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Mini Review

Systemic Lupus Erythematosus Disease: An Overview of the Clinical Approach to Pathogenesis, Diagnosis, and Treatment

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Abstract

The systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE), commonly known as Lupus, is a rare and complex multisystem autoimmune disease where one's immune system is overactive, and the body attacks its organ systems. SLE is a historically old disease described already in antiquity; it is an example of a chronic disease with physical, psychological, financial, and social implications for individuals diagnosed. It has inspired medical and basic biological scientists that focus on molecular biology, basic immunology, immunopathology, clinical science, genetics, and epidemiology. The syndrome is real in its existence-although hidden behind obstacles, cumbersome for patients and clinicians, and rebellious for scientists. There is currently no cure for SLE. The goal of treatment is to ease symptoms. This article will review information on the general approach to SLE therapy, focusing on currently approved therapies and novel approaches that might be used in the future.

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INTRODUCTION

Systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE or lupus) is one of the most common systemic autoimmune connective tissue diseases. It is characterized by a highly variable clinical presentation that may range from mild skin involvement to life-threatening multi-organ failure^{1,2}. Some authorities from the government of a country such as The Japanese Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare even designated SLE as an intractable disease because there is no established way to cure the existing disease, but with appropriate management³.

Systemic lupus erythematosus is, without a doubt, a debilitating and life-altering illness. Systemic lupus

erythematosus may cause severe symptoms such as discomfort, excessive weakness, hair loss, cognitive problems, and physical impairments; many people with SLE develop cardiovascular disease, strokes, disfiguring rashes, and sore joints; and some people with SLE have no apparent symptoms⁴. The etiology of SLE has not yet been elucidated in detail, although genetic factors and environmental factors are thought to play a role in its development⁵. The discrepancies of rates (i.e., higher rates in certain ethnic groups) are due to genetic factors and environmental factors such as smoking and dietary habits⁶.

The history of SLE goes back even further than the 4th-century. Hippocrates recorded the documented case of lupus in 400 BC7. The four main types of lupus are neonatal and pediatric lupus erythematosus (NLE); cutaneous or discoid lupus erythematosus (CLE); druginduced lupus erythematosus (DILE); and SLE, as presented in **Table I**. Systemic lupus erythematosus can be divided into three periods: the classical period, the neoclassical period, and the modern period. Each period is marked with important discoveries that have allowed a better understanding of this disease⁸. This mini-review will discuss several things related to SLE and its clinical approach, including epidemiology, pathogenesis, diagnosis, and treatment, based on a review of the latest related studies.

EPIDEMIOLOGY

The SLE is seen worldwide and occurs in all racial or ethnic groups, although regional variations in frequency and severity have been reported. An estimated 5 million people worldwide have some form of lupus disease. The 70% of lupus cases diagnosed are SLE, 20% of people with lupus will have a parent or sibling who already has lupus or may develop lupus, and about 5% of the children born to individuals with lupus will develop the

illness^{10,11}. Studies have shown that the incidence rate of SLE around the world is about 1 to 10 per 100000 people/years¹², while the prevalence rates range 3.2 cases per 100000 persons, with the highest prevalence reported in India, and it appears to be increasing as the disease is recognized more readily and survival increases^{13,14}. In the US, people of African, Hispanic, or Asian ancestry as compared to those of other racial or ethnic groups, tend to have an increased prevalence of SLE and greater involvement of vital organs^{15,17}.

Table I. The four categories of lupus and their descriptions^{18,19}

| descriptions 16,19 | | | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| Lupus types | Descriptions | | | | | |
| Neonatal and | Neonatal lupus erythematosus is a rare condition | | | | | |
| pediatric | that affects infants of women who have lupus and | | | | | |
| lupus | is caused by antibodies (Abs) from the mother | | | | | |
| erythematosus | acting upon the infant in the uterus. At birth, the | | | | | |
| (NLE) | infant may have a skin rash, liver problems, or low | | | | | |
| | blood cell counts, but these symptoms disappear | | | | | |
| | completely after several months with no lasting effects ^{20,21} . | | | | | |
| Cutaneous or | This form of lupus is limited to the skin. Although | | | | | |
| discoid lupus | CLE can cause many types of rashes and lesions | | | | | |
| erythematosus | (sores), the most common discoid rash is raised, | | | | | |
| (CLE) | scaly, and red, but not itchy. Areas of rash appear | | | | | |
| | like disks or circles. Another typical e.g., of CLE is | | | | | |
| | a rash over the cheeks and across the bridge of the | | | | | |
| | nose. Hair loss and changes in the pigment, or | | | | | |
| | color, of the skin are also symptoms of CLE ²² . | | | | | |
| Drug-induced | The symptoms of DILE are similar to those of SLE, | | | | | |
| lupus | but it rarely affects major organs. DILE is a lupus- | | | | | |
| erythematosus | s like disease caused by certain prescription drugs | | | | | |
| (DILE) | like Hydralazine, Procainamide, Isoniazid, and | | | | | |
| | others ²³ . | | | | | |
| Systemic | Systemic lupus erythematosus is the most | | | | | |
| lupus | common form of lupus-it can be mild or severe — | | | | | |
| erythematosus | some of the more severe complications involving | | | | | |
| (SLE) | major organ systems. Inflammation of the kidneys | | | | | |
| | can affect the body's ability to filter waste from the | | | | | |
| blood. Inflammation of the nervous system as | | | | | | |
| | the brain's blood vessels can cause high fevers, | | | | | |
| | seizures, behavioral changes, confusion, | | | | | |
| | headaches, and strokes ²⁴ . | | | | | |

