

Chronic Fatigue Syndrome: Characteristics and Possible Causes for its Pathogenesis

Nicola Bassi MD¹, Daniela Amital MD², Howard Amital MD³, Andrea Doria MD¹ and Yehuda Shoenfeld MD^{4*}

¹Department of Rheumatology, University of Padova, Padova, Italy

²Department of Psychiatry B, Ness Ziona Mental Health Center, Ness Ziona, and Sackler Faculty of Medicine, Tel Aviv University, Ramat Aviv, Israel

³Department of Psychiatry A, Sheba Medical Center, Tel Hashomer, and Sackler Faculty of Medicine, Tel Aviv University

⁴Department of Medicine B and Center for Autoimmune Diseases, Sheba Medical Center, Tel Hashomer, and Sackler Faculty of Medicine, Tel Aviv University, Israel

Key words: chronic fatigue syndrome, fibromyalgia, Gulf War syndrome, Sjögren's syndrome, neuropeptides, vasoactive neuropeptides

Abstract

Chronic fatigue syndrome is a heterogeneous disorder with unknown pathogenesis and etiology, characterized by disabling fatigue, difficulty in concentration and memory, and concomitant skeletal and muscular pain. Several mechanisms have been suggested to play a role in CFS, such as excessive oxidative stress following exertion, immune imbalance characterized by decreased natural killer cell and macrophage activity, immunoglobulin G subclass deficiencies (IgG1, IgG3) and decreased serum concentrations of complement component. Autoantibodies were also suggested as a possible factor in the pathogenesis of CFS. Recent studies indicate that anti-serotonin, anti-microtubule-associated protein 2 and anti-muscarinic cholinergic receptor 1 may play a role in the pathogenesis of CFS. It has been demonstrated that impairment in vasoactive neuropeptide metabolism may explain the symptoms of CFS.

IMAJ 2008;10:79–82

Chronic fatigue syndrome is a heterogeneous disorder affecting more than 267 per 100,000 people [1]. It has been estimated that in the United States approximately 1 million people suffer from CFS symptoms [2]. The reported prevalence of CFS is 0.2–2.6%, with women being affected almost twice as often as men [3]. A similar prevalence was found in different geographic locations and in diverse ethnic groups [4].

The pathophysiology and etiology of CFS are unknown, because there are no characteristic physical signs or diagnostic laboratory abnormalities [5]. It is defined by self-reported symptoms and disability, but only about 1% of the patients who are given the diagnosis in primary care settings meet the criteria for CFS [6]. CFS patients suffer from disabling fatigue, headaches and concentration difficulties and memory deficits (90%). Additional symptoms are often observed, such as sore throat (85%), tender lymph nodes (80%), skeletal muscle pain and feverishness (75%),

sleep disruption (70%), psychiatric problems (65%), and rapid pulse (10%) [3]. Due to these complaints patients often face social problems, the loss of jobs and the break-up of marriages [7].

The diagnosis of CFS is complex due to its similarity with other ill-defined disorders, such as fibromyalgia, Gulf War syndrome and Sjögren's syndrome [8]. In 1994 Fukuda et al. [9] reported the significant overlap between CFS and fibromyalgia, and considered CFS as a subclass of prolonged fatigue. They proposed a method for obtaining the correct diagnosis: a patient must present four or more symptoms concurrently for at least 6 months. These criteria are: a) a coexisting medical or neuropsychiatric condition that does not explain the chronic fatigue; b) the level of fatigue, including subjective and performance aspects; c) the total duration of fatigue; and d) the level of overall functional performance [9]. Characteristics excluding patients from CFS include active medications, past or current major depressive disorders, alcohol abuse, and severe obesity [9]. However, some of the criteria are difficult to interpret [10], and opinions differ regarding the classification of chronic fatigue cases with a history of psychiatric illnesses [11]. All these evaluations can be performed with available instruments [12], as well as the Medical Outcomes Study Short Form 36 [13] and the Sickness Impact Profile [14].

