

Review

Understanding the Immunopathogenesis of Autoimmune Disorders: A Comprehensive Review

Ismailov Imetkul ¹ , Zainab Sabah Kallow ² , Asmaa Edrees ³ , Safa Ahmed Akram ⁴ , Ahmed Sabah ⁵  and Abzal Zhumagaliuly ^{6,*} 

¹ Department of Medical Laboratory Analysis, Medical Faculty, Osh State University, Osh 723500, Kyrgyzstan

² Department of Medical Laboratory Analysis, Al Mansour University College, Baghdad 10067, Iraq

³ Department of Medical Laboratory Analysis, Al-Turath University, Baghdad 10013, Iraq

⁴ Department of Medical Laboratory Analysis, Al-Rafidain University College, Baghdad 10064, Iraq

⁵ Department of Medical Laboratory Analysis, Madenat Alelem University College, Baghdad 10006, Iraq

⁶ B. Atchabarov Scientific-Research Institute of Fundamental and Applied Medicine, Kazakh National Medical University, Almaty 050000, Kazakhstan

* Correspondence: zhumagali.a@kaznmu.kz

Received: 12 February 2025; **Revised:** 17 February 2025; **Accepted:** 17 March 2025; **Published:** 23 July 2025

Abstract: Autoimmune disorders comprise a broad category of illnesses marked by abnormal immune reactions against self-antigens, resulting in persistent inflammation and tissue damage. This comprehensive review examines the complex mechanisms underlying the development of autoimmune disease, focusing on immunopathogenesis. We discuss the interplay between genetic predispositions, environmental triggers, and pathogens in the initiation and perpetuation of autoimmunity. Key cytokines and inflammatory pathways are highlighted to illustrate their roles in disease progression. We then explore the distinct pathogenic mechanisms of organ-specific autoimmune disorders, including autoimmune thyroid diseases, autoimmune hemolytic anemia, neuromyelitis optica, idiopathic inflammatory myopathies, and inflammatory bowel disease, while also reviewing the influence of gut microbiome dysbiosis on immune function. Lastly, we address biomarker identification for early detection, current therapeutic strategies, and emerging treatments that target novel pathways. By integrating findings from diverse studies, this review provides a holistic understanding of the immunological landscape of autoimmune disorders, paving the way for improved diagnostic and therapeutic options.

Keywords: Immunopathogenesis; Autoimmune Diseases; Gene Modulation

1. Introduction

Autoimmune disorders are a heterogeneous group of conditions characterized by a loss of immunological self-tolerance, leading to immune-mediated damage of the body's own cells, tissues, or organs through the activity of autoreactive lymphocytes and autoantibodies [1]. Millions of people are impacted by these illnesses globally, and both diagnosis and treatment present substantial obstacles. Because of their chronic and debilitating nature, and an estimated worldwide prevalence of 5%, autoimmune diseases have become a significant public health concern [2]. From multiple sclerosis to rheumatoid arthritis, these illnesses affect different organ systems and drastically lower the quality of life for their sufferers. They also present with a variety of clinical presentations.

The goal of this review is to examine the complex immunopathogenesis that underlies autoimmune diseases. Through a thorough explanation of the intricate interactions between genetic predispositions, environmental triggers, and immunological dysregulation, the paper aims to offer a comprehensive understanding of the mechanisms underlying autoimmunity. The review aims to provide insight into the fundamental mechanisms influencing the onset, course, and persistence of disease by synthesizing findings from recent research.

The structure of the paper offers a comprehensive examination of the immunological terrain associated with autoimmune disorders. The first section covers the genetic and environmental variables related to the genesis of disease. The sections that follow provide more detailed information about particular autoimmune diseases, such as inflammatory bowel disease, autoimmune hemolytic anemia, autoimmune thyroid diseases, and neuromyelitis optica. Every segment investigates the distinct immunopathogenic processes underlying these illnesses, utilizing knowledge from both basic and clinical research studies. In addition, the review addresses new biomarkers and treatment approaches for autoimmune diseases, as well as the function of the gut microbiota in regulating immune responses. The goal of this thorough approach is to provide important insights into the intricate immunological mechanisms underlying autoimmune diseases for researchers, clinicians, and policymakers.

2. Mechanisms of Autoimmunity

The intricate interaction between environmental triggers and genetic predisposition in the development of autoimmune disorders is depicted in **Figure 1**. Genetic variables, such as HLA genes and other susceptibility loci, and environmental triggers, such as toxins, infections, and food components, are the primary factors that play a role [3]. These factors are involved in the breakdown of immune tolerance, which includes the loss of peripheral and central tolerance. Immune dysregulation resulting from this collapse impacts both innate and adaptive immunity [4]. The diagram highlights particular mechanisms such as bystander activation, which is the nonspecific activation of autoreactive T cells triggered by local inflammation, epitope spreading, which is the diversification of autoimmune responses to additional self-antigens, and molecular mimicry, where pathogens share structural similarities with self-antigens. These processes lead to chronic inflammation, which is defined by ongoing immunological responses and tissue damage. Eventually, these conditions give rise to autoimmune diseases, which can be systemic or organ-specific. Examples of these diseases include systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE), multiple sclerosis (MS), and rheumatoid arthritis (RA) [5].

3. Fundamental Mechanisms

Genetic predispositions and environmental stimuli interact intricately to produce autoimmune disease, leading to loss of immunological tolerance and the onset of self-directed immune responses [6]. Genetic predispositions significantly shape one's susceptibility to autoimmune diseases. Numerous susceptibility loci linked to autoimmune disorders have been found through genome-wide association studies, underscoring the polygenic nature of these illnesses. However, the inability of genetic predispositions alone to cause autoimmunity indicates that environmental factors play a crucial role in the pathophysiology of disease.

Environmental triggers like infections, food factors, and chemical exposures can disrupt immune homeostasis and cause aberrant immune responses against self-antigens [7]. Environmental stimuli can trigger or worsen autoimmunity through various pathways, such as bystander activation, molecular mimicry, and epitope spreading. Molecular mimicry occurs when microbial or environmental antigens share structural similarities with self-antigens, and environmental or microbial antigens share structural similarities. Immune responses that are cross-reactive attack both foreign and self-tissues as a result. The process by which autoimmune responses diversify to include more self-antigens following initial tissue damage is referred to as "epitope spreading". Autoreactive T cells become broadly activated in response to local inflammation, a phenomenon referred to as "bystander activation". Critically, however, the relative importance of each mechanism—molecular mimicry, bystander activation, or epitope spreading—varies widely among different autoimmune diseases. While certain studies emphasize the centrality of molecular mimicry in conditions such as multiple sclerosis, [8–10] other research places greater importance on bystander activation in diseases like rheumatoid arthritis or SLE [9,10]. These divergent observations underscore an ongoing controversy: some investigators argue that infectious triggers, through molecular mimicry, are the primary catalysts of autoimmunity, whereas others propose that a persistent inflammatory milieu drives

more generalized T-cell activation. Reconciling these viewpoints requires more detailed studies that account for disease stage, genetic predisposition, and the specific environmental context [7,11]. By examining conflicting data on which mechanism predominates, a more nuanced understanding of immunopathogenesis emerges—one that may ultimately lead to disease-specific diagnostic markers and therapeutic targets. As a result, the autoimmune response is maintained, and collateral tissue damage occurs.