PATHOGENESIS

The etiology of SLE is unknown to date. Many factors contribute to SLE development, including genetic, environmental, hormonal, and immunoregulatory factors²⁵⁻²⁷, as described in **Figure 1**. Certain risk factors have been identified and shown to contribute to disease susceptibility or activate the immune system causing an inflammatory response, ultimately leading to the

development of the disease²⁸. Genetic factors influence predisposition to SLE. The female predominance in SLE may be explained, in part, by the contribution of certain hormones. Environmental factors, such as smoking, exposure to ultraviolet light, viral infections, and specific medications (e.g., sulfonamide antibiotics) are known to trigger SLE²⁹. The pathogenesis of SLE is complex, with contributions from many components of the immune system. With the underlying genetic predisposition and in response to various triggers, the balance of the immune system shifts towards reacting against it rather than self-tolerance³⁰. The T and B cells become activated, leading to antibody production and eventual immune complex formation. These complexes circulate and deposit in critical tissues causing organ injury³¹.

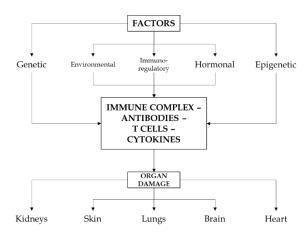


Figure 1. Factors involved in the pathogenesis of SLE^{32}

DIAGNOSIS

According to the American College of Rheumatology, the diagnosis of SLE is based on the clinical and laboratory criteria³³, as summarized in **Table II**. The diagnosis of SLE requires four or more of the following eleven criteria during the observation³⁴. Since the early signs and symptoms of SLE are non-specific and can mimic those of other diseases, for example, rheumatoid arthritis, glomerulonephritis, anemia, or dermatitis, it can be challenging to diagnose. The accuracy of diagnosis

and early recognition of SLE is essential^{35,36}. An algorithm for the diagnosis of the SLE shows in **Figure 2**.

Table II. Diagnosis of SLE based on clinical and laboratory criteria

| criteria | • |
|---------------------------|---|
| Problems | Descriptions |
| Malar rash | Fixed erythema, flat or raised, over the malar eminences, tending to spare the nasolabial folds. |
| Discoid rash | Erythematous, raised patches with adherent keratotic scaling and follicular plugging; possibly atrophic scarring in older lesions. |
| Photosensitivity | Skin rash as a result of unusual reaction to sunlight, as determined by patient history or physician observation. |
| Oral ulcers | Oral or nasopharyngeal ulceration, usually painless, observed by the physician |
| Arthritis | Non-erosive arthritis involving two or more peripheral joints, characterized by swelling, tenderness, or effusion. |
| Serositis | Pleuritis, by the convincing history of pleuritic pain, rub heard by a physician, or evidence of pleural effusion; or pericarditis documented by electrocardiography, rub heard by a physician, or evidence of pericardial effusion. |
| Renal disorder | Persistent proteinuria, 0.5 g/day or >3+ if quantitation is not performed; or cellular casts (maybe red blood cell, |
| Naurologia | hemoglobin, granular, tubular, or mixed cellular casts). Seizures or psychosis occur in the |
| Neurologic disorder | absence of offending drugs or known metabolic derangement (e.g., uremia, ketoacidosis, electrolyte imbalance). |
| Hematologic disorder | Hemolytic anemia with reticulocytosis; or leukopenia, $4.0 \times 109/L$ on two or more occasions; or lymphopenia, $1.5 \times 109/L$ on two or more occasions; or thrombocytopenia, $100 \times 109/L$ in the absence of offending drugs. |
| Immunologic disorder | Antibody to a double-stranded deoxyribonucleic acid antigen (antidsDNA) in abnormal titer; or presence of antibody to Smith nuclear antigen (anti-Sm); or positive finding of antiphospholipid Abs based on an abnormal serum level of Immunoglobulin (Ig) G or Ig M anticardiolipin Abs, a positive test result for lupus anticoagulant using a standard method, or a false positive serologic test for syphilis that is known to be positive for at least six months and is confirmed by negative Treponema pallidum immobilization or fluorescent treponemal antibody absorption test. |
| Antinuclear antibodies | An abnormal antinuclear antibodies (ANA) titer by immunofluorescence or an equivalent assay at any time and in the absence of drugs known to be associated with DILE. |

