies because of the impurity of double-strandedness of the DNA antigen. Heinzerling and co-workers (21) using a solid phase radioimmunoassay to quantitate ssDNA antibodies found that the presence of IgG antibodies to ssDNA was associated with renal involvement while patients with IgM antibodies to ssDNA alone had more benign types of SLE with little renal involvement. They also found that ssDNA as the antigen provided greater binding efficiency than did dsDNA suggesting that most of the antibodies assayed for in active SLE patients reacted with purine and pyrimidine bases or a combination of these bases rather than polydeoxyribose phosphate "backbone". Other studies (80) showed that ssDNA blocked binding of the antibodies to dsDNA better than dsDNA itself. Picazo and Tan (81) suggest that antiDNA antibody in many SLE patients may be strongest to repeating adenine and thymidine nucleotides in dsDNA, illustrating that nucleotide bases are the antigenic sites for most DNA antibodies.

### **Interference by anti-extractable nuclear antigen antibodies?**

In 1972, Sharp and his colleagues described an overlap syndrome of SLE, generalised scleroderma and polymyositis-dermatomyositis, and named it mixed connective tissue disease (82). The underlying feature of this concept was the presence of antibodies to a saline extractable nuclear antigen (ENA) that was RNAase sensitive. ENA has two distinct moieties - soluble ribonucleoprotein (RNP) and a glycoprotein termed "Sm antigen" (83). RNAase sensitive ENA is synonymous with RNP: RNP antibodies are a sine qua non for the diagnosis of mixed connective tissue disease, although they are also found in a small proportion of patients with classical scleroderma and SLE (84-87). Notman et al have shown that Sm antibodies are restricted to patients with SLE (88) and Reichlin has suggested that the mixed connective tissue disease syndrome is most compatible with SLE favourably modified by the presence of RNP antibodies (87, 89, 90).

Powers et al reported 16 SLE patients who had circulating Sm antibodies and suggested that this serologic pattern might be indicative of a more benign form of SLE with non-progressive nephritis (91). 135 SLE patients with DNA (detected by C. luciliae) and/or Sm antibodies were compared to identify a specific

lupus subset. In their study, Winn et al (92) found Raynaud's phenomenon more frequently in patients with Sm antibodies while serious central nervous system disease was over three times as common in patients with DNA antibodies. They therefore felt that the Sm antibody system may identify a subset of SLE patients with milder central nervous system and renal disease. The postulated mechanism is that binding of Sm to DNA-antiDNA complexes alters the size, configuration or complement affinity of these immune complexes thus interfering with their recognition by receptors in the glomerular basement membrane (93) and also in the choroid plexus (92, 94, 95). Basis for this postulate stems from two observations: one, that Sm has a strong binding for singlestranded DNA and can inhibit a DNA-antiDNA reaction in vitro (96), and two, that injections of Sm antigen can reduce the severity of nephritis of NZB/NZW mice (97).

A low incidence of renal disease has been noted in SLE patients with RNP antibodies (98, 99) and ENA has been shown to interact with DNA, possibly inhibiting DNA-antiDNA immune complexes (100). It thus appears that SLE patients with antibodies to ENA in addition to their usual spectrum of autoantibodies, have a more benign form of disease.

#### **Immunoregulatory dysfunction: aberration in the switchover mechanism?**

From the evidence so far, it seems that the IgG class of antibody to dsDNA and also ssDNA (21), is more closely related to disease severity than the IgM class of autoantibodies. In animal models, many types of autoantibodies as they progressively appear, change in the class of immunoglobulin produced from 19S (IgM) to 7S (IgG). Further this switch to IgG production occurs earlier and with more severe kidney disease in the female than in the male. Going a step further, Talal et al (101, 102) found the presence of only 19S antibody to RNA in asymptomatic relatives while 7S antibody to DNA and RNA was found to correlate with active SLE in patients. Other workers (41, 44) reported the predominance of IgG anti-DNA antibody in active SLE with nephritis as opposed to SLE without nephritis. IgM antibody was found mainly in relatively mild disease. In contrast, Clough and Valenzuela (47) found the reverse with more IgM antiDNA in diffuse proliferative glomerulonephritis, the lesion with the worst prognosis in SLE, than in focal proliferative glomerulonephritis.

Besides DNA antibodies, these differences in immunoglobulin class are found also with lymphocytotoxic antibodies. Cold reactive lymphocytotoxic antibodies (LCTA) have been described in a variety of diseases including acute and chronic viral and bacterial infections, several types of malignancy, and a majority of the diseases currently associated with autoimmunity. In patients, LCTA have been shown to vary directly with certain symptoms and signs of SLE. Active arthritis, serositis, skin rash, lymphopenia, and hypocomplementemia are all associated with the presence of these antibodies (103-105). Messner and De Horatius (106) found LCTA in 80% of SLE patients and 40-60% of their asymptomatic relatives occurring

equally in consanguineous and non-sanguineous relatives but are more common with close proband contact. These antibodies are primarily IgM in relatives but are IgM and IgG in SLE patients.

These data suggest that SLE patients have a defect in the controls that normally restrict antibodies to the IgM class, allowing the switch to IgG antibodies that have a more pathogenic potential. After successful treatment, the antibody type progressively reverts from IgG to IgM (107). The switch from IgM to IgG production often involves the action of lymphocyte T cells.

#### **CONCLUSION**

The clinical heterogeneity of SLE may be due to variations in the genetic and environmental factors that determine the appearance of overt disease and the organ systems involved. Whether spontaneous SLE is a disease of cellular immunological dysfunction (i.e. loss of lymphocyte suppressor T cell function) with resultant lymphocyte B cell hyperactivity, or a disease of primarily B cell hyper-reactivity, remains unresolved. Environmental factors may elicit the development of autoantibodies that in the absence of a genetic predisposition may cause no disease (i.e. relatives of SLE probands with LCTA). However in the presence of genetic factors, the environmental determinants may contribute to the onset of SLE and determine its manifestations and course of the patient's disease. Genetic predisposition and hormonal factors may trigger development of overt and/or severe disease by causing antibodies to switch from IgM to IgG class. The intensity of this antibody response, the load of free dsDNA as antigen in the circulation or at tissue sites, the interaction between them (depending on avidity and complement fixing ability among other things), and the capacity of the RES to eliminate pathogenic immune complexes must all come into the picture. Perhaps in the same individual, the above stages may vary with each step of the clinical course. That dsDNA has been discussed reflects the specificity of this auto-antibody-antigen system in spontaneous SLE, which is in marked contrast to its absence or low titre in drug-induced lupus erythematosus. The latter rarely causes cerebral or renal lupus. Much remains to be investigated in SLE, despite the intense research of past years that have culminated in the present concepts as discussed in this article.

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