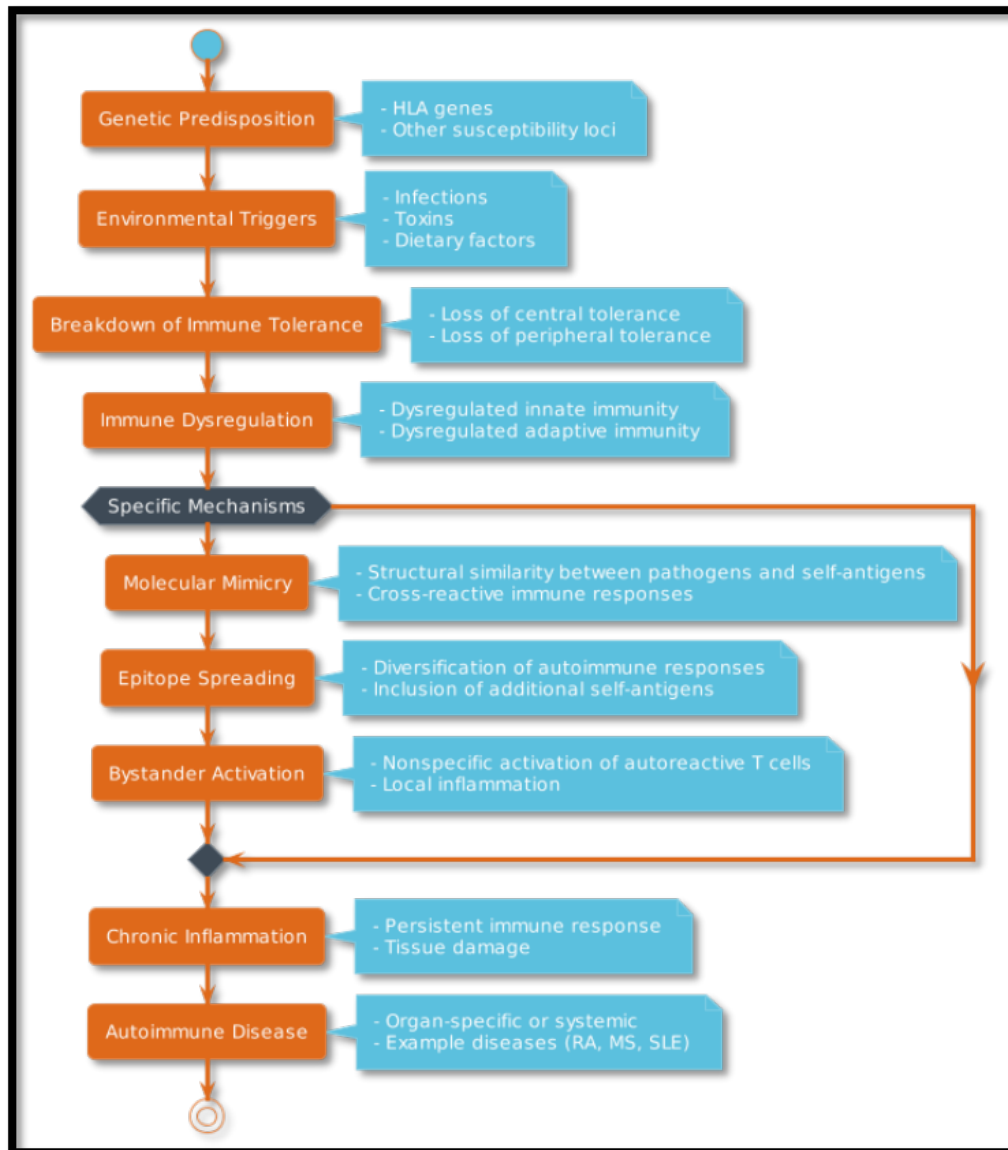


Figure 1. Autoimmune pathogenesis flowchart.

4. Immune System Dysfunctions

The etiology of autoimmune disorders involves immune system dysfunctions driven by intricate interactions between innate and adaptive immune responses [12]. Tissue inflammation and damage can be exacerbated by the dysregulated activation of innate immune cells, such as dendritic cells, macrophages, and natural killer cells, which can also stimulate the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines and chemokines. Inappropriate stimulation of pattern recognition receptors, like Toll-like receptors, by endogenous or microbial ligands has the potential to enhance inflammatory reactions and contribute to the pathophysiology of autoimmune diseases.

Autoimmune responses in the adaptive immune system are primarily caused by dysfunctions in T and B lym-

phocytes [11]. Autoimmune T cells can identify and react to self-antigens, causing tissue inflammation and damage. These cells elude thymic negative selection and peripheral tolerance mechanisms. Furthermore, immune dysregulation may be exacerbated in autoimmune settings by the dysfunction or depletion of regulatory T cells, which normally suppress autoreactive immune responses.

B cells produce autoantibodies, present autoantigens to T cells, and secrete pro-inflammatory cytokines, among other mechanisms that contribute to autoimmunity [11]. Through the creation of immune complexes and complement activation, autoantibodies, like rheumatoid factor and anti-citrullinated protein antibodies in rheumatoid arthritis, can directly contribute to tissue damage [12,13]. Additionally, B cells can present antigens, which helps autoreactive T cells activate and sustain autoimmune reactions [9]. Furthermore, in autoimmune diseases, B cells can release cytokines that cause tissue damage and inflammation, such as interleukin-6 and tumor necrosis factor-alpha [8].

Table 1. Summary of key mechanisms in autoimmunity.

Mechanism	Description
Genetic Factors	Genes associated with increased risk of autoimmune diseases (HLA genes)
Environmental	External factors like infections, toxins, and lifestyle that influence autoimmunity
Immune Dysregulation	Dysfunctions in immune cells and signaling pathways leading to autoimmunity

A summary of the main mechanisms involved in autoimmunity is given in **Table 1**. First of all, autoimmune diseases are largely predisposed in people due to genetic factors, especially those genes located within the human leukocyte antigen (HLA) region. The intricate etiology of autoimmunity is influenced by a combination of environmental factors, toxins, infections, and lifestyle choices, in addition to genetic predispositions. Furthermore, autoimmune disorders are characterized by immune dysregulation, which is defined as abnormal functioning of immune cells and signaling pathways. When taken as a whole, these mechanisms highlight the complex interactions that occur between immune dysfunction, environmental exposures, and genetic susceptibility in the etiology of autoimmune diseases, underscoring the multidimensional nature of autoimmunity.

5. Genetic and Environmental Factors

5.1. Genetic Components

It is well known that autoimmune diseases have complex genetic roots and are frequently marked by intricate interactions between multiple genetic loci. Habibi et al. [14]. clarified that immune response genes, especially those involved in maintaining immune tolerance and recognizing self-antigens, are typically dysregulated in these disorders. The identification of particular genetic polymorphisms linked to a range of autoimmune diseases has been made possible by genome-wide association studies (GWAS), which have also yielded invaluable insights into the genetic basis of autoimmunity.