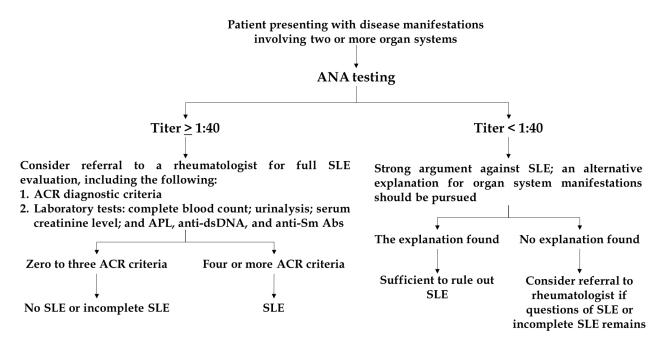


Figure 2. Factors involved in the pathogenesis of SLE³⁷

TREATMENT

There is no cure for SLE at present, but the condition is most often very treatable and usually responds well to some different types of drugs-especially when treatment is started in the early stages of the disease³⁸. Most of the drugs described in Table III were initially developed for other diseases but were later found to be helpful in SLE39. There are many levels of severity and complications of SLE that require management. Treatment is dependent on presentation, and options include antimalarials, glucocorticoids, immunosuppressants, and biologics. NSAIDs may also be used to treat inflammation and pain enlisted40.

In addition to these therapies, the current development of treatments for SLE has primarily led to the development of monoclonal antibodies⁴¹, as presented in Table IV. Two newer drugs (rituximab and belimumab) are now sometimes used for the treatment of severe SLE42. Also, several small-molecule inhibitors have shown promising progress in the treatment of SLE. Research is continuing to find out which patients respond best to these drugs43-**45**.

| Table III. Common medications to control SLE | | | |
|--|--|--|--|
| Agents | Descriptions | | |
| NSAIDs | Over-the-counter NSAIDs, such as naproxen sodium and ibuprofen may be used to treat pain, swelling, and fever associated with SLE. Stronger NSAIDs are available by prescription. | | |
| Anti- | Drugs commonly used to treat malaria, such | | |
| malarial | as hydroxychloroquine, affect the immune system, and decrease the risk of SLE flares. | | |
| Cortico- | Prednisone and other types of | | |
| steroids | corticosteroids can counter the inflammation of SLE. High doses of steroids such as methylprednisolone often used to control serious disease that involves the kidneys and brain. | | |
| Immuno- | Drugs that suppress the immune system | | |
| suppressants | may be helpful in serious cases of SLE e.g. azathioprine and methotrexate. | | |
| Biologics | Biological agents used in the treatment of SLE include rituximab and belimumab, both monoclonal antibodies. Rituximab targets B cells and is used to treat renal and CNS presentations of SLE. This agent is recognized as an II- or III-line agent for active disease. Belimumab targets the B cellactivating factor B-lymphocyte stimulator. Belimumab is approved for use in active disease in conjunction with standard therapies including glucocorticoids, antimalarials, NSAIDs, mycophenolate mofetil, and azathioprine. Other biologics, such as tumor necrosis factor inhibitors, abatacept, and tocilizumab, are also considered. | | |
| Other agents | Besides the agents listed above, there are other agents used off-label to treat SLE. These include disease-modifying antirheumatic drugs such as methotrexate, leflunomide, and calcineurin inhibitors (tacrolimus and cyclosporine). | | |

Table IV. Summary of new and emerging therapies or clinical trials in the treatment of SLE

| | Cillical trials in | the treatment of SLE |
|-------------------|--------------------|---|
| Target B cells | Treatment | Status |
| BAFF/ | Belimumab | Approved for non-renal SLE; |
| APRIL | Deminana | Ongoing phase-IV for efficacy, |
| AIKIL | | safety, and tolerability; Ongoing |
| | | phase-III in combination with |
| | | Rituximab. |
| | Tabalumab | Phase-III without significant effect |
| | Tabaranab | (terminated). |
| | Blisibimod | Phase-III did not meet the SRI-6 |
| | | primary endpoint. |
| | Atacicept | APRIL-SLE study terminated due |
| | • | to increased infection rate; |
| | | ADDRESS-II study has an |
| | | acceptable safety profile. |
| CD20 | Rituximab | Phase-III failed (nephritis and non- |
| | | nephritis). |
| | Ocrelizumab | Phase-III trial completed. |
| CD22 | Epratuzumab | Phase-III failed. |
| CD19 | XmAb5871 | Phase-II trial. |
| Proteasome | Bortezomib | Phase-II trial. |
| inhibitors | u olau -1: | |
| Intracellula: | | Ongoing phase II total |
| Btk | M2951 | Ongoing phase-II trial. |
| TOP | Fenebrutinib | Ongoing phase-II trial. |
| mTOR | N- | A small study showed a decrease in SLEDAI, with no further |
| | acetylcysteine | development. |
| | Rapamycin | An open-label study showed an |
| | ruspuiri, ciri | effect on BILAG. The larger study |
| | | was planned. |
| JAK/STAT | GSK2586184 | Ineffective interferon signature in |
| | | phase-II, safety data do not |
| | | support further study. |
| JAK 2 | Baricitinib | Phase-II positive data; Phase-III |
| | | trial ongoing. |
| JAK3 | Tofacitinib | Ongoing Phase-I/II trial. |
| ROCK | Fasudil | Effective in preclinical studies in a |
| | | patient with Raynaud's |
| | | phenomenon, Phase-III completed with un-interpretable data. |
| Co-stimulat | tion | with un-interpretable data. |
| | | oOngoing phase-II trial. |
| 22 23,02 10 | BI 655064 | Ongoing phase-II trial. |
| CD28: B7 | Abatacept | Ineffective in Phase-III in nephritis |
| • | 1 | and general SLE. |
| | Lulizumab | Phase-II trial terminated-failed to |
| | | meet protocol objectives. |
| Cytokines | | |
| IFN-a | Sifalimumab | The limited effect in phase-II and |
| | | III. No further development. |
| | Rontalizumab | 0 |
| | A 'C 1 1 | results. |
| | Anifrolumab | Phase-II positive data; 2 Phase-III |
| | | trials ongoing (one reported |
| | IACS 000 | negative). |
| | IAGS-009 | Completed phase-I, no data released. |
| | JNJ-55920839 | In recruiting phase. |
| | IFNa-k | Successful phase-I; ongoing phase- |
| | 11 1 VU-K | II trial. |
| Interleukin | Aldesleukin | Ongoing open-label phase-II trial. |
| (IL)-2 | AMG 592 | Ongoing phase-Ib and IIa trial. |
| ` ' | ILT-101 | Ongoing phase-II trial. |
| IL-12/23 | Ustekinumab | Met primary end-point in a phase- |
| | | II trial; ongoing phase-III trial. |
| | | |

| PF-04236921 | Failed phase-II trial; sa | fety |
|--------------|--|--|
| | compromised. | |
| Sirukumab | Failed phase-II trial. | |
| MRA003US | Ongoing phase-II trial. | |
| Vobarilizuma | bOngoing phase-I trial. | |
| BT063 | Ongoing phase-II trial. | |
| | | |
| Lupuzor | Phase-III trial failed to meet primary endpoint. | the |
| | Sirukumab MRA003US Vobarilizuma BT063 | compromised. Sirukumab Failed phase-II trial. MRA003US Ongoing phase-II trial. VobarilizumabOngoing phase-I trial. BT063 Ongoing phase-II trial. Lupuzor Phase-III trial failed to meet |

CONCLUSION

Systemic lupus erythematosus is a chronic autoimmune inflammatory disorder that causes significant morbidity and mortality. The disease is a scientifically challenging, problematic, inspiring, and seminal, clinical syndrome. Systemic lupus erythematosus treatment has made significant progress over the past decade; however, the management of SLE is complex, with a multitude of complications and various treatment options. Patients require a comprehensive plan for care and management of complications from both the disease and therapy. Over the past few years, scientific studies and ongoing clinical trials have shifted the paradigm with rapid advances in developing biologics and small molecules.

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AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTION

All authors made substantial contributions to the conception and writing of this manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

DATA AVAILABILITY

None.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

There are no conflicts of interest.

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