

Tuberculosis: an Infection-Initiated Autoimmune Disease?

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23 **Abstract**

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25 Tuberculosis is caused by *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* and provided original proof that an infectious
26 agent can cause human disease. However, key steps in tuberculosis pathogenesis remain poorly
27 understood. We propose that autoimmunity is a critical and overlooked process driving pathology in
28 tuberculosis, and present clinical and experimental observations supporting this hypothesis.

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32 Tuberculosis (TB) is the leading cause of death by an infectious disease. Robert Koch identified the
33 causative organism, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Mtb), providing “Koch’s postulates” to prove that a
34 disease is caused by an infectious agent. Furthermore, many lines of evidence in humans and mice
35 demonstrate that the immune system is essential in protecting the host against Mtb. Therefore, it
36 seems counter-intuitive to suggest that TB has an autoimmune component. However, diverse
37 evidence suggests that autoimmunity is a critical process exacerbating pathology in TB, leading to
38 cavitation and transmission.

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41 **The Host Immune Response Is Essential to TB Transmission**

42 Mtb is transmitted by patients with pulmonary TB. The host immune response is central to containing
43 Mtb, as patients with HIV-induced immunocompromise have a greatly increased TB risk, but
44 conversely also drives the underlying lung pathology. Patients with advanced HIV infection rarely
45 develop cavitation, whereas during immune system reconstitution tissue damage often occurs.
46 Pulmonary disease most frequently occurs in young adults with the strongest immunological response
47 [1]. Similarly, in rabbit models, cavitation is accelerated by pre-sensitisation with purified protein
48 derivative (PPD) to drive a strong delayed-type hypersensitivity reaction, but inhibited by
49 immunosuppression. Immunity is thought to be directed against Mtb antigens, with progressive
50 accumulation of total mycobacterial antigenic load over time precipitating inflammation and lung
51 tissue destruction [2]. However, a striking feature of TB granulomas is the paucity of mycobacteria,
52 while extensive pathology develops. It remains unclear how so few mycobacteria drive such a florid
53 inflammatory immune response.

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55 **Diverse Autoimmune Phenomena Occur in Human TB**

56 Physicians treating TB patients observe numerous clinical events associated with autoimmune
57 diseases that are unexplained by current disease paradigms. For example, autoantibodies associated

58 with autoimmune diseases such as Wegener's granulomatosis and systemic lupus erythematosus are
59 detected in 40% of TB patients [3]. Poncet's disease is an inflammatory polyarthritis occurring in TB
60 patients in the absence of detectable mycobacteria in the joint spaces. In the eye, TB can cause uveitis
61 without mycobacteria, which resolves with anti-mycobacterial treatment. Uveitis is typically
62 associated with autoimmune diseases such as inflammatory bowel disease, Behcet's disease and
63 ankylosing spondylitis. Similarly, erythema nodosum, an inflammatory cutaneous disorder affecting
64 the shins, occurs in TB and autoimmune diseases such as Crohn's disease, ulcerative colitis and
65 sarcoidosis.

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67 Genomic analyses show single nucleotide polymorphisms that associate with TB severity also
68 associate with autoimmune disease, and CTLA-4 autoimmunity associated genotype contributes to
69 TB severity [4]. Additionally, autoreactive T cells are reported to be increased in TB patients.

70 Systemic autoimmunity can be triggered by intra-vesical administration of *Mycobacterium bovis* BCG
71 for bladder cancer. When considered together, these phenomena suggest that mycobacteria induce
72 inappropriate host responses to self-antigens, causing autoimmune inflammation.

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74 Furthermore, experimental studies link Mtb with development of autoimmunity. For example, Mtb
75 antigens are used in Freund's adjuvant in animal models of autoimmune diseases [5], suggesting that
76 these antigens seem to overcome tolerance to host antigens when co-administered. In experimental
77 models, immunisation to Mtb can drive autoimmune arthritis by causing cross-reactivity with
78 proteoglycan in cartilage [6]. Similarly, an acetone-precipitable fraction of Mtb can specifically drive
79 release of the autoantigen proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA) from human cells [7]. Whilst
80 these attributes of Mtb inducing autoimmune phenomena have been extensively used experimentally
81 for modelling of autoimmune diseases, the concept that the same process is occurring in TB patients is
82 not considered.

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85 **TB and Sarcoidosis Are Virtually Indistinguishable**

86 Further evidence for autoimmunity TB comes from sarcoidosis, a human disease even considered part
87 of the same disease spectrum as TB by some. Sarcoidosis is an autoimmune disease with no proof of
88 an infectious aetiology, despite extensive investigation for mycobacteria within lesions, that resolves
89 with systemic corticosteroid treatment. Sarcoidosis has several similarities with TB, suggesting a
90 common fundamental process. Firstly, histological analysis shows well-organised granulomas formed
91 from activated macrophages, multinucleate giant cells and peripheral T cells, and lesions are often
92 histologically indistinguishable from TB granulomas (Figure 1). Secondly, both TB and sarcoidosis
93 typically affect the lung upper lobes and the mediastinal lymph nodes. Thirdly, sarcoidosis and TB
94 can affect other organs, including the central nervous system, and neurosarcoidosis and TB meningitis
95 can be clinically indistinguishable. Finally, analysis of peripheral blood gene signatures show highly
96 similar expression patterns [8]. Therefore, similarities between the autoimmune disease sarcoidosis
97 and the infectious disease TB suggest common antigens drive the two diseases. Since sarcoidosis is an
98 autoimmune disease that resolves with corticosteroids, the implication is that similar autoantigens
99 contribute to pathology in TB. Adjunctive corticosteroids are routinely used in treatment of
100 pericardial and meningeal TB and intriguingly, corticosteroids accelerate radiographic resolution in
101 pulmonary TB and potentially reduce TB mortality.

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104 **Investigating an Autoimmune Process of Unknown Aetiology**

105 The clinical phenomena presented suggest that the interaction of host with mycobacterial antigens
106 elicits the subsequent development of an additional autoimmune inflammatory process, exacerbating
107 pathology in TB. However, the host antigens involved are unknown, presenting a significant
108 challenge. Nevertheless, the clinical and experimental associations are so strong that ignoring this
109 possibility risks neglecting a central process in TB pathogenesis.

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111 A bioinformatic approach may identify pathways up-regulated in granulomas, and indicate the antigen
112 presenting molecules and T cell receptors most likely involved. One approach could be RNA-Seq
113 analysis of TB granulomas, sarcoid granulomas and suitable control tissues. Analysis TB and sarcoid
114 tissue, combined with protein interaction networks, may indicate pathways induced to inform *ex vivo*
115 analyses. Alternatively, a hypothesis-driven approach may identify antigens. Mtb causes extensive
116 extracellular matrix destruction and cleavage of collagen and elastin releases novel epitopes that may
117 be autoreactive, which have been identified in other destructive pulmonary pathologies [9].
118 Therefore, investigating T cell responses to lung structural fibrils may be fruitful. Alternatively,
119 bioinformatic approaches suggest cross-reactive T cell epitopes between the Mtb and human
120 proteomes, leading these authors to suggest that autoimmunity contributes to pathology [10].
121 Additionally, direct evidence of cross-reactivity of antibodies to mycobacterial 65-kDa heat shock
122 protein and human lactoferrin has been demonstrated.

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124 Finally, and perhaps most likely, key antigens may be shared between Mtb and humans. For example,
125 specific lipid antigens are common to both Mtb and the host, such as glycerophospholipids. These
126 antigens include phosphatidylglycerol and phosphatidylinositol, which are presented by CD1d to
127 NKT cells. Phosphatidylglycerol is also presented by CD1b molecules to CD1b self-reactive T cells.
128 CD1-restricted presentation may explain why the HLA associations in TB, although described, are
129 weak, and why mice do not develop typical human pathology, since they lack Group I CD1
130 molecules. These host lipids may include stress antigens such as cholesterol esters or squalene,
131 presented by CD1c and CD1a respectively, to self-reactive T cells. We hypothesise that host lipids
132 presented by Group I CD1 are the common antigens for TB and sarcoidosis.

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135 **Concluding Remarks**

136 Diverse evidence from both clinical observation and animal studies suggests that development of
137 autoimmunity is a fundamental process in human TB. This concept has wide implications and the

138 evidence is sufficiently strong to justify further investigation. Experimental data rarely challenge
139 established dogma; instead, concepts must evolve and then experiments investigate these hypotheses
140 [11]. Apoptosis of infected cells has recently been shown to induce self-reactive T cells to promote
141 auto-inflammation in other infections [12], and extensive macrophage apoptosis occurs in TB,
142 providing a potential central mechanism. Whilst it may seem implausible that Mtb induces
143 autoimmunity to transmit, such ingenious immunological deception may explain why pathological
144 processes in TB remain so enigmatic.