Table 2. Genetic factors associated with autoimmune disorders.

Disorder	Gene(s) Involved	Mechanism of Action
Rheumatoid Arthritis	HLA-DRB1	Antigen presentation
Type 1 Diabetes	INS, PTPN22	Immune regulation
Systemic Lupus Erythematosus	IRF5, STAT4	Immune response modulation

The genetic factors linked to particular autoimmune disorders are compiled in **Table 2**. The HLA-DRB1 gene is linked to rheumatoid arthritis, primarily involved in antigen presentation, a crucial initial step in mounting an immune defense against self-antigens [15]. Genes like INS and PTPN22, which regulate the immune system and ultimately impact its capacity to distinguish between self and non-self, are implicated in type 1 diabetes [16]. Genes such as IRF5 and STAT4 are involved in modulating the immune response in systemic lupus erythematosus, suggesting their impact on the dysregulated immune responses characteristics of this condition [17]. These genetic factors highlight the various molecular pathways that contribute to the pathogenesis of autoimmune diseases, highlighting the complex interaction between immune dysregulation and genetic predisposition that drives autoimmunity.

5.2. Environmental Exposures

Environmental factors play an equally important role in the pathogenesis of autoimmune disorders. Immune function can be modulated, and autoimmune responses can be exacerbated by exposure to different environmental agents. Šutić Udović et al. [18]. emphasized the role that environmental triggers play in causing or aggravating autoimmune pathology, including toxins, infections, and dietary factors. The activation of autoreactive lymphocytes and the generation of self-reactive antibodies can result from these triggers upsetting immune homeostasis [19]. Furthermore, a person's risk of developing autoimmune diseases is greatly influenced by the interactions between their genetic susceptibility and environmental exposures.

Table 3. Environmental triggers of autoimmune diseases.

Trigger	Disorders	Mechanism
Infections	Rheumatic Fever, MS	Molecular mimicry
Chemicals/Toxins	SLE	Direct tissue damage, immune activation
Dietary Factors	Celiac Disease	Immune activation through gut permeability

The various environmental triggers linked to the onset of autoimmune diseases are listed in **Table 3**. Molecular mimicry is the mechanism by which infections, like those that cause rheumatic fever and multiple sclerosis (MS), cause autoimmune reactions in host tissues by sharing antigenic similarities [8]. By directly harming tissues and triggering the immune system, chemicals and toxins are linked to systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE), which is characterized by autoimmune reactions. Additionally, dietary factors alter gut permeability, as seen in celiac disease, which activates the immune system. This highlights the complex relationship between immune dysregulation and environmental exposures in the pathophysiology of autoimmune disorders.

6. Role of Pathogens

As has been widely discussed by Vojdani et al. [20], pathogens are essential in initiating and sustaining autoimmune diseases, mainly through mechanisms like molecular mimicry. This phenomenon happens when autoimmune reactivity is triggered by structural similarities between pathogenic agents and human tissue antigens. Given this, it is imperative to draw attention to particular pathogens associated with autoimmunity, such as oral pathogens, SARS-CoV-2, and herpesviruses, as shown in several studies [19,20]. These pathogens influence host immune homeostasis through a variety of pathways, triggering autoimmune responses and highlighting the complex interaction between infectious agents and autoimmune pathology. While specific pathogens have attracted much attention, emerging evidence also points to the broader role of the gut microbiome in modulating immune tolerance [7,11,18–20]. Microbiota dysbiosis—an imbalance in the composition of gut microbes—can disrupt the epithelial barrier, increase exposure of immune cells to microbial antigens, and skew T-cell differentiation toward pro-inflammatory phenotypes. In some individuals, these shifts in gut microbial populations appear to perpetuate low-grade, chronic inflammation, thereby facilitating the expansion of autoreactive lymphocytes [7]. Additionally, gut-derived molecular mimicry has been proposed, where commensal bacterial antigens share epitopes with self-proteins, thus exacerbating immune reactivity. Such mechanisms are especially relevant in inflammatory bowel disease and may extend to systemic autoimmune disorders, highlighting a continuum between organ-specific and systemic immune dysregulation. Clarifying how gut microbes influence disease severity in conditions like rheumatoid arthritis or lupus remains a key research frontier, potentially revealing new targets for microbiota-based interventions.

Table 4. Pathogens implicated in autoimmune diseases.

Pathogen	Autoimmune Disease(s)	Mechanism
Epstein-Barr Virus	Multiple Sclerosis, SLE	Molecular mimicry, bystander activation
SARS-CoV-2	Various	Immune dysregulation, molecular mimicry
Helicobacter pylori	Gastric Autoimmunity	Molecular mimicry

A thorough summary of the pathogens linked to autoimmune diseases is provided in **Table 4**, along with information on the autoimmune conditions to which they are associated and the mechanisms by which they contribute

to autoimmunity. For example, Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) has been associated with diseases such as Multiple Sclerosis (MS) and Systemic Lupus Erythematosus (SLE), mainly by mechanisms including bystander activation and molecular mimicry [9]. Similarly, immune dysregulation and molecular mimicry link SARS-CoV-2, the virus that caused the COVID-19 pandemic, to a number of autoimmune disorders [10]. Moreover, gastric autoimmunity has been linked to *Helicobacter pylori*. This bacterium that is responsible for gastric ulcers, with molecular mimicry serving as a major mechanism [21]. All things considered, this table highlights the important role that pathogens play in initiating and intensifying autoimmune diseases via various immunological pathways, highlighting the complex relationship that exists between infectious agents and autoimmune pathogenesis.

7. Cytokines and Inflammatory Pathways

Dysregulated immune responses are a hallmark of autoimmune diseases, and cytokines play a crucial role in mediating inflammation, tissue damage, and disease progression [22]. These signaling molecules influence immune cells' activation, proliferation, and differentiation in a variety of ways. Tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- α), interleukin-1 (IL-1), interleukin-6 (IL-6), and interferons (IFNs) are among the cytokines that are specifically linked to pathogenic immune responses in the context of autoimmunity. TNF- α , for instance, is well recognized for its pro-inflammatory properties that encourage leukocyte recruitment and activation, whereas IFNs are essential for antiviral defense but can also lead to autoimmune pathology by persistently stimulating the immune system [23].

Xiao et al. [23] offers a thorough analysis of the complex roles that cytokines play in autoimmune diseases, including information on how they contribute to the etiology of the condition, its clinical manifestations, and possible treatment options [24]. This resource clarifies the particular cytokine networks involved in various autoimmune disorders, emphasizing their interactions with other immune mediators and their context-dependent roles.

Apart from cytokines, another important facet of autoimmune pathophysiology is represented by inflammatory pathways. These pathways encompass a series of molecular events, including tissue damage, cytokine production, and immune cell activation. The NF- κ B pathway, the Janus kinase-signal transducer and activator of transcription (JAK-STAT) pathway, and the mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) pathway are key inflammatory pathways associated with autoimmunity [25]. Organ damage and clinical symptoms may result from dysregulation of these pathways, which can also cause immune cell infiltration into target tissues and persistent inflammation.

Researchers clarify the molecular mechanisms behind immune dysregulation and tissue damage, providing insights into the intricate interplay of inflammatory pathways in autoimmune diseases [26]. Using an analysis of the signaling cascades implicated in autoimmune pathogenesis, this reference facilitates the identification of putative therapeutic targets. Determining the pathogenesis of autoimmune disorders and creating focused strategies to modify aberrant immune responses requires an understanding of the complex interplay between cytokines and inflammatory pathways.

Table 5. Key cytokines in autoimmune diseases.

Cytokine	Associated Disorders	Role in Pathogenesis
IL-1	RA, Type 1 Diabetes	Promotes inflammation
TNF- α	RA, IBD	Pro-inflammatory cytokine
IFN- γ	MS, Type 1 Diabetes	Activates macrophages and T cells

A concise summary of the major cytokines linked to autoimmune diseases is provided in **Table 5**, along with information on related conditions and their roles in the disease etiology. Interleukin-1 (IL-1) is linked to type 1 diabetes and rheumatoid arthritis (RA), where it increases inflammation and accelerates the development of tissue damage and illness [27]. TNF- α , a pro-inflammatory cytokine that enhances immune responses and maintains persistent inflammation in impacted tissues, has been associated with both RA and inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) [23,28]. Type 1 diabetes and multiple sclerosis (MS) are linked to interferon-gamma (IFN- γ), which acts by stimulating macrophages and T cells, two key players in autoimmune pathology [29]. The involvement of these important cytokines in autoimmune disorders is briefly summarized in this table, which also offers important insights into their potential as therapeutic targets and contributions to the pathophysiology of the disease.

Figure 2 illustrates the intricate relationship that mediates inflammation, tissue damage, and disease progression between major inflammatory pathways (NF- κ B, JAK-STAT, and MAPK) and important cytokines (TNF- α , IL-1,

IL-6, and IFNs). IL-6 and IFNs activate the JAK-STAT pathway, IL-1 also initiates the MAPK pathway, and TNF- α and IL-1 activate the NF- κ B pathway. These pathways promote inflammation, leading to tissue damage and the progression of the disease. This intricate network highlights potential targets for therapeutic intervention by emphasizing the critical roles that inflammatory pathways and cytokine signaling play in causing the pathological immune responses typical of autoimmune diseases.

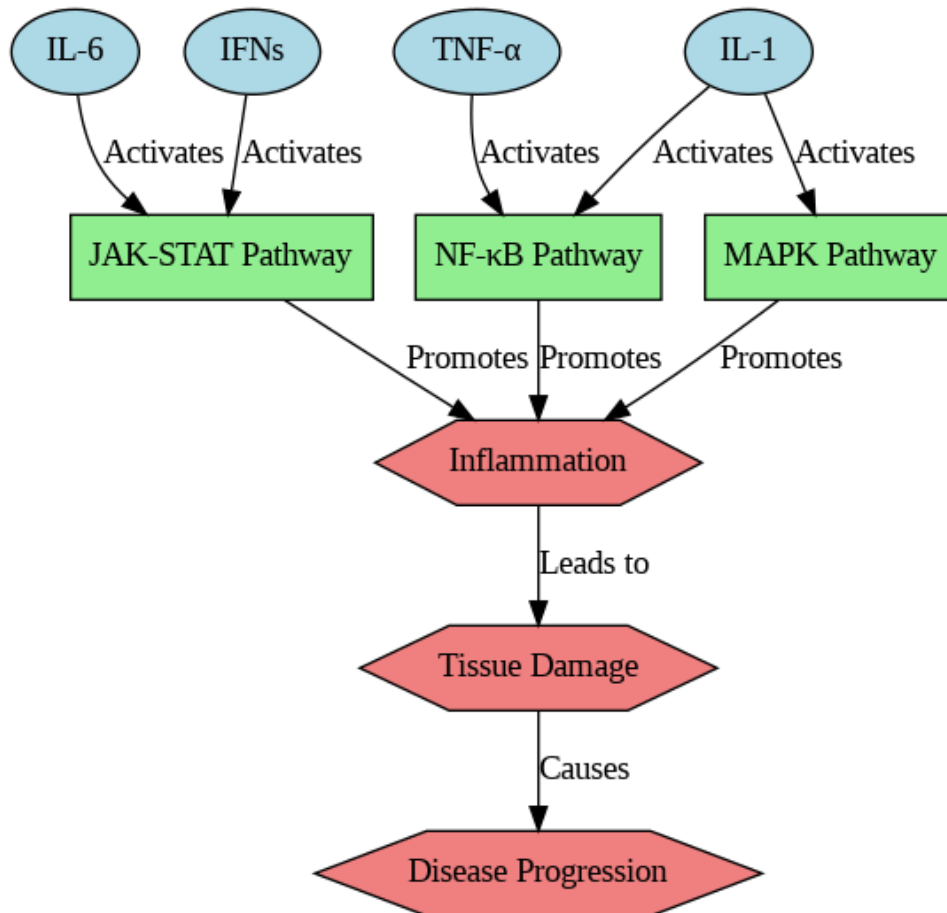


Figure 2. Cytokines and inflammatory pathways diagram.

8. Organ-Specific Autoimmune Disorders

Organ-specific autoimmune disorders are a broad category of diseases in which the body's immune system unintentionally targets and destroys specific tissues. These illnesses frequently cause symptoms and complications that are unique to one or more organs, which increases morbidity and impairs organ function. Exploring the pathogenesis of these conditions is crucial to understanding the complex mechanisms underlying immune-mediated tissue injury, given the complexity of these conditions are. By clarifying the fundamental immunopathogenic pathways implicated, scientists can gain a significant understanding of the pathogenesis of the illness and pinpoint potential areas for therapeutic intervention. Thus, the goal of this section of the review paper is to provide a thorough understanding of the distinctive immunological features and clinical implications of organ-specific autoimmune disorders through a detailed examination of these conditions. Readers will obtain important insights into the intricate interactions that contribute to the onset and development of these disorders, including immune dysregulation, environmental triggers, and genetic predispositions. Ultimately, this information may help create more focused and efficient treatment plans that lessen immune-mediated tissue damage while also enhancing patient outcomes.

9. Autoimmune Thyroid Diseases

Thyroid autoimmune disorders, including Graves' disease and Hashimoto's thyroiditis, are a subset of autoimmune disorders in which the thyroid gland is mistakenly targeted by the immune system, resulting in thyroid function dysregulation [30]. Hyperthyroidism—a disorder characterized by an excess of thyroid hormones—is a hallmark of Graves' disease. Autoantibodies, specifically thyroid-stimulating immunoglobulins, bind to and activate thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH) receptors on thyroid follicular cells, causing this hyperthyroid state. As a result, these autoantibodies cause an overproduction of thyroid hormones, leading to their excessive synthesis and release, which in turn causes symptoms like exophthalmos, or enlarged eyes, and a fast heartbeat. Conversely, Hashimoto's thyroiditis is linked to hypothyroidism, which is a condition in which the thyroid gland is underactive as a result of thyroid tissue being destroyed by the immune system. Thyroid peroxidase (TPO) and thyroglobulin are two examples of the thyroid proteins that the immune system targets when an individual has Hashimoto's thyroiditis. This produces inflammation and damages thyroid cells. Over time, symptoms like fatigue, weight gain, and cold intolerance develop as a result of this autoimmune attack, which also causes a decrease in thyroid hormone production. A confluence of immune dysregulation, environmental factors, and genetic predispositions impacts multifactorial disorders such as Hashimoto's thyroiditis and Graves' disease. While environmental factors like stress, smoking, and infections can contribute to the onset and progression of autoimmune thyroid diseases, genetic susceptibility also plays a part in predisposing individuals to these conditions. In order to better manage and treat patients with autoimmune thyroid diseases, researchers hope to uncover new therapeutic targets and interventions by clarifying the pathogenic mechanisms underlying these disorders [30].

Table 6. Characteristics of autoimmune thyroid diseases.

Disease	Main Features	Pathogenic Mechanisms
Graves' Disease	Hyperthyroidism, eye problems	Autoantibodies stimulating TSH receptors
Hashimoto's Thyroiditis	Hypothyroidism, thyroid destruction	Autoantibodies targeting thyroid peroxidase

A brief synopsis of the pathogenic mechanisms and key characteristics of autoimmune thyroid diseases, namely Graves' disease and Hashimoto's thyroiditis, is given in **Table 6**. Autoantibodies that target thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH) receptors cause hyperthyroidism and related eye issues, which are hallmarks of Graves' disease [31]. This increased thyroid hormone synthesis and release is caused by these autoantibodies. On the other hand, progressive thyroid tissue destruction and hypothyroidism are characteristics of Hashimoto's thyroiditis. Autoantibodies against thyroid peroxidase play a crucial role in the pathophysiology of Hashimoto's thyroiditis, impairing thyroid hormone synthesis and ultimately causing glandular destruction [32]. The significance of abnormal immune responses in causing thyroid dysfunction and tissue damage in Graves' disease and Hashimoto's thyroiditis is highlighted by these autoimmune processes, underscoring the need to comprehend these pathogenic mechanisms for focused therapeutic interventions.

10. Autoimmune Hemolytic Anemia

Red blood cells (RBCs) are mistakenly attacked and destroyed by the immune system in autoimmune hemolytic anemia (AIHA), a complex disorder that results in anemia [33]. The pathophysiology of AIHA is based on the disruption of immune tolerance mechanisms, leading to the generation of autoantibodies that bind to and identify antigens on the surface of red blood cells. These autoantibodies, which are primarily of the immunoglobulin G (IgG) class, bind to RBC antigens to form immune complexes that alert the immune system's phagocytic cells—like macrophages—to the threat of destruction [34]. Hemolysis refers to the premature destruction of RBCs, a process that can happen either extravascularly or intravascularly, depending on the particular autoantibody and RBC clearance mechanism. Hemoglobin and other cellular contents are released into the circulation as a result of RBCs being lysed within the bloodstream, a condition known as intravascular hemolysis, which causes hemoglobinemia and hemoglobinuria [35]. On the other hand, extravascular hemolysis happens when RBCs are trapped and eliminated by macrophages, mostly in the liver and spleen. This leads to the production of bilirubin and hemosiderin, which are then eliminated from the bloodstream. AIHA is caused by a complex pathophysiology that includes dysregulated immune responses, environmental triggers, and genetic predispositions. AIHA susceptibility may be increased by

genetic factors, such as polymorphisms in the genes encoding immune receptors and complement proteins. Autoimmune reactions against RBC antigens can be triggered by environmental factors, drugs, and underlying autoimmune diseases, among other factors. AIHA may also arise as a result of immune checkpoint and signaling pathway dysregulation, leading to compromised T- and B-cell tolerance mechanisms [36]. Researchers aim to improve outcomes for patients with this difficult autoimmune disease by identifying novel therapeutic targets and approaches to modulate immune responses and restore immune tolerance, thereby clarifying the underlying immune mechanisms that cause AIHA [37].

11. Neuromyelitis Optica

The crippling autoimmune disease known as neuromyelitis optica (NMO) is characterized by recurrent episodes of inflammation that mainly affect the spinal cord and optic nerves [38]. A complex interaction between genetic predispositions, environmental triggers, and dysregulated immune responses leads to the pathogenesis of neuromyelitis optica (NMO). The identification of autoantibodies against aquaporin-4 (AQP4), the most prevalent water channel protein in the central nervous system (CNS), was a seminal finding in NMO research [26]. These autoantibodies against AQP4, also referred to as NMO-immunoglobulin G (NMO-IgG), bind to AQP4 that is expressed on astrocytic end-feet and initiate complement-mediated cytotoxicity and inflammation, which is a major factor in the pathophysiology of NMO. Furthermore, through the release of pro-inflammatory cytokines and chemokines, cellular immune responses, including those of T cells and innate immune cells, contribute to tissue damage and lesion formation in NMO [39]. The majority of NMO patients have AQP4 autoantibodies, which emphasizes the role of humoral immunity in the pathogenesis of the disease. Although there is still much to learn about the pathogenic mechanisms underlying NMO in seronegative patients, evidence suggests that other autoantigens or immune pathways may be involved. To understand the intricate relationships between autoantibodies, immune cells, and CNS tissues, and ultimately develop targeted therapies to stop the progression of the disease and enhance clinical outcomes for NMO patients, more research into the immunopathogenesis of the disease is required.

Table 7. Features of neuromyelitis optica.

Feature	Description
Autoantibody	AQP4-IgG
Symptoms	Optic neuritis, myelitis
Pathogenesis	Autoantibody-mediated astrocyte damage

Key characteristics of neuromyelitis optica (NMO), an uncommon autoimmune disease that primarily affects the spinal cord and optic nerves, are enumerated in **Table 7**. One of the characteristics of non-motor neuropathy (NMO) is the presence of autoantibodies against aquaporin-4 (AQP4-IgG), which mediates astrocyte damage and contributes to the disease's pathogenesis. When it comes to clinical manifestations, NMO is marked by symptoms like optic neuritis, which is inflammation of the optic nerve, and myelitis, which is inflammation of the spinal cord. These signs and symptoms correspond to the autoimmune-mediated degeneration of neural tissues, resulting in neurological and visual impairments. Table 7 highlights the crucial role of AQP4-IgG autoantibodies in causing tissue damage and clinical manifestations in NMO, underscoring the significance of comprehending these characteristics for precise diagnosis and focused treatment approaches [40].

12. Idiopathic Inflammatory Myopathies

A diverse group of autoimmune diseases, known as idiopathic inflammatory myopathies (IIMs), is characterized by persistent inflammation of the skeletal muscles, which causes damage and weakness to the muscles. Immune cells, including dendritic cells, T cells, B cells, and macrophages, interact intricately with muscle fibers during the pathogenesis of IIMs, resulting in immune-mediated destruction and dysfunction of muscle tissue [41]. The production of pro-inflammatory cytokines and chemokines, the development of autoantibodies directed against particular muscle proteins, and the activation of autoreactive T cells against muscle antigens are important immunopathogenic mechanisms that underlie IIMs. IIM development and progression are also influenced by dysregulated immune responses, environmental triggers, and genetic factors. Recent findings have revealed additional layers of complexity, including autoantibody subsets such as anti-Jo-1 and other myositis-specific antibodies that cor-

relate with disease severity and extramuscular involvement [11,13,41]. Moreover, T-cell infiltration patterns differ across polymyositis, dermatomyositis, and inclusion body myositis, suggesting distinct immunopathogenic pathways. Despite growing insights, controversies remain over whether cytotoxic T-lymphocyte-mediated myofiber injury or humoral mechanisms predominate. Some studies emphasize that immune-mediated destruction directly targets myocytes, while others implicate microvascular damage and complement deposition as primary drivers. Reconciling these viewpoints is crucial for tailoring therapy—whether with high-dose steroids, IVIG, or emerging biologics—and for identifying reliable biomarkers that distinguish among various myositis subtypes. By paralleling the detailed immunologic understanding found in other autoimmune diseases, research in IIMs may soon yield more precise, phenotype-based interventions. Determining novel therapeutic targets and creating focused interventions to reduce inflammation, maintain muscle function, and enhance clinical outcomes for afflicted individuals requires an understanding of the intricate immunological mechanisms underlying IIMs.

13. Inflammatory Bowel Disease

Chronic inflammatory conditions affecting the gastrointestinal tract are collectively referred to as inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), which includes Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis. The intricate interaction of genetic predisposition, environmental factors, and dysregulated immune responses constitutes the multifaceted pathogenesis of inflammatory bowel disease (IBD). In exploring the immunopathogenic mechanisms underlying IBD, this section highlights the critical function of the interleukin-23/Th-17 axis. According to Shih and Targan (2008), this axis plays a crucial role in coordinating the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines, attracting and activating immune cells, such as Th-17 lymphocytes, and initiating inflammatory cascades within the gut mucosa [42]. The persistent intestinal inflammation, compromised epithelial barrier, and tissue damage that are hallmarks of inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) are caused by the dysregulation of this pathway. Comprehending these complex immune mechanisms is essential for clarifying the aetiology of the illness and discovering new therapeutic targets aimed at regulating aberrant immune reactions and reducing inflammatory bowel symptoms in IBD patients.

Table 8. Immunopathogenic features of IBD.

Disease	Key Cytokines	Pathogenic Mechanisms
Crohn's Disease	IL-23, IL-17	Th1/Th17-mediated inflammation
Ulcerative Colitis	IL-13, IL-5	Th2-mediated inflammation

Table 8 outlines the immunopathogenic characteristics of inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), distinguishing between ulcerative colitis and Crohn's disease. Important cytokines in Th1/Th17-mediated inflammation, such as IL-23 and IL-17, are implicated in Crohn's disease, highlighting the role of adaptive immune responses in inducing intestinal inflammation. On the other hand, IL-5 and IL-13 are well-known cytokines linked to Th2-mediated inflammation in ulcerative colitis, suggesting a different immunological profile compared to Crohn's disease. It is crucial to comprehend these variations in cytokine profiles and pathogenic mechanisms in order to clarify the immune dysregulation that underlies IBD subtypes and to inform the development of targeted therapies tailored to particular disease pathways.

14. Biomarkers and Detection

Because they provide important information about the etiology and course of autoimmune diseases, biomarkers are essential for the early identification, diagnosis, and treatment of these conditions. The importance of biomarkers in autoimmune disorders is discussed in detail in this section, with a focus on how they can be used to guide personalized therapeutic interventions, monitor treatment responses, and predict disease onset [43]. Still, there are a lot of obstacles in the way of finding trustworthy biomarkers, despite their potential advantages. The multifaceted nature of autoimmune pathogenesis, heterogeneity within patient populations, and variability in disease presentation all contribute to the challenge of identifying biomarkers [20]. Furthermore, to increase the accuracy and dependability of current biomarkers, novel strategies and cutting-edge technologies are required due to their lack of specificity and sensitivity. To overcome these obstacles, multidisciplinary teams must collaborate to identify novel biomarkers with improved clinical utility and predictive value by utilizing state-of-the-art techniques, such

as proteomics, metabolomics, and genomics [43]. Through overcoming these challenges and expanding our knowledge of the biology underlying autoimmune diseases, biomarker research has the potential to transform disease diagnosis, prognosis, and treatment selection in the years to come.

Table 9. Potential biomarkers for autoimmune diseases.

Biomarker	Disease(s)	Detection Method
Anti-dsDNA antibodies	SLE	Blood test
Rheumatoid factor	RA	Blood test
AQP4-IgG	NMO	Blood test

A concise overview of potential autoimmune disease biomarkers is provided in **Table 9**, along with information on related conditions and methods of detection. One of the most important biomarkers for systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) is the presence of anti-dsDNA antibodies, which can be detected through a blood test. These antibodies aid in diagnosis and monitoring disease activity. A blood test can also detect rheumatoid factor, which is suggestive of rheumatoid arthritis (RA) and helps doctors confirm the diagnosis and gauge the severity of the condition. Moreover, the blood test-detected presence of AQP4-IgG is a valuable biomarker for neuromyelitis optica (NMO), helping to differentiate NMO from other demyelinating disorders and directing treatment choices. For patients with autoimmune disorders, these biomarkers enable timely intervention and individualized management strategies by providing crucial insights into the disease's pathogenesis and progression. Although biomarkers such as anti-dsDNA (SLE), rheumatoid factor (RA), and AQP4-IgG (NMO) are integral to diagnostic workflows, their reliability and interpretation are not without challenges. Fluctuations in anti-dsDNA levels, for example, often correlate with lupus flares, yet some patients experience rising titers in the absence of clear clinical symptoms [1]. Similarly, rheumatoid factor lacks high specificity since it can be elevated in other autoimmune conditions and some healthy individuals [13]. These discrepancies highlight the need to interpret biomarker data in conjunction with clinical findings, imaging, and immunologic parameters. Ongoing efforts aim to discover next-generation biomarkers that predict disease course more accurately and identify subclinical activity before overt flares occur [11,12]. Leveraging advanced 'omics' approaches may also refine current biomarker panels, facilitating a personalized strategy in monitoring autoimmune disease activity and therapeutic response.

15. Current and Future Therapeutic Approaches

The section on therapeutic approaches—both current and future—delves into the complex field of managing autoimmune diseases, offering a nuanced perspective on both established interventions and promising directions for future research. It begins with a thorough examination of current treatment approaches, which encompass a wide range of modalities, from traditional medications to advanced biologic agents. These treatments seek to maintain tissue integrity, reduce inflammatory processes, and regulate aberrant immune responses [44]. This segment provides clinicians and researchers with important insights into the limitations, difficulties, and effectiveness of current treatment regimens through a critical analysis of clinical evidence and real-world outcomes.

The conversation also explores new therapeutic paradigms that hold significant potential to transform the treatment of autoimmune diseases. This section highlights discoveries and creative strategies that are being used to advance the field of autoimmune therapies. Novel biologics that target particular cytokines or immune pathways, small-molecule inhibitors, cell-based therapies, and personalized medicine strategies catered to the unique patient profile are examples of emerging therapies [45]. Examining novel treatments from a forward-looking perspective underscores the constant evolution of autoimmune research and the potential of creative interventions to fundamentally alter clinical practice.

The section addresses the future directions of autoimmune therapeutics while navigating the challenges of converting scientific discoveries into treatments with a significant clinical impact. It addresses the challenges associated with developing new drugs, including concerns about safety, efficacy, patient selection, and individualized treatment plans. Furthermore, it emphasizes how crucial translational research initiatives, interdisciplinary cooperation, and the incorporation of cutting-edge technologies, such as genomics, proteomics, and bioinformatics, in fostering therapeutic innovation [41]. This section aims to promote a forward-thinking mindset among clinicians, researchers, and stakeholders by explaining the changing landscape of autoimmune therapeutics. This will help to

realize the potential of precision medicine and improve patient outcomes for patients with autoimmune disorders.

16. Conclusion

This conclusion summarizes the key findings on autoimmune immunopathogenesis and marks the end of the thorough review. It begins by providing readers with a clear summary of the key ideas discussed in the paper, thereby offering a comprehensive understanding of the complex interactions among genetic, environmental, and immunological factors that contribute to autoimmune diseases. The conclusion strengthens knowledge of autoimmune pathogenesis and its clinical implications for researchers, policymakers, and healthcare professionals by condensing complex ideas into easily understood summaries. Furthermore, the conclusion can be used to identify areas that warrant further research and analysis. The review aims to critically evaluate the current body of literature in the field of autoimmune immunopathogenesis, identifying any gaps, inconsistencies, or unanswered questions. The aforementioned gaps offer significant opportunities for forthcoming research endeavors, including the elucidation of novel molecular mechanisms and the development of innovative therapeutic interventions. The conclusion encourages a forward-looking viewpoint through careful consideration of potential future research avenues, stimulating ongoing scientific investigation and advancement in the field of autoimmune disorders. The conclusion emphasizes the critical need to expand our knowledge of autoimmune immunopathogenesis in its concluding remarks. It highlights the significant effects that autoimmune diseases have on people, families, and society as a whole, emphasizing the pressing need for coordinated efforts to identify the underlying mechanisms of these conditions. Through the examination of the intricate network of relationships that exist between immune dysregulation, environmental triggers, and genetic susceptibility, this review highlights the critical need for translational research, interdisciplinary cooperation, and patient-centered strategies in the management of autoimmune disorders. By doing so, the conclusion serves as a clear reminder of the importance of understanding and addressing autoimmune immunopathogenesis to enhance health outcomes.

Author Contributions

Conceptualization, I.I., A.Z., Z.S.K., A.E., and S.A.A.; validation, Z.S.K. and A.E.; formal analysis, I.I. and A.Z.; writing—original draft preparation, I.I., A.Z., and S.A.A.; writing—review and editing, Z.S.K. and A.E. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Funding

This work received no external funding.

Institutional Review Board Statement

Not applicable.

Informed Consent Statement

Not applicable.

Data Availability Statement

No new data was created.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

1. Neamțu, M.; Bild, V.; Vasincu, A.; et al. Inflammasome Molecular Insights in Autoimmune Diseases. *Curr. Issues Mol. Biol.* **2024**, *46*, 3502–3532.
2. Ramos, P. S.; Shedlock, A. M.; Langefeld, C. D. Genetics of Autoimmune Diseases: Insights from Population Genetics. *J. Hum. Genet.* **2015**, *60*, 657–664.