Effect of exercise in CFS patients

CFS patients suffer from exacerbated fatigue after physical exertion, and can do exercise less often and to a lesser intensity than healthy controls [15]. It has been hypothesized that cytokines may mediate some of the symptoms and immunological disturbances [16]. But other studies failed to demonstrate abnormal cytokine concentrations in CFS patients compared to healthy subjects, at rest [16,17], and the only elevation was in transforming growth factor-beta levels [16]. Higher levels of TGFβ were found in CFS patients immediately and within 40 minutes at rest after mild exercise (walking 1 mph for 30 min) [18]

* Incumbent of the Laura Schwarz-Kipp Chair for Research of Autoimmune Diseases, Tel Aviv University.

CFS = chronic fatigue syndrome

IgG = immunoglobulin G

TGFβ = transforming growth factor

Also, cerebral perfusion defects were often recorded, but no relationship was found between the detected perfusion defects and TGF β levels [18]. Patarka [19] demonstrated higher serum levels of interleukin-4 and interferon-gamma and lower levels of TGF β . Fulle and co-authors [20] showed a dysregulation of the Na⁺/K⁺ and Ca²⁺-ATPase pumps and alterations in ryanodine channels in sarcoplasmic reticulum membranes in CFS patients. Extracellular K⁺ accumulation can induce a negative feedback signal for sarcolemma excitability [21], and dysregulation of the pump activities can cause increased sarcoplasmic reticulum membrane fluidity [20], leading to the formation of lipid hydroperoxides [22]. All these alterations in muscle excitability can cause post-exercise oxidative stress, explaining muscle pain and post-exertional malaise reported by the patients [23]. The oxidative stress can be generated by a lower maximal aerobic capacity and by a reduced baseline oxygen uptake by tissues that occurs in CFS patients [23].

Infections and CFS

CFS was first described in the 1980s and was thought to be the consequence of a viral or bacterial infection, because of the patients' immunological findings. One of the first suspected pathogens was Epstein-Barr virus, because patients often have higher titers of IgM to the EBV viral capsid antigen [3]. Also, antibodies against cytomegalovirus [3] and human herpes virus-6 [3] were detected more often in CFS patients, although other reports failed to repeat these results [3]. Another virus family studied as a possible cause of CFS is the enterovirus, since RNA copies were detected in muscle biopsies of CFS patients but not in a healthy control group [3]. In other studies no association between enteroviruses and serological tests was recorded [3]. Parvovirus B19 is considered one of the most probable causes of CFS, based on several case reports of patients with a chronic course of fatigue after infection, fulfilling the criteria for CFS diagnosis [3]. In addition, a higher prevalence of Mycoplasma infections has been reported in CFS patients than in healthy subjects [3].

Gene expression in CFS patients

It has been proposed that the integration of gene expression with clinical and epidemiological data in CFS patients can be used to identify CFS subgroups. But results are inconsistent and controversial. Vernon and team [24] showed that peripheral blood mononuclear cell gene expression can distinguish the majority of CFS cases from non-fatigue controls. A year later, the same group investigated levels of gene expression in 23 individuals with CFS, concluding that the heterogeneity of CFS, which is often associated with various metabolic perturbations, results in a differential gene expression [25].

Kaushik et al. [26] showed that CFS patients have reproducible alterations in gene regulations. They revealed differential expression of 35 genes, confirming with real-time polymerase chain reaction the same results in 16 of these

genes. Their suggested gene profile is associated with T cell activation and perturbation of neuronal and mitochondrial functions [26].

Nevertheless, no clear association between gene expression and individual symptom domains was found by other researchers, suggesting that CFS symptomatology probably cannot be elucidated by individual laboratory tests or gene expression [27].

Role of the immune system in CFS

CFS patients present an immune imbalance, characterized by a decreased function in NK cells and macrophages, reduced mitogenic response of lymphocytes, IgG subclass deficiencies (IgG1, IgG3) and decreased complement levels [28]. But no evidence of a clear link between abnormal immunity and CFS was established [29].

It was previously found that 52% of CFS patients have autoantibodies to components of the nuclear envelope, in particular to nuclear envelope laminin B1 molecule [1]. This same group suggested that autoantibodies to insoluble cellular antigens are a unique feature that might help to distinguish CFS from other rheumatic autoimmune diseases [6]. Plioplys [30] did not find a pathogenic role for antinuclear antibodies or antimuscle autoantibodies in this disorder. Recently, Nishikai [31] demonstrated that there are several antinuclear antibodies, and in CFS the antinuclear antibody is specific against the anti-68/48 kD protein antibody. No antibodies to dsDNA were found [1,32]. Young patients (age 18–29 years) with CFS present antibodies to ssDNA, but these results were not confirmed by other groups [32]. Moreover, these authors demonstrated that CFS patients are significantly positive for microtubulin-associated protein 2 antibodies, when compared with healthy controls, particularly subjects who are affected for more than 5 years ($P = 0.025$) [32]. No association was found between CFS and Sm, U1-RNP, SS-A/Ro, SS-B/La, Scl-70 and centromere antibodies [32]. Sirois and Natelson [8] detected anti-SSA and anti-SSB, implying that a subset of patients with CFS may have primary Sjögren's syndrome. Hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis abnormalities have also been linked to CFS [9,33], raising the possibility that this dysfunction is associated with depression [33].

Several years ago it was postulated that antiphospholipid antibodies that were previously detected in CFS patients may have a pathogenetic role. Antiphospholipid antibodies were found in CFS patients only in 1995, by Klein and Berq [34], and then confirmed in 1998 by Heller and team [35]. Moreover, there is evidence that antibodies to neurotransmitters – such as serotonin [34,35], adrenals [36], adrenocorticotropin hormone [37], and receptors like muscarinic cholinergic receptor 1 and mu-opioid receptor 1 – play an important role in the pathogenesis of CFS [38]. The most prominent of these autoantibodies are anti-serotonin [34,35], anti-CHRM1 [38] and MAP2 [32]. Indeed, levels

NK = natural killer

CHRM1 = muscarinic cholinergic receptor 1

MAP2 = anti-microtubule-associated protein 2

EBV = Epstein-Barr virus

of anti-MAP2 were significantly higher in CFS patients than in controls ($P = 0.003$) [32], and anti-CHRM1 ($P < 0.0001$) [38] and anti-serotonin antibodies were found in 62% of CFS patients [34,35].

Role of vasoactive neuropeptides in CFS

Vasoactive neuropeptides of the adenylate cyclase-activating type are small peptides formed by about 38 amino acids that exert effects on modulating and regulating biological systems. It has been proposed that they might have a role in the pathogenesis of CFS [7]. In fact, they are strongly preserved in evolutionary terms [7,39], resembling ancestral viral genes that have become incorporated into the human genome. Dysfunction of the immunological and anti-inflammatory role of vasoactive neuropeptides [7] may therefore contribute to the skeletal muscular pain. Moreover, vasoactive neuropeptides regulate the effect of nociception and the neuronal answer to external stimuli, modulating the receptors to neurotransmitters. One could therefore speculate that dysfunction to the CNS and abnormal hormonal regulation might cause depression and sleep disturbance [7].

Conclusions

CFS is a heterogeneous disorder with an unknown etiology that impairs concentration and sleep and causes muscular pain, leading to difficulties in patients' social life [7]. It is difficult to reach an accurate diagnosis due to the disorder's common characteristics with other diseases like fibromyalgia, Gulf War syndrome and Sjögren's syndrome [8]. Moreover, the criteria proposed for the diagnosis of CFS [9] are difficult to interpret [10], and opinions differ regarding the classification of chronic fatigue cases with a history of psychiatric illnesses [11].

Several factors have been related to the pathology of CFS, like anti-virus and autoantibodies, but the results from different studies are controversial and conflicting. It is therefore important to stratify the study groups in terms of symptoms, age, gender, duration of disease, and treatments for other disorders [9], and to investigate gene expression. Only some autoantibodies to neurotransmitters and their receptors were found to be significant in the pathogenesis of CFS [6,35,36]. It has been proposed that vasoactive neuropeptides may be related to all neurological and immunological dysfunctions, but the cause for the impaired functions of these neuropeptides has not been discovered [7].

Several reports suggest that symptoms of the Gulf War syndrome may be attributed to the vaccines that were administered to soldiers, for example, vaccination against anthrax [3,7]. It has been demonstrated that viral infections and some vaccinations induce a Th2 dominant response [3] and, when the response fails to be switched off, a chronic immune activation occurs and is clinically expressed as the symptomatology of CFS.

Further research is needed to understand the exact pathology of CFS and to clarify whether this disorder is truly a distinct one.

References

1. Konstantinov K, von Mikecz A, Buchwald D, Jones J, Gerace L, Tan EM. Autoantibodies to nuclear envelope antigens in chronic fatigue syndrome. *J Clin Invest* 1996;98:1888–96.
2. Emmert-Streib F. The chronic fatigue syndrome: a comparative pathway analysis. *J Comput Biol* 2007;14:961–72.
3. Shmuel A, Chapman J, Shoenfeld Y. Infection and vaccination in chronic fatigue syndrome: myth or reality? *Autoimmunity* 2007;40:48–53.
4. Steele L, Dobbins JG, Fukuda K, et al. The epidemiology of chronic fatigue in San Francisco. *Am J Med* 1998;105:83–90S.
5. Whistler T, Unger ER, Nisenbaum R, Vernon SD. Integration of gene expression, clinical, and epidemiologic data to characterize chronic fatigue syndrome. *J Transl Med* 2003;1:10–17.
6. von Mikecz A, Konstantinov K, Buchwald DS, Gerace L, Tan EM. High frequency of autoantibodies to insoluble cellular antigens in patients with chronic fatigue syndrome. *Arthritis Rheum* 1997;40:295–305.
7. Staines DR. *Chronic Fatigue Syndromes and Vasoactive Neuropeptide Autoimmunity*. Molendinar: Staines Publishing, 2006.
8. Sirois DA, Natelson B. Clinicopathological findings consistent with primary Sjogren's syndrome in a subset of patients diagnosed with chronic fatigue syndrome: preliminary observations. *J Rheumatol* 2001;28:126–31.
9. Fukuda K, Straus SE, Hickie I, Sharpe MC, Dobbins JG, Komaroff A; for the International Chronic Fatigue Syndrome Study Group. The chronic fatigue syndrome: a comprehensive approach to its definition and study. *Ann Intern Med* 1994;121:953–9.
10. Straus SE. Defining the chronic fatigue syndrome [Editorial]. *Arch Intern Med* 1992;152:1569–70.
11. Matthews DA, Lane TJ, Manu P. Definition of the chronic fatigue syndrome [Letter]. *Ann Intern Med* 1988;109:511–12.
12. Robins LN, Helzer JE, Croughan J, Ratcliff KS. National Institute of Mental Health Diagnostic Interview Schedule. Its history, characteristics, and validity. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1992;49:624–9.
13. Ware JE Jr, Sherbourne CD. The MOS 36-item short-form health survey (SF-36). I. Conceptual framework and item selection. *Med Care* 1992;30:473–3.
14. Bergner M, Bobbit RA, Carter WB, Gilson BS. The Sickness Impact Profile: development and final revision of a health status measure. *Med Care* 1981;XIX:787–805.
15. Peterson PK, Schenck CH, Sherman R. Chronic fatigue syndrome in Minnesota. *Minn Med* 1991;74:21–6.
16. Chao CC, Janoff EN, Hu S, et al. Altered cytokine release in peripheral blood mononuclear cell cultures from patients with the chronic fatigue syndrome. *Cytokine* 1991;3:292–8.
17. Straus SE, Dale JK, Peter JB, Dinarello CA. Circulating lymphokine levels in the chronic fatigue syndrome. *J Infect Dis* 1989;160:1085–6.
18. Peterson PK, Sirt SA, Grammith FC, et al. Effects of mild exercise on cytokines and cerebral blood flow in chronic fatigue syndrome patients. *Clin Diagn Lab Immunol* 1994;1:222–6.
19. Patarka R. Cytokines and chronic fatigue syndrome. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 2001;933:185–200.
20. Fulle S, Belia S, Vecchiet J, Morabito C, Vecchiet L, Fano G. Modification of the functional capacity of sarcoplasmic reticulum membranes in patients suffering from chronic fatigue syndrome. *Neuromuscul Disord* 2003;13:479–84.
21. Marcos E, Ribas J. Kinetics of plasma potassium concentrations during exhausting exercise in trained and untrained men. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 1995;71:207–14.
22. Murphy ME, Kehler JP. Oxidative stress and muscular dystrophy. *Chem Biol Interact* 1989;69:101–73.
23. James Y, Steinberg JG, Mambrini O, Brégeon F, Delliaux S. Chronic fatigue syndrome: assessment of increased oxidative

- stress and altered muscle excitability in response to incremental exercise. *J Intern Med* 2005;257:299–310.
24. Vernon SD, Unger ER, Dimulescu IM, Rajeevan M, Reeves WC. Utility of the blood for gene expression profiling and biomarker discovery in chronic fatigue syndrome. *Dis Markers* 2002;18:193–9.
 25. Whistler T, Unger ER, Nisembaum R, Vernon SD. Integration of gene expression, clinical, and epidemiologic data to characterize chronic fatigue syndrome. *J Transl Med* 2003;1:10–17.
 26. Kaushik N, Fear D, Richards SCM, et al. Gene expression in peripheral blood mononuclear cells from patients with chronic fatigue syndrome. *J Clin Pathol* 2005;58:826–32.
 27. Postel J, Boneva R, Lloyd A. Exploration of gene expression correlates of chronic unexplained fatigue using factor analysis. *Pharmacogenomics* 2006;7:441–4.
 28. Bates DW, Buchwald D, Lee J, et al. Clinical laboratory test findings in patients with chronic fatigue syndrome. *Arch Intern Med* 1995;155:97–103.
 29. Rasmussen ÅK, Nielsen H, Andersen V, et al. Chronic fatigue syndrome – a controlled cross sectional study. *J Rheumatol* 1994; 21:1527–31.
 30. Plioplys AV. Antimuscle and anti CNS circulating antibodies in chronic fatigue syndrome. *Neurology* 1997;48:1717–19.
 31. Nishikai M. Antinuclear antibodies in patients with chronic fatigue syndrome. *Nippon Rinsho* 2007;65:1067–70.
 32. Vernon SD, Reeves WC. Evaluation of autoantibodies to common and neuronal cell antigens in chronic fatigue syndrome. *J Autoimmune Dis* 2005;2:5–9.
 33. Van Den Eede F, Moorkens G, Van Houdenhove B, Cosyns P, Claes SJ. Hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis function in chronic fatigue syndrome. *Neuropsychobiology* 2007;55:112–20.
 34. Klein R, Berq PA. High incidence of antibodies to 5-hydroxytryptamine, gangliosides and phospholipids in patients with chronic fatigue and fibromyalgia syndrome and their relatives: evidences for a clinical entity of both disorders. *Eur J Med Res* 1995;1:21–6.
 35. Heller U, Becker EW, Zenner HP, Berg PA. Incidence and clinical relevance of antibodies to phospholipids, serotonin and ganglioside in patients with sudden deafness and progressive inner ear hearing loss. *HNO* 1998;46:583–6.
 36. Sterzl I, Fucikova T, Hrdá P, Matucha P, Zamrazie V. The fatigue syndrome in autoimmune thyroiditis with polyglandular activation of autoimmunity. *Vnitr Lek* 1998;44:456–60.
 37. Wheatland R. Chronic ACTH autoantibodies are a significant pathological factor in the disruption of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis in chronic fatigue syndrome, anorexia nervosa and major depression. *Med Hypotheses* 2005;65:287–95.
 38. Tanaka S, Kuratsune H, Hidaka Y, et al. Autoantibodies against muscarinic cholinergic receptor in chronic fatigue syndrome. *Int J Mol Med* 2003;12:225–30.
 39. Shintani N, Suetake S, Hashimoto H, et al. Neuroprotective action of endogenous PACAP in cultured rat cortical neurons. *Regul Pept* 2005;126:123–8.

Correspondence: Dr. Y. Shoenfeld, Head, Dept. of Medicine B, Sheba Medical Center, Tel Hashomer 52621. Israel.

Phone: (972-3) 530-2652

Fax: (972-3) 535-2855

email: shoenfel@post.tau.ac.il