RHEUMATOID ARTHRITIS: UNRAVELING PATHOPHYSIOLOGY, CLINICAL MANIFESTATIONS, AND THERAPEUTIC APPROACHES.

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ABSTRACT:

Rheumatoid arthritis (RA) is a chronic, inflammatory autoimmune disorder primarily affecting the joints, with potential systemic involvement. This review provides a comprehensive overview of RA, covering its pathophysiology, clinical manifestations, risk factors, and current management strategies. The pathogenesis of RA involves a complex interplay of genetic, environmental, and immunological factors leading to synovial inflammation and joint destruction. Clinically, RA presents with symmetrical joint pain, swelling, stiffness, and may include extra-articular manifestations. Risk factors include genetic predisposition, gender, age, smoking, and obesity, among others. Early diagnosis and intervention are crucial for preventing irreversible joint damage and improving long-term outcomes. Current management approaches emphasize a combination of pharmacologic therapies, including disease-modifying antirheumatic drugs (DMARDs) and biologics, alongside non-pharmacologic strategies such as physical therapy and lifestyle modifications. Advances in biologic therapies have significantly improved the prognosis for RA patients. This review highlights the importance of multidisciplinary care and the role of emerging therapies in enhancing patient outcomes. Future research directions include exploring personalized medicine approaches and understanding the long-term effects of novel treatments.

Keywords: Rheumatoid Arthritis, Cytokines, Disease-Modifying Antirheumatic Drugs, Biologic Therapy

INTRODUCTION:

Rheumatoid arthritis (RA) is an autoimmune condition characterised by a chronic inflammatory arthritis. If inadequately treated it results in joint destruction with subsequent deformity, disability and substantial socio-economic costs. RA affects 0.5–1% of the population in the UK and healthcare costs reach an estimated £560 million annually (National Audit Office). Fortunately, the overall prognosis for RA has improved dramatically in recent years owing to innovative research and advances in available therapies.[¹]

Since rheumatoid arthritis (RA) is a chronic condition that worsens over time despite a range of treatment options, a combination of medicines will likely be required for long-term management. The patient's reaction to therapy, the rate at which the disease progresses, and a thorough understanding of the roles that various therapies play along treatment pathways will all play a significant role in determining the best therapeutic sequence plan. Thus, assessing long-term RA therapy regimens requires a special understanding of the efficacy of various therapeutic sequences.[²]

The most prevalent systemic auto-immune illness (affecting 0.5% of the population) is rheumatoid arthritis. It primarily affects women in their sixties, though both sexes might experience it at any age. Patients with rheumatoid arthritis had an extra relative risk of 28% over the general population when it comes to all malignancies, as reported by Mercer et al.¹ ten years ago. However, because of inadequate follow-up, the calculation was imprecise for rare cancers. This risk is primarily associated with certain cancers, including skin cancers, Hodgkin's and non-Hodgkin's lymphomas, and lung cancer.[³]

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY:

The pathophysiology of rheumatoid arthritis (RA) involves a series of immunological events beginning with an antigen that activates T lymphocytes (T-cells). These activated T-cells then stimulate B cells to produce IgM antibodies, leading to the formation of antigen-antibody complexes. These complexes trigger the release of inflammatory chemicals like interleukins (IL) and tumor necrosis factor (TNF) from inflammatory cells. The resulting inflammation causes damage to the synovial cavity and the erosion of cartilage. This inflammation also leads to swelling in the synovial membrane and pain around the joints, ultimately resulting in rheumatoid arthritis.
**Risk Factors:**

1. Genetics: Certain genes, particularly the HLA-DR4 allele, increase the risk of developing RA.
2. Gender: Women are more likely to develop RA than men.
3. Age: RA can occur at any age, but it most commonly begins between the ages of 40 and 60.
4. Family History: Having a family member with RA increases your risk.
5. Smoking: Smoking significantly increases the risk and severity of RA.
6. Obesity: Being overweight or obese can increase the risk of developing RA.
7. Environmental Exposures: Exposure to certain environmental factors, such as silica dust or asbestos, can increase the risk.
8. Infections: Some infections, particularly those affecting the respiratory system, might trigger RA in susceptible individuals.

**Causes:**

The exact cause of RA is unknown, but it is believed to result from a combination of genetic and environmental factors that trigger an abnormal immune response. Key aspects include:

1. Immune System Malfunction: RA is an autoimmune disease where the immune system mistakenly attacks the synovium (the lining of the membranes that surround the joints), leading to inflammation and joint damage.
2. Genetic Predisposition: Certain genetic markers, like the HLA-DR4 allele, are associated with an increased risk of RA.
3. Environmental Triggers: Infections and exposure to certain substances can trigger the onset of RA in genetically susceptible individuals.
4. Hormonal Factors: Hormonal changes, such as those related to pregnancy or menopause, might influence the development of RA.
5. Microbiome: Alterations in the gut microbiota may play a role in the development and progression of RA.

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**PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF RA**

Antigen.

T lymphocytes (T-cells) binding to antigen and t-cell activation.

B cell activation leading to formation of IgM antibody.

Antigen-Antibody Reaction.

Formation of Immune complex.

Release of Inflammatory chemicals (e.g., IL, NF etc) from inflammatory cells.

Inflammatory damage to synovial cavity.

Destruction (erosion) of cartilage.

Inflammation leads to swelling in synovial membrane and pain around joints.

RHEUMATOID ARTHRITIS
SYMPTOMS OF RHEUMATOID ARTHRITIS

TREATMENT:

➢ First-Line Management: NSAIDS and Corticosteroids
First-line therapy aims to reduce inflammation and relieve discomfort generally. Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), such as acetylsalicylate (Aspirin), naproxen (Naprosyn), ibuprofen (Advil and Motrin), and etodolac (Lodine), are medications that are regarded as fast-acting. Because aspirin inhibits prostaglandins, it can be administered at large doses as an effective anti-inflammatory for RA. It's among the first NSAIDs for treating joint discomfort. High doses of aspirin can cause gastrointestinal discomfort, tinnitus, and hearing loss. Aspirin is not the only NSAID available; there are other, more recent, and equally effective options. These medications also require fewer daily doses. NSAIDs prevent the formation of prostaglandins, prostacyclins, and thromboxanes by blocking cyclo-oxygenase. GI bleeding, stomach discomfort, nausea, and ulcers are typical adverse effects. If misoprostol (Cytotec), antacids, proton pump inhibitors, or meals are taken together, these symptoms may be lessened. A more recent NSAID with a lower incidence of GI side effects is celecoxib (Celebrex), a selective Cox – 2 inhibitor[4].

NSAIDs are less effective as anti-inflammatory drugs than corticosteroids, but corticosteroids have more adverse effects. Because of this, they should only be used briefly, at modest doses, during RA flare-ups or exacerbations. Corticosteroid intra-articular injections may be utilized to treat localized inflammatory symptoms [5]. They function by stopping phospholipids from being released and reducing eosinophil activity, both of which reduce inflammation. Immunosuppression, weight gain, diabetes, and bone weakening are among of their adverse consequences. The patient's bone loss can be avoided by prescribing calcium and vitamin D supplements. As a patient gets well, dosages can be gradually tapered off to minimize side effects. The hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis (HPA) may be suppressed or RA flares may result from abruptly stopping oral or injectable corticosteroids[6].

➢ Opioid Analgesics
The issue of whether or not to provide opiate analgesics to individuals suffering from RA pain was discussed by Whittle et al. [7]. Based on their findings, mild opioids like codeine, dextropropoxyphene, and tramadol might be useful in the short term for treating RA pain, but the risks outweigh the benefits. They advise looking into other analgesics initially [8].

➢ Second-Line Management: Disease-Modifying Antirheumatic Drugs
The overarching objective of second-line therapy is to induce remission by impeding or halting the advancement of joint deformity and destruction. Since medications take weeks or months to start working, they are referred to as slow-acting. The chance of getting lymphoma, which is linked to RA, can also be decreased by taking disease-modifying antirheumatic medications (DMARDs) [9].

The first second-line medication is methotrexate (MTX), which is also referred to as an anchor medicine. It is a folic acid analog that competently inhibits dihydrofolate acid’s (FH2) binding to the enzyme that turns FH2 into folinic acid (FH4). In the absence of FH4, amino acid and polyamine synthesis is hindered and purine and pyrimidine metabolism is compromised. Due to its immunosuppressive adverse effects, such as cirrhosis, liver issues, and bone marrow degradation, MTX is a medication that necessitates routine blood tests. Supplementing with folic acid can lower the possibility of adverse consequences. In comparison to other DMARDs, it is an effective DMARD with a lower frequency of side effects and dosage flexibility, allowing doses to be changed as necessary [10].

As of right currently, strong evidence supports the advantages of standard synthetic DMARD combos over MTX monotherapy. Nevertheless, a combination of synthetic and biological DMARDs is said to be superior than MTX, but at a higher cost and with more adverse effects [11,12,13].
An antiinflammatory medication called hydroxychloroquine, or Plaquenil, can be used to treat RA over the long term. This medication reduces the release of proinflammatory cytokines generated from monocytes. Issues with the skin, central nervous system, and gastrointestinal tract are typical adverse effects. When this medication is used in large amounts, it can specifically harm the eyes. Patients using this drug should see an ophthalmologist on a regular basis [14]. A DMARD called sulfasalazine, also known as azulfidine, is commonly used to treat irritable bowel syndrome. This DMARD can be used in conjunction with anti-inflammatory drugs to treat RA. There is no known mechanism of action for this medication when treating RA. Sulfapyridine, the medication's decreased form after delivery, is hypothesized to lower interleukin (IL)-8 and monocyte chemoattractant protein (MCP) secretions. This medication has dermatitis, GI, and central nervous system side effects. Although it is generally well taken by patients, because it includes both sulfa and salicylate components, it should be avoided by those who have sulfa allergies [15].

- **Newer Medications**

Oral drug leflunomide is transformed into mononitrilamide, which prevents uridine monophosphate pyrimidine ribonucleotide synthesis from occurring. It reduces RA symptoms and slows the disease's progression. Although it is advised to be used in conjunction with MTX, in cases where patients do not respond to MTX, it may be administered as a monotherapy. Hypertension, gastrointestinal distress, liver damage, leukopenia, interstitial lung disease, neuropathy, rash, and bone marrow damage are a few of the side effects [16, 17].

Biological DMARDs, or biologics, are a class of medication that can effectively slow down the advancement of RA-induced joint deterioration. They are thought to be a more “defined, direct, and targeted” kind of therapy [18]. A messenger protein called tumor necrosis factor (TNF) causes inflammation in the joints. Biosimilar drugs include certolizumab pegol (Cimzia), adalimumab (Humira), etanercept (Enbrel), infliximab (Remicade), and golimumab (Simponi) are TNF inhibitors that stop the recruitment of inflammatory cells, resulting in quick symptom alleviation. If other second-line drugs are ineffective, they are advised. Regrettably, the cost of these drugs is sometimes very high, and research on how well they work to treat patients with different RA stages and different mechanisms of action is ongoing. They frequently work in tandem with other DMARDs, particularly MTX. Patients with demyelinating disorders or congestive heart failure should not take TNF inhibitors. The manner of administration varies depending on the biologic medicine [19–21].

Because it reduces the number of B cells that produce inflammation and the creation of aberrant antibodies, rituximab (also known as rittuxan) is helpful in treating RA. This medication is usually used to treat lymphoma, but it can also be used to treat RA when TNF inhibitors have not worked. Rituximab has also demonstrated efficacy in the treatment of cryoglobulinemia and vasculitis, two other RA side effects. Every six months, it is infused intravenously in two doses separated by two weeks [22, 23]. A biologic drug called abatacept (Orencia) inhibits T cell activation. This is administered subcutaneously once a week or as an IV infusion once a month. Patients who have not responded well to conventional DMARD treatment are prescribed it [24]. A biologic called tocilizumab (Actemra) functions by obstructing IL-6, an inflammatory chemical messenger. It is injected subcutaneously once a week or provided as a monthly intravenous infusion. Additionally, individuals who have not responded well to conventional DMARD treatment are given it [25].

- **Surgery**

The 1990s saw a high in the number of RA patients undergoing joint surgery. Nonetheless, a 2010 study found that among RA patients aged 40 to 59, fewer had joint surgery. On the other hand, patients over 60 had higher surgical rates [26]. The final option for treating RA is surgery. When all nonsurgical measures have failed, indications may include intractable joint pain or functional loss brought on by joint damage. The illness is now regarded as being in its "end-stage." Restoring joint function and relieving the patient's discomfort are the two main objectives of surgical care. Because there are numerous varieties of surgery, a patient in need of treatment should be assessed according to their unique demands.

An alternative to surgical synovectomy is radiosynovectomy, which is less expensive, treats many joints at once, and entails intra-articular injection of tiny radioactive particles [27]. Arthroscopy is another method for repairing torn tendons; this procedure is most frequently used to repair the rotator cuff in the shoulder. Because there are now more efficient alternatives, the excision of an inflammatory synovium by arthroscopy or open synovectomy is no longer frequently performed. Osteotomy is an additional surgical option. Weight-bearing bones are corrected in this operation to treat abnormalities of the varus or valgus, most commonly in the knee [28].

Ankle, wrist, thumb, and cervical spine joints are among the joints that can be stabilized via joint fusion. Severe contractures around joints that limit range of motion can be corrected using a soft-tissue release operation, an older technique that is not widely used [29]. Pain relief and improved hand function can be achieved with small-joint implant arthroplasty, most frequently in the metacarpophalangeal joints. For severe forefront pain, metatarsal-head excision arthroplasty is performed. Last but not least, a total joint replacement entails taking out the injured joint and putting in a prosthetic made of metal, plastic, or ceramic material. The shoulder, elbow, wrist, hip, knee, and ankle are the most often affected areas [30, 31]. An active systemic articular infection is the main reason to forego joint replacements.

- **Other Therapies**

Contrary to previous recommendations, it has been discovered that there are no particular foods that RA sufferers should avoid. It is no longer acknowledged that a certain diet can cause symptoms to worsen [32]. For RA patients, home treatments have been shown to be beneficial, however they are not as successful as DMARDs. For the acute symptoms of RA, fish oils and omega-3 fatty acid supplements are helpful. Patients with this illness have demonstrated to benefit from cumin's anti-inflammatory properties. Supplementation with calcium and vitamin D can help prevent osteoporosis. Finally, folic acid has the potential to mitigate MTX adverse effects [33].

Occupational and physical therapy are beneficial for patients with RA as well. It is advised that they engage in regular exercise to keep their joints mobile and to build stronger surrounding muscles. Tai chi, yoga, and swimming are examples of movement workouts that are beneficial for building muscle strength but less taxing on the joints. Painful symptoms can be reduced by using heat- and cold-packs before and after exercise. Research is being conducted on various forms of collagen found in connective tissue in an effort to better understand and lower the activity of RA disease. Finally, more effective treatment alternatives ought to become accessible soon due to scientific discoveries and a deeper comprehension of molecular mechanisms [34].
CONCLUSION:

Rheumatoid arthritis (RA) remains a complex and challenging autoimmune disorder with significant clinical, economic, and social implications. Despite advances in understanding its pathophysiology and the development of targeted therapies, RA continues to impose a substantial burden on patients and healthcare systems worldwide. Early diagnosis and intervention are crucial in managing the disease effectively, minimizing joint damage, and improving long-term outcomes.

The integration of genetic, environmental, and lifestyle factors in the pathogenesis of RA highlights the need for a multifaceted approach to treatment and prevention. Advances in biologic and targeted synthetic disease-modifying antirheumatic drugs (DMARDs) have revolutionized RA management, offering significant improvements in disease control and quality of life. However, challenges such as treatment resistance, adverse effects, and access to care persist.

Future research should focus on identifying novel biomarkers for early diagnosis, understanding the mechanisms underlying treatment resistance, and developing more personalized therapeutic strategies. Additionally, public health initiatives aimed at reducing modifiable risk factors, such as smoking cessation and obesity management, could play a vital role in decreasing the incidence and severity of RA.

In summary, while significant progress has been made in the management of RA, ongoing research and innovation are essential to fully unravel the complexities of the disease and to provide optimal care for all individuals affected by RA. Collaborative efforts among researchers, clinicians, and patients will be key to advancing our knowledge and improving outcomes in this debilitating condition.

REFERENCE:


