

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY





Department of Veterinary microbiology, immunology public health (MIVP)

Diagnostic veterinary immunology
Course code: VeLT 3113

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VLT immunology



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1. introduction

Immunology:-Study of the components and function of the immune system.

- The immune system is defense system, which able to generate an enormous variety of cells and molecules capable of specifically recognizing and eliminating an apparently limitless variety of foreign invaders.
 - Molecules, cells, tissues and organs which provide non-specific and specific protection against.
 - **✓** Microorganisms

 These cells and molecules act together in a dynamic network whose complexity rivals in a similar way as of nervous system.

Function

- two related activities—recognition and response.
 - able to differentiate between foreign molecules and the body's own cells and proteins.

• Once a foreign organism has been recognized, recruits a variety of cells and molecules to mount an appropriate response, called an effector response, to eliminate or 5/6/2020 the organism.

- Later exposure to the same foreign organism induces a memory response,
 - characterized by a more rapid and heightened immune reaction.
- In some circumstances, the immune system fails to act as protector because of some deficiency in its components; at other times,
 - it becomes an aggressor and turns its awesome powers against its own host.

Historical back ground of immunology

- Immunology is young, even the word "immunology "did not known until,1910.
- It had been noticed for centuries that although many people died after exposure to a particular diseases, some survived and did not get sick when exposed the second time.

- I. Thucydides (historian ,concept of immunology)
- Thucydides described a plague (Yersinia pestis) in Athens, he wrote in 430 BC that only those who had recovered from the plague could nurse the sick because they would not contract the disease a second time.

 Although early societies recognized the phenomenon of immunity, almost two thousand years passed before the concept was successfully converted into medically effective practice.

II. Chinese and Turkeys

- The first recorded attempts to induce immunity deliberately were performed by the Chinese and Turkeys in the 15th century.
- Various reports suggest that the dried crusts derived from smallpox pustules were either;
 - inhaled into the nostrils or
 - inserted into small cuts in the skin which a technique called *variolation*).

Variolation vrs vaccination

- Small pox was one of the most feared diseases of human kind, killing huge numbers of people.
- At 11th century, the Chinese determined that persons who survived on attack of small pox would not get the diseases for the second time.
- There fore, in ancient china young children were infected with small pox using scabs from the pocks on the skin of an infected person.

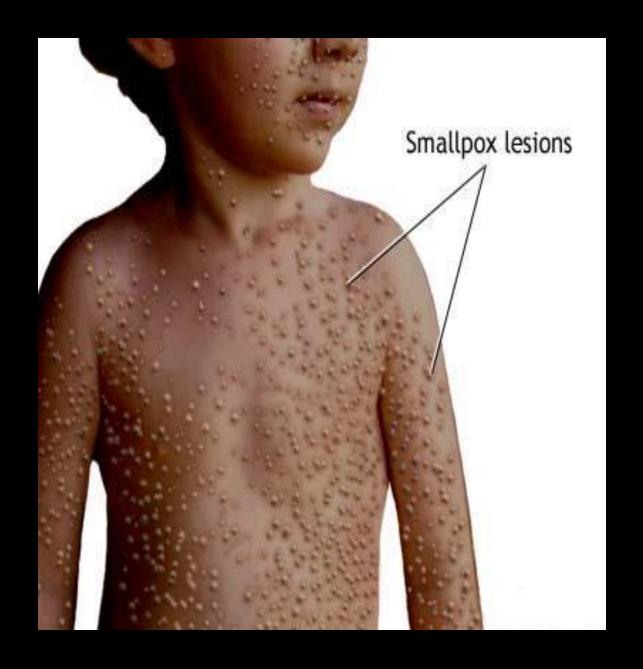
- The process of "variolation" involved exposing healthