Familial Autoimmunity and the Idiopathic Inflammatory Myopathies

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Current Rheumatology Reports 2000, 2:201–211 Current Science Inc. ISSN 1523–3774 Copyright © 2000 by Current Science Inc.

Many lines of evidence suggest that autoimmune diseases result from chronic immune activation following environmental exposures in genetically susceptible individuals. A genetic basis for autoimmunity is supported by twin and family studies, candidate gene investigations, animal models, and whole genome microsatellite scans. These findings predict, and clinical observations support, familial clustering of a number of individual autoimmune diseases, notably lupus, multiple sclerosis, type-1 diabetes mellitus, rheumatoid arthritis, and recently the idiopathic inflammatory myopathies. Yet, not only is the same autoimmune disease increased in prevalence in pedigrees of persons affected with a given disorder, but other autoimmune diseases are as well. We review these data and propose a hypthesis consistent with these findings. This model posits that a rheumatic disease, as currently classified, is actually composed of a number of elemental disorders. Each of these is defined by the minimal necessary and sufficient environmental exposures and genes that result in a pathology leading to a given sign-symptom complex.

Introduction

A diverse array of diseases, that may involve a single organ system or multiple systems, result from pathologic immune responses to self-tissues. These disorders, known as autoimmune diseases, are chronic debilitating entities that likely affect more than 5% of the population and appear to be increasing in prevalence [1,2]. Despite intense investigation over decades, their etiology and pathogenic mechanisms remain poorly understood. Different investigative approaches suggest, however, that autoimmune diseases maybe the result of chronic immune activation induced by environmental exposures in genetically susceptible individuals [3,4].

Although much remains to be learned about the pathogenesis of autoimmune diseases, recent studies have identi-

fied several probable genetic risk factors for many human immune-mediated disorders [4-7,8••]. While little is known about environmental risk factors, possible triggers for selected autoimmune diseases include a number of infectious agents, drugs, foods, biologics, occupational, and other exposures [9–14]. The identification of genetic risk factors predicted a familial pattern for some autoimmune diseases. In fact, anecdotal reports, as well as casecontrol and other studies, have described a number of examples of families in which multiple members are affected by the same or different autoimmune diseases [15]. Here, we summarize these data, which primarily relate to multiple sclerosis (MS), insulin-dependent (type-I) diabetes mellitus (IDDM), systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE), and rheumatoid arthritis (RA) in the context of recent similar findings in the idiopathic inflammatory myopathies (IIM).

Evidence for a Role of Genetic Factors in the Pathogenesis of Autoimmune Disease

Evidence supporting a role for genetic factors in the etiology of autoimmune disease comes from case reports, family studies, animal model investigations, candidate gene case-control studies, and recently whole genome scans (Table 1). It is interesting that many of the syndromes that we recognize as autoimmune diseases today were initially described some time ago. Some of the earliest case reports of likely autoimmune diseases occurred in the 10th century [16]: evidence of MS dates to the late 14th century [17]. SLE was first clinically described as an entity by William Osler [18], but the medical use of the word "lupus" first appeared in the 10th century in St. Martin's biography [16]. Diabetes mellitus was recognized as a disorder some 2000 years ago by Hindu physicians Charaka and Sushruta, and it is they who may have been the first to recognize that genetic (familial) and environmental (dietary) factors played a role in the development of the disease characterized by "honey urine" [19,20].

Further confirmation that genetics play a role in autoimmune diseases came from case reports of familial autoimmunity [21–25]. Based on these findings, twin studies were initiated that showed concordance rates for the same autoimmune disease in monozygotic twins, who share 100% of genes, to be significantly higher than the concordance rates in dizygotic twins, who share on average 50% of genes (Table 1). Nonetheless, the fact that the con-

	Jules suggesting a genetic role	e in the pathogenesis	of autoinfinutie disease	33
Case repor	ts of two or more family member	ers with the same autoi	mmune disease	
Disease SLE MS IDDM	Family members affected Two pairs of brothers with SLE Mother and son Canadian Mennonite kindred study	Comments Supports hereditary factor in pathogenesis Probably the first reported case of familial MS Strong support for familial aggregation of IDDM		Reference Spector <i>et al.</i> [22] Eichhorst <i>et al.</i> [21] Jaworski <i>et al.</i> [25]
RA	Four generations of women in one family	First publication to define nature of RA	e the hereditary	Deighton <i>et al.</i> [23] Lawrence <i>et al.</i> [24]
Twin studie	es of concordance of the same a	utoimmune disease	_	
Disease	Study design	Concordance in MZ twins, %	Concordance in DZ twins, %	Reference
SLE	Volunteer twin registry	24	2	Deapen et al. [74]
MS	Twin survey	31	5	Sadovnick et al. [75]
	Volunteer twin registry	53 15	11	Kyvik et al. [76]
KA	Volunteer twin registry	10	4	Siiman et al. [77]
Family inve	stigations			
Disease	Study design	Comments		Reference
SLE	Lupus relatives versus control relatives	SLE seen in 3.9% in SLE r 0.3% in controls	elatives versus	Lawrence et al. [26]
MS	Data from 815 MS cases	MS prevalence 30–50 tim	nes higher in pedigrees of	Sadnovick et al. [28]
	and 11,345 relatives	MS subjects compared population	Sadnovick et al. [29]	
IDDM	Swedish childhood diabetes studv	Associated IDDM with fa	amilial autoimmunity	Dahlquist et al. [30]
RA	Studied 43 Caucasian RA pedigrees	RA proband relatives hav RA and other AD	e higher risk of	Lin <i>et al.</i> [27]
Candidate	gene studies			
Disease	Study design	Gene	Comments	Reference
SLE	Family studies	HLA DRB1*03	Pcorr. <10–5 compared	Heward et al. [78]
MC			With controls	Yao et al. [79]
IVIS	Case-control	HLA DKBT 02, DQA1*0102,DQB1*0 402	of genetic etiology	Heward et al. [78] Haines et al. [80•]
IDDM	Case-control	HLA	95% of patients have	Heward et al. [78]
		DRB1*03,*04,DQA1,	either DR3,4	Todd et al. [81]
I		DQB1		Tisch et al. [82]
RA	Sib pair study	HLA DRB1*04	LOD score of 2.6 (P=0.0003)	Heward et al. [78]
Whole gen	ome microsatellite scans			
Disease	Study design	Loci	IOD	Reference
SLE	Sib pair	6p11-p21;16q13;	3.9;3.6;2.8;2.6	Gaffney et al. [83]
		14q21-23;20p12	(respectively)	,
MS	Microsatellite scan	6p21;17q22-24	2.8 (λs=1.5); 2.7(λs=1.7)	Sawcer et al. [84] Kuokkanen et al. [85]
IDDM	Microsatellite scan	6p21(IDDM1)	λs=2.4	Cordell et al. [86]
RA	Genome scan	3a13	P=0.001 compared	Cornelis et al. [88]
101		5415	other RA patients	
AD—autoimm odds score; MS λ—relative risl	une disease; DZ—dizygotic; HLA—human j—multiple sclerosis; MZ—monozygotic; ! k in siblings+A26	Leukocyte antigen; IDDM—ins Pcorr—corrected P value; RA-	ulin-dependent (type 1) diabetes — rheumatoid arthritis; SLE—sys	; mellitus; lod—logarithm of stemic lupus erythematosus;

cordance rates in monozygotic twins were seldom over 40% suggested that these diseases are multifactorial in their etiology. Monozygotic twins are genetically identical, but differences in environmental exposures do modify the evolution of their immune systems resulting in variations in immunocyte distributions and receptor expression soon after birth.

Family and other studies indicate that certain genetic predispositions increase an individual's risk of developing some autoimmune diseases [26-30]. Candidate gene studies have pointed to the HLA region on human chromosome 6 as having the strongest associations with many immunemediated diseases [7,31-33]. Certain HLA genes, however, may actually serve a protective role against the development of some autoimmune diseases [34-36]. Although it is clear that a number of other genes, in addition to HLA genes, are likely necessary, but not sufficient, for the development of autoimmunity. A polygenic predisposition, involving perhaps a number of genes, with the additional requirement of exposure to one or more environmental triggers, is apparently responsible for the onset and perpetuation of these disorders [3,4,37,38••,39). Non-HLA loci implicated as risk factors for autoimmunity include regions encoding immunoglobulins, cytokines, and their receptors, autoantigens, and T-cell receptors [37,40-43].

Another approach that has been useful in defining the genes for single gene disorders involves analyses of linkage of microsatellite markers to clinical phenotypes [44]. Over 40 genetic loci that appear to predispose to autoimmunity have been identified in mice and humans using microsatellite markers that cover the entire genome, and a recent meta-analysis demonstrates clustering of these loci in 18–20 chromosomal regions, suggesting common genetic risk factors for many autoimmune diseases [38••,45•].

Evidence for a Role of Genetic Factors in the Pathogenesis of Idiopathic Inflammatory Myopathies

Since the first case of polymyositis was recognized and reported by Hans Unverricht over 100 years ago [46], much has been learned about the growing number of syndromes that comprise the IIM [47]. Although their rarity and heterogeneity have inhibited progress in understanding their pathogenesis, current evidence suggests that gene–environment interactions likely contribute to the development of these increasingly recognized diseases [4,9]. As is the case for other autoimmune conditions, the genetic basis for IIM is supported by reports of multiple members of the same family having myositis as well as cohort and case-control investigations of candidate genes.

At present, 33 families have been reported in which two or more members have developed myositis (Table 2). These families have included cases of polymyositis, dermatomyositis, and inclusion body myositis. The earliest known reported cases of familial IIM were published in the 1950s [48–50]. Further investigations of familial aggregations of IIM led to many more reports of myositis occurring in families (Table 2).

Of these investigations, the most comprehensive study of familial IIM has been a recent report of 36 affected and 28 unaffected members of 16 unrelated families in which at least two first-degree living relatives had probable or definite IIM [51•]. In this study, Rider et al. [15] described the clinical, serologic, and immunogenetic features of these families, and compared the familial IIM cases with a comparison group of 181 patients with sporadic IIM. From the 16 families studied, HLA DRB1*0301 was a weaker risk factor for familial IIM compared with sporadic IIM (etiologic fraction 0.35 versus 0.51 for sporadic IIM). Of interest, DQA1*0501, a risk factor for sporadic IIM [52•], was not a significant risk factor for myositis in the familial cases, despite the linkage disequilibrium that exists between HLA DRB1*0301 and DQA1*0501. The strongest genetic risk factor for familial IIM was homozygosity at the DQA1 locus (seen in 57% of cases, odds ratio of 4.2, corrected P=0.002), a risk factor not seen in sporadic IIM. The frequencies of a number of clinical features were similar in both groups, but the prevalence of myositis-specific autoantibodies was lower in the familial group as compared with the sporadic group.

Of interest, the same clinical form of myositis was usually found within a given multiplex family. For example, in family 5, all three affected members had polymyositis and in family 15, all six affected members had inclusion body myositis [51]. This study clearly demonstrated that familial weakness is not always due to inherited metabolic or dystrophic myopathies, but rather can be due to familial IIM. These data, taken together with other data, suggest that multiple genetic risk factors, and as yet unidentified environmental risk factors, are likely important in the etiology of the myositis syndromes.

To assess the role of possible environmental triggers for myositis within a multiplex IIM family, we compared the differences in time of onset to differences in age of onset of myositis in each of the 22 pedigrees for which such data were available (Fig. 1). This analysis showed that the differences between the time of myositis onset (median 1.1, range 0.04–11.7 years) was significantly less than the differences in age at myositis onset (median 7.5, range 0.04– 33 years, P=0.006 by the Mann-Whitney test). These data are consistent with the hypothesis that several genetically susceptible family members may be been exposed to the same environmental agent within a short time frame that may have triggered IIM in those individuals.

Candidate gene approaches have also been used to define genetic risk factors for IIM (Table 3). The HLA-A1;B8;Cw7;C4A*Q0;DRB1*0301;DQA1*0501 haplotype, which is a risk factor for many autoimmune diseases including SLE and myasthenia gravis [53], also is a risk factor for many forms of Caucasian, Hispanic, and African-American myositis [52,54–56]. Some racial groups in dif-

IIM types	Family members affected	Comments	Reference
JDM-JDM	"Mirror-image twins"	The onset of the disease was	Woodwedge et al. [48]
JDM-JDM	Two siblings	The onset of the disease was about	Winkler et al. [49]
DM-DM	Two adult siblings	The onset of the disease was	Christianson et al. [50]
IDM-IDM	Two cousins	The onset of the disease was 2 years apart	Lambie et al. [89]
PM-JDM	Father and daughter	The onset of the disease was 6 years apart	Lewkonia et al. [90]
NDI-NDI	Identical twins	Onset within 2 weeks of each other after URIs	Harati <i>et al</i> . [91]
ND-NDI-MDI-MDI	First cousins and uncle	Patients living in different towns; genetic factors may be more important	Hennekam et al. [92]
IBM-IBM	Two siblings	Identified in one Iranian-Kurdish Jewish family	Massa et al. [93]
IBM-IBM	Two adult sisters	Identified in another Iranian-Kurdish Jewish family	Massa et al. [93]
PM-PM-PM	Four family members	Concurrent onset, possible association with local rodents	Garcia-de la Torre et al. [94]
IBM-IBM-IBM-IBM-IBM	Kindred study	First reported case of possible autosomal dominant inheritance	Neville et al. [95]
IBM-IBM IBM-IBM	Mother, daughter, and son Two adult sisters	First reported case in Spain Evidence of hereditary IBM and hereditary glucocorticoid insensitivity	Andreu <i>et al.</i> [96] Naumann <i>et al.</i> [97]
IBM-IBM	Two adult brothers	Parents were unaffected and offspring were spared	Sivakumar et al. [98]
IBM-IBM	Two adult brothers	Only one generation was affected, parents and offspring spared	Sivakumar et al. [98]
IBM-IBM-IBM	Three siblings	Two African-American brothers and their sister were affected	Sivakumar et al. [98]
DM-DM	Case-report	Mother and daughter with DM and another daughter with DM rash only	Andrews et al. [99]
IBM-IBM JDM-JDM	Identical twin brothers Identical twin sisters	Onset was 2 years apart Onset was within 3 months, identical pattern of calcification in both	Amato <i>et al.</i> [100] Rider <i>et al.</i> [51•]
JDM-JDM	Identical twin sisters	Onset was within 2 months, very similar disease course	Rider et al. [51•]
JDM-JDM	Identical twin sisters	Onset was within 12 months	Rider et al. [51•]
DM-JDM	Two sisters	Onset was within 11.7 years	Rider et al. [51•]
DM-DM	Mother and daughter	Onset was within 1 year	Rider et al. [51•]
DM-DM	Father and son	Onset was within 6.7 years	Rider et al. [51•]
PM-PM	Brother and sister	Onset was within 4 months, two of seven sibs (all had DQA1*0501)	Rider et al. [51•]
PM-PM	Brother and sister	Onset was within 4.5 years	Rider et al. [51•]
PM-PM-PM	Two sisters and one brother	Onset was within 8.7 years	Rider et al. [51•]
PM-PM	Parent and child	Onset was within 4 months	Rider et al. [51•]
PM-PM	Father and daughter	Onset was within 2.3 years	Rider et al. [51•]
PM-PM	Two female cousins	Onset was within 1.25 years	Rider et al. [51•]
IBM-IBM-PM?-IBM	One parent and two children	Patient with PM? may have had undiagnosed IBM	Rider et al. [51•]
IBM-IBM	Identical twin brothers	Involved the quadriceps and volar forearm muscles	Amato et al. [100]
DM-DM	Grandmother and granddaughter		Cassidy et al. [101]

Table 2. Chronology of reported multiplex families that have two or more members with idiopathic inflammatory myopathy (IIM).

AD—autoimmune disease; DM—dermatomyositis; IBM—inclusion body myositis; IIM—idiopathic inflammatory myopathies; JDM—juvenile dermatomyositis; JIIM—juvenile IIM; JRA— juvenile rheumatoid arthritis; PM—polymyositis; RA—rheumatoid arthritis; URI—upper respiratory infections



Figure 1. Comparison of the differences in the time of onset (left) with the age of onset (right) of family members with IIM. Families 18-23 each contain monozygotic twins affected with IIM, families 11-16 have non-twin siblings affected with IIM, families 5-9 have parents and offspring affected with IIM, and families 1–3 have more distant relatives affected with IIM. The differences in the time of onset of myositis (median indicated by the dotted line is 1.1, range 0.04-11.7 years) were significantly less (P=0.006 by the Mann-Whitney test) than the differences in age at myositis onset (median indicated by the dotted line is 7.5, range 0.04-33 years) in the pedigrees. These data are consistent with the hypothesis that genetically susceptible family members shared common environmental exposures within a short timeframe that may have triggered IIM in that family.

ferent parts of the world, however, appear to have different genetic risk factors for myositis. Although the major known risk factors for US Caucasian patients are HLA alleles on chromosome 6 sharing a common DRB1 first hypervariable region motif [52•], Korean patients with myositis have no HLA risk factors, but a unique protective factor, DRB1*14 in patients without myositis-specific autoantibodies [36]. Although no immunoglobulin Gm phenotypes, encoded on chromosome 14, are risk factors in either population, the Gm 21 allotype is a protective factor only for Koreans, and not Caucasians with myositis [36]. Also, although the major clinical groups of the IIM (ie, PM, DM, and IBM) share genetic risk factors, each serologic group has a distinct risk factor [54]. Certain environmental exposure groups also appear to differ in genetic risk factors. In Caucasians, HLA DR4 appears to be over represented in those who develop myositis after D-penicillamine [57–60], whereas DQA1*0102 is significantly more frequent in women who develop myositis after silicone implants compared with those with idiopathic myositis [61].

Different Autoimmune Diseases Can Occur Within the Same Family

Clinical experience, and the finding of common genetic risk factors for several autoimmune conditions [38], implied that many autoimmune disorders might be increased in family members of individuals with different autoimmune diseases. To test this hypothesis, several studies have assessed if autoimmune diseases other than those in the proband were present in blood relatives in frequencies higher than expected in the general population. Investigations of pedigrees of probands with SLE, MS, IDDM, and RA all have supported the hypothesis that multiple autoimmune diseases appear in certain families [27,62–64].

Evidence has also been obtained that suggests that this same phenomenon is true for the IIM. An evaluation of

histories from juvenile IIM patients suggested that there is a high frequency of autoimmune diseases in these families, with 28 of the 75 first-degree relatives exhibiting one or more autoimmune diseases [65]. The diseases, which were described in 37% of the first-degree relatives, were myositis, IDDM, thyroid disease, SLE, scleroderma, and psoriasis. Another study by Pachman et al. [66•] assessed histories of autoimmune disease in families of 80 JDM patients, families of 40 juvenile rheumatoid arthritis (JRA) subjects, and families of 23 normal healthy geographically matched controls. This study suggested that JRA patients had significantly more relatives with a history of RA and pernicious anemia than controls, but a similar increase was not seen in the JDM families. A different approach was taken in another study, which compared the frequency of familial autoimmunity in first-degree relatives of familial IIM patients with that in first-degree relatives of sporadic IIM patients, and showed that both had a high prevalence of autoimmune diseases [51•]. Of interest, however, pedigrees of sporadic IIM probands had a higher frequency of autoimmunity compared with those of familial IIM probands (61% versus 37% respectively, P=0.005). Unfortunately, all these studies had limitations in that the diagnosis of autoimmunity in family members was based upon a history from the affected proband rather than a direct evaluation of all the family members themselves.

To address this question directly, and attempt to minimize the limitations of many prior family studies, Ginn *et al.* [67••] performed a prospective case-control study that evaluated all family members directly. The study group consisted of 21 consecutive IIM patients who presented to the NIH Clinical Center and fulfilled criteria for either probable or definite disease [68,69], and their 151 first-degree relatives. The control group consisted of age-, sex-, and racematched subjects, who were referred to the NIH but did not exhibit any evidence of autoimmunity, and their 143 firstdegree relatives. This study found a significantly higher

IIM type (race)	HLA associations	Comments	Reference
All IIM (C)	A1, B8, DR3, C4A QO, DQA1*0501, (DQ2)	Caucasian haplotype risk factor for many autoimmune diseases	Arnett et al. [52•] Pachman <i>et al</i> . [102] Hirsch <i>et al</i> . [103] Moulds <i>et al</i> . [104]
All IIM (AA)	B7, C4A, QO	B7 seen in 67% of African Americans compared with 26% in controls	Hirsch <i>et al.</i> [103] Moulds <i>et al.</i> [104]
All IIM (J)	B7	Seen in 20.2% of Japanese	Furuya <i>et al.</i> [105]
Familial IIM	DQA1 homozygosity	Seen in 57% of 36 patients vs. 24% of 181 controls	Rider et al. [51•]
Clinical groups PM (C)	A1, B8, DR3, DQA1*0501 (DQ2)	A Caucasian haplotype	Pachman <i>et al.</i> [102] Behan <i>et al.</i> [106] Mierau <i>et al.</i> [107]
PM (AA)	B7, DRw6	6/9; 7/9 respectively in African Americans	Hirsch et al. [103]
PM (J)	CW3	Seen more in PM than in DM in the Japanese	Furuya <i>et al</i> . [105]
DM (C)	DR3	Seen in 47% of 55 patients in adult Caucasians	Koffman et al. [108]
DM (J) CTM (C)	DRB1*08 DR3	Increased in Japanese PM and DM Seen in 32% of 24 patients in adult Caucasians	Furuya <i>et al.</i> [105] Love <i>et al.</i> [108]
IBM	DRB1*03, DRB3, DQB2	This haplotype was present 77% of sporadic IBM patients	Koffman et al. [109]
JDM	B8, DQA1*0501	B8 is a risk factor in Caucasian, 0501 is an inter-racial risk factor	Pachman <i>et al.</i> [110] Friedman <i>et al.</i> [111] Reed <i>et al.</i> [112] Reed <i>et al.</i> [113]
JDM	DQA1 0501	Shown to be a risk factor by transmission disequilibrium	Reed et al. [113]
Serologic groups without MSA	DR3	Seen in 37% of 90 Caucasian patients	Love et al. [108]
Without MSA Anti-synthetase	DR*14 DR3, DRw6, DRw52, DQA1*0501	A protective factor in Koreans Risk factors for anti-Jo-1 may differ from those for other synthetases	Rider <i>et al.</i> [36] Arnett <i>et al.</i> [52••] Love <i>et al.</i> [108] Arnett <i>et al.</i> [114] Goldstein <i>et al.</i> [115]
Anti-SRP	DR5, DRw52	DR5 seen in 57% of 7 patients, DRw52 in 100% of 7 patients	Love et al. [108]
Anti-Mi-2	DR7, DQA1*0201, DRw53	31% homozygosity at DR7 versus 0% in Mi-2 negative patients	Mierau <i>et al</i> . [107] Love <i>et al</i> .[108]
Anti-MAS	DR4, DQA1*01,*03, DRw53	Two of two patients had these alleles	Love <i>et al.</i> [108]
Anti-PM/Scl	DR3, DQA1*0501	Frequent serologic group in Poland	Hausmanowa et al. [54]
Anti-Ku	DR3, DQA1*0501	In Polish patients with overlap syndromes	Hausmanowa et al. [54]
Environmental groups D-penicillamine	DR2	Two Caucasian DM patients reported receiving drug for RA	Halla et al. [58]
D-penicillamine D-penicillamine Silicone breast implants	B18. B35. DR4 DR2, DQw1 DQA1*0102	Eight Australian cases with RA in Indian patients In 9/12 (75%) patients vs.19.7% of normals and 16.3% IIM, P<.0001	Carroll <i>et al.</i> [59] Taneja <i>et al.</i> [60] Love <i>et al.</i> [61]

Table 3. Human leukocyte antigen (HLA) associations in the idiopathic inflammatory myopathies (IIM)

AA—African American; AD—autoimmune disease; C—Caucasian; DM—dermatomyositis; IBM—inclusion body myositis; IIM—idiopathic inflammatory myopathies; J—Japanese; JDM—juvenile dermatomyositis; JRA—juvenile rheumatoid arthritis; PM—polymyositis; RA—rheumatoid arthritis.

	IIM proband pedigrees		Control proband pedigrees	
Age, y	Male	Female	Male	Female
5-19	0/8	0/4	0/8	0/0
20-39	2/28	6/26	0/19	1/22
40-59	2/20	7/17	1/15	1/23
>60	3/23	13/25	1/27	3/29
Fotals	7/79	26/72	2/69	5/74
	Overall to	tal = 33/151 [†]	Overall total = 7/143 [†]	

Table 4. Age and gender distributions of family members with autoimmune disease / total number of first-degree relatives, in a study of families of IIM and control probands*

* Subjects less than 5 years of age were excluded from the study. At the beginning of the study, a consensus list of disorders considered to be autoimmune diseases for evaluation of the subjects in this study included: autoimmune thyroid disease, whether Hashimoto's thyroiditis or Grave's disease; Coomb's positive hemolytic anemia, and pernicious anemia; eosinophilic fasciitis; Goodpasture's syndrome, proliferative or membranous nephritis; IDDM not associated with obesity or pregnancy; idiopathic inflammatory myopathies; idiopathic myocarditis; idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis; idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura; idiopathic uveitis; inflammatory bowel disease, Crohn's disease or ulcerative colitis; multiple sclerosis; myasthenia gravis; pemphigus; primary biliary cirrhosis or chronic active hepatitis; psoriasis; RA or JRA; sarcoidosis; systemic sclerosis; Sjögren's syndrome; SLE; undifferentiated or mixed connective tissue disease; vasculitides and vitiligo.

[†]Odds ratio without regression adjustment 5.5, 95% CI, 2.3–12.9, P<0.001

IIM-idiopathic inflammatory myopathies.

(Adapted from Ginn et al. [67••].)

prevalence of autoimmune diseases in the IIM proband pedigrees compared with pedigrees of the controls (Table 4). As expected, more women than men were affected, and the frequency of autoimmune disease increased with age. Another finding from this study, which paralleled prior investigations of this sort [27,51•], was that the types of autoimmune diseases seen in the IIM pedigrees were present in frequencies similar to those seen in the general population. Genetic modeling studies showed that a non-Mendelian polygenic inheritance pattern for autoimmune disease was most consistent with these data. Overall, this study and others like it support the concept that one could begin with a cohort of subjects with any given autoimmune disease and likely find an increased number of other autoimmune diseases in pedigrees of that cohort of patients in a prevalence distribution that parallels the prevalence of autoimmune diseases in the general population.

Conclusions

The multifactorial nature of autoimmune diseases has inhibited the understanding of the mechanisms that initiate and sustain them. Autoimmune syndromes are believed to arise, however, from a complex and ill understood interplay of predisposing genetic and environmental risk factors. The strongest genetic risk factors for many autoimmune diseases are those associated with the HLA loci on human chromosome 6. In the case of the IIM, the HLA A1;B8;Cw7;C4A*Q0;DRB1*0301;DQA1*0501 haplotype has been most strongly linked to myositis; however, different serologic, racial, and environmental exposure subgroups of IIM patients may have different genetic risk factors. Many non-HLA genes have also been shown to contribute to autoimmunity. Family and molecular genetic studies support the notion that these are polygenic diseases with incomplete penetrance requiring environmental triggering.

In light of present evidence, we propose a concept, consistent with all available data for the development of autoimmune diseases, that we refer to as the elemental disorder hypothesis (Fig. 2). In this hypothesis, each rheumatic disease, as defined by current clinico-pathologic criteria, is actually a collection of many elemental disorders. An elemental disorder would be defined as the minimal necessary and sufficient environmental exposures and genes that need to be present in the same individual to induce the pathology that results in a given sign-symptom complex. The environmental risk factors in this hypothetical construct could be single exposures or multiple sequential or concomitant exposures. The genetic risk factors for autoimmunity would consist of two forms: those that are common to many autoimmune diseases and those that are specific for a given elemental disorder.

The elemental disorder hypothesis is consistent with the finding that within a given autoimmune disease, different subgroups of patients can be defined through cluster analyses that share common clinical features, serologies, genetics, and pathogenic processes [55,70–72]. Furthermore, the finding that genetic risk factors for environmentally-associated rheumatic diseases often differ from risk factors for similar idiopathic rheumatic diseases supports the elemental disorder hypothesis [4]. It is also consistent with the observation that when the same autoimmune disease occurs within a family, affected members are likely to have a similar form of the disease [28,29,51•,73], because family members would be more likely to share common environmental and genetic risk factors. Additionally, this hypothesis could explain how the same pattern of autoimmune diseases in



Figure 2. Possible mechanisms by which autoimmune diseases and familial autoimmunity may arise-the elemental disorder hypothesis. Each autoimmune disease, as currently classified, is in this view a heterogeneous collection of clinical signs, symptoms and laboratory findings composed of many elemental disorders. Elemental disorders are defined by the minimal necessary and sufficient environmental exposures and genes that need to be present in individuals to induce a common pathology that results in a given sign-symptom complex. Because family members are more likely to share both the genetic (the common autoimmunity predisposing and elemental disorder specific genes) and environmental risk factors that give rise to elemental disorders, the same elemental disorder would be expected to been seen more often in family members with the same disease.

pedigrees would occur, regardless of which autoimmune disease was studied in the proband, because the frequency of each elemental disorder would depend on the prevalence of its genetic and environmental risk factors in a given population. The probability that multiple elemental disorders likely comprise each rheumatic disease, as defined today, is a major potential confounder of epidemiologic, genetic, and therapeutic studies. Thus, the definition of these elemental disorders could have a major impact on the diagnosis, treatment, and possible prevention of many autoimmune diseases. A major challenge today is to develop new approaches and paradigms to overcome the many logistic and other barriers to understanding the complex pathogeneses of the autoimmune diseases.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank Drs. Steven Bauer, Lourdes Villalba, Dorothy Scott, Lisa Rider, and Deepti Dev for helpful discussions regarding the manuscript.

The opinions expressed in this paper are those of the authors and not necessarily those of the Center for Biologics Evaluation and Research or the US Food and Drug Administration.

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