3. Houeiss, P.; Luce, S.; Boitard, C. Environmental Triggering of Type 1 Diabetes Autoimmunity. *Front. Endocrinol.* **2022**, *13*, 933965.
4. Long, A.; Kleiner, A.; Looney, R. J. Immune Dysregulation. *J. Allergy Clin. Immunol.* **2023**, *151*, 70–80.
5. Frazzei, G.; van Vollenhoven, R. F.; de Jong, B. A.; et al. Preclinical Autoimmune Disease: A Comparison of Rheumatoid Arthritis, Systemic Lupus Erythematosus, Multiple Sclerosis and Type 1 Diabetes. *Front. Immunol.* **2022**, *13*, 899372.
6. Sundaresan, B.; Shirafkan, F.; Ripperger, K.; et al. The Role of Viral Infections in the Onset of Autoimmune Diseases. *Viruses* **2023**, *15*.
7. Fuschiotti, P. Current Perspectives on the Immunopathogenesis of Systemic Sclerosis. *Immunotargets Ther.* **2016**, *5*, 21–35.
8. Cusick, M. F.; Libbey, J. E.; Fujinami, R. S. Molecular Mimicry as a Mechanism of Autoimmune Disease. *Clin. Rev. Allergy Immunol.* **2012**, *42*, 102–111.
9. Thomas, O. G.; Rickinson, A.; Palendira, U. Epstein-Barr Virus and Multiple Sclerosis: Moving from Questions of Association to Questions of Mechanism. *Clin. Transl. Immunol.* **2023**, *12*, e1451.
10. Vahabi, M.; Ghazanfari, T.; Sepehrnia, S. Molecular Mimicry, Hyperactive Immune System, and SARS-COV-2 are Three Prerequisites of the Autoimmune Disease Triangle Following COVID-19 Infection. *Int. Immunopharmacol.* **2022**, *112*, 109183.
11. Olayinka, J. J. T.; Richmond, J. M. Immunopathogenesis of Alopecia Areata. *Curr. Res. Immunol.* **2021**, *2*, 7–11.
12. Timmermans, W. M.; van Laar, J. A.; van Hagen, P. M.; et al. Immunopathogenesis of Granulomas in Chronic Autoinflammatory Diseases. *Clin. Transl. Immunol.* **2016**, *5*, 118.
13. Chen, S.-J.; Lin, G.-J.; Chen, J.-W. Immunopathogenic Mechanisms and Novel Immune-Modulated Therapies in Rheumatoid Arthritis. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* **2019**, *20*, 1332.
14. Habibi, M. A.; Nezhad Shamohammadi, F.; Rajaei, T.; et al. Immunopathogenesis of Viral Infections in Neurological Autoimmune Disease. *BMC Neurol.* **2023**, *23*, 201.
15. Wysocki, T.; Olesińska, M.; Paradowska-Gorycka, A. Current Understanding of an Emerging Role of HLA-DRB1 Gene in Rheumatoid Arthritis-From Research to Clinical Practice. *Cells* **2020**, *9*, 1127.
16. Tizaoui, K.; Shin, J. I.; Jeong, G. H.; et al. Genetic Polymorphism of PTPN22 in Autoimmune Diseases: A Comprehensive Review. *Medicina* **2022**, *58*, 1034.
17. Moulton, V. R.; Suarez-Fueyo, A.; Meidan, E.; et al. Pathogenesis of Human Systemic Lupus Erythematosus: A Cellular Perspective. *Trends Mol. Med.* **2017**, *23*, 615–635.
18. Šutić Udović, I.; Hlača, N.; Massari, L. P.; et al. Deciphering the Complex Immunopathogenesis of Alopecia Areata. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* **2024**, *25*, 5652.
19. Thewissen, M.; Somers, V.; Venken, K.; et al. Analyses of Immunosenescent Markers in Patients with Autoimmune Disease. *Clin. Immunol.* **2007**, *123*, 209–218.
20. Vojdani, A.; Vojdani, E.; Rosenberg, A. Z.; et al. The Role of Exposomes in the Pathophysiology of Autoimmune Diseases II: Pathogens. *Pathophysiology* **2022**, *29*, 243–280.
21. Amedei, A.; Bergman, M. P.; Appelmelk, B. J.; et al. Molecular Mimicry between Helicobacter Pylori Antigens and H⁺, K⁺ -Adenosine Triphosphatase in Human Gastric Autoimmunity. *J. Exp. Med.* **2003**, *198*, 1147–1156.
22. Chen, L.; Deng, H.; Cui, H.; et al. Inflammatory Responses and Inflammation-Associated Diseases in Organs. *Oncotarget* **2018**, *9*, 7204–7218.
23. Jang, D. I.; Lee, A. H.; Shin, H. Y.; et al. The Role of Tumor Necrosis Factor Alpha (TNF- α) in Autoimmune Disease and Current TNF- α Inhibitors in Therapeutics. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* **2021**, *22*, 2719.
24. Xiao, Z. Nuclear Matrix Factor hnRNP U/SAF-A Exerts a Global Control of Alternative Splicing by Regulating U2 snRNP Maturation. *Mol. Cell* **2012**, *45*, 656–668. [[CrossRef](#)]
25. Hu, X.; Li, J.; Fu, M.; et al. The JAK/STAT Signaling Pathway: From Bench to Clinic. *Signal Transduct. Target. Ther.* **2021**, *6*, 402.
26. Dendrou, C. A.; Fugger, L.; Friese, M. A. Immunopathology of Multiple Sclerosis. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.* **2015**, *15*, 545–558.
27. Dinarello, C. A. Interleukin-1 in the Pathogenesis and Treatment of Inflammatory Diseases. *Blood* **2011**, *117*, 3720–3732.
28. Strober, W.; Fuss, I. J. Proinflammatory Cytokines in the Pathogenesis of Inflammatory Bowel Diseases. *Gastroenterology* **2011**, *140*, 1756–1767.
29. Tichauer, J. E.; Arellano, G.; Acuña, E.; et al. Interferon-Gamma Ameliorates Experimental Autoimmune Encephalomyelitis by Inducing Homeostatic Adaptation of Microglia. *Front. Immunol.* **2023**, *14*, 1191838.
30. Antonelli, A.; Ferrari, S. M.; Corrado, A.; et al. Autoimmune Thyroid Disorders. *Autoimmun. Rev.* **2015**, *14*,

- 174–180.
31. Hansen, M.; Cheever, A.; Weber, K. S.; et al. Characterizing the Interplay of Lymphocytes in Graves' Disease. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* **2023**, *24*, 6835.
 32. Fröhlich, E.; Wahl, R. Thyroid Autoimmunity: Role of Anti-Thyroid Antibodies in Thyroid and Extra-Thyroidal Diseases. *Front. Immunol.* **2017**, *8*, 521.
 33. Berentsen, S.; Sundic, T. Red Blood Cell Destruction in Autoimmune Hemolytic Anemia: Role of Complement and Potential New Targets for Therapy. *Biomed. Res. Int.* **2015**, *2015*, 363278.
 34. Hirayama, D.; Iida, T.; Nakase, H. The Phagocytic Function of Macrophage—Enforcing Innate Immunity and Tissue Homeostasis. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* **2017**, *19*.
 35. Rother, R. P.; Bell, L.; Hillmen, P.; et al. The Clinical Sequelae of Intravascular Hemolysis and Extracellular Plasma Hemoglobin—A Novel Mechanism of Human Disease. *JAMA* **2005**, *293*, 1653–1662.
 36. Gámez-Díaz, L.; Grimbacher, B. Immune Checkpoint Deficiencies and Autoimmune Lymphoproliferative Syndromes. *Biomed. J.* **2021**, *44*, 400–411.
 37. Michalak, S. S.; Olewicz-Gawlik, A.; Rupa-Matysek, J.; et al. Autoimmune Hemolytic Anemia: Current Knowledge and Perspectives. *Immun. Ageing* **2020**, *17*, 38.
 38. Kim, W.; Kim, S. H.; Kim, H. J. New Insights into Neuromyelitis Optica. *J. Clin. Neurol.* **2011**, *7*, 115–127.
 39. Levy, M.; Wildemann, B.; Jarius, S.; et al. Chapter Six – Immunopathogenesis of Neuromyelitis Optica. In *Advances in Immunology*; Alt, F. W., Ed.; Academic Press: Cambridge, MA, USA, 2014; Vol. 121, pp 213–242.
 40. Jarius, S.; Wildemann, B.; Paul, F. Neuromyelitis Optica: Clinical Features, Immunopathogenesis and Treatment. *Clin. Exp. Immunol.* **2014**, *176*, 149–164.
 41. Haq, S. A.; Tournadre, A. Idiopathic Inflammatory Myopathies: From Immunopathogenesis to New Therapeutic Targets. *Int. J. Rheum. Dis.* **2015**, *18*, 818–825.
 42. Shih, D. Q.; Targan, S. R. Immunopathogenesis of Inflammatory Bowel Disease. *World J. Gastroenterol.* **2008**, *14*, 390–400.
 43. André, S.; Tough, D. F.; Lacroix-Desmazes, S. Surveillance of Antigen-Presenting Cells by CD4+ CD25+ Regulatory T Cells in Autoimmunity: Immunopathogenesis and Therapeutic Implications. *Am. J. Pathol.* **2009**, *174*, 1575–1587.
 44. Varani, S.; Landini, M. P. Cytomegalovirus-Induced Immunopathology and Its Clinical Consequences. *Herpesviridae*, **2011**, *2*, 6.
 45. Liu, X.; Hou, Y.; Peng, J. Advances in Immunopathogenesis of Adult Immune Thrombocytopenia. *Front. Med.* **2013**, *7*, 418–424.



Copyright © 2025 by the author(s). Published by UK Scientific Publishing Limited. This is an open access article under the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

Publisher's Note: The views, opinions, and information presented in all publications are the sole responsibility of the respective authors and contributors, and do not necessarily reflect the views of UK Scientific Publishing Limited and/or its editors. UK Scientific Publishing Limited and/or its editors hereby disclaim any liability for any harm or damage to individuals or property arising from the implementation of ideas, methods, instructions, or products mentioned in the content.