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157 **Text box: Directions for Future Research**

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- 159 • What is the mechanism whereby *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* induces immune cells to
160 respond to host antigens?
- 161 • Do Mtb adjuvants prime a response to bystander host antigens, and if so, what are these host
162 antigens?
- 163 • Alternatively, are there antigens that are shared between host and pathogen?
- 164 • In addition to auto-immunity related phenomena, does immune dysregulation similar to
165 human auto-inflammatory conditions play a role?
- 166 • What are the optimal experimental approaches and model systems to investigate this
167 phenomenon?
 - 168 ○ Unbiased genomic and proteomic approaches
 - 169 ○ Hypothesis driven approaches, such as lung structural fibrils or CD1-presented lipids
 - 170 ○ Autoantibody profiling as a surrogate marker for T cell immunity
 - 171 ○ Human clinical investigation versus tractable model systems
- 172 • What novel experimental tools are required, such as for characterisation of CD1-restricted T
173 cell responses in the peripheral circulation and in lung granulomas?
- 174 • If mycobacterial infection drives autoimmunity as an evolutionary strategy, what are the
175 implications for novel vaccination approaches?
- 176 • Is autoimmune inflammation also the principal mechanism driving the TB-Immune
177 Reconstitution Inflammatory Syndrome that occurs during HIV treatment?
- 178 • Will inhibiting autoimmune inflammation, whilst concurrently preserving anti-mycobacterial
179 effector immune responses, reduce mortality of patients with advanced TB?

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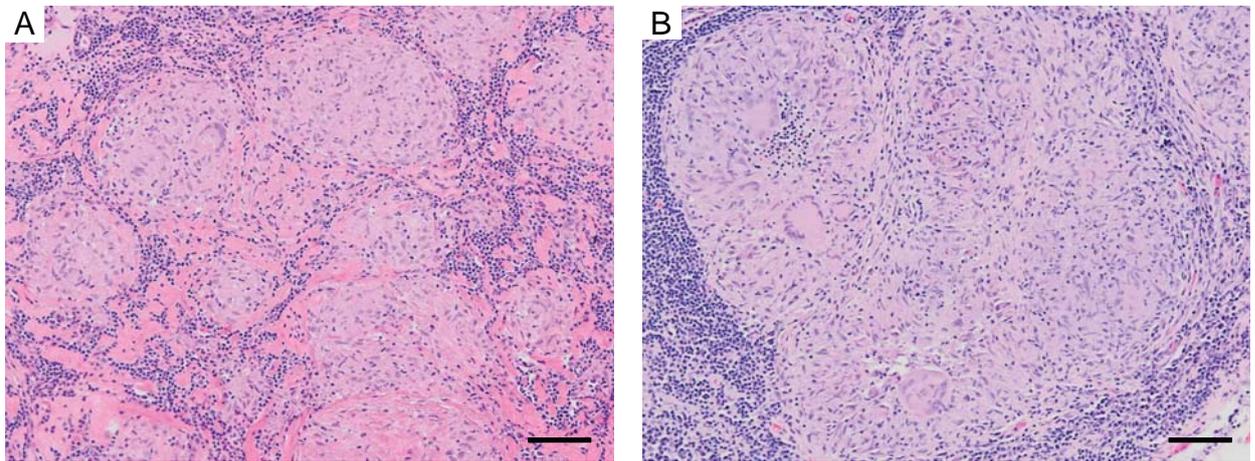


Figure 1: The histological appearances of sarcoidosis and tuberculosis are often indistinguishable.

A) Lymph node biopsy of sarcoidosis; the patient improved with systemic immunosuppression with corticosteroids. **B)** Lymph node biopsy of tuberculosis; *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* culture was positive and the patient recovered with antibiotic therapy. Scale bar 100 μ m.

Supplemental table 1: Additional references supporting the hypothesis that autoimmunity occurs in TB

Clinical observations	
Cavitation does not occur in advanced HIV infection, but may during immune reconstitution	Kwan, C.K. and Ernst, J.D. (2011) HIV and tuberculosis: a deadly human syndemic. <i>Clin Microbiol Rev</i> 24 (2), 351-76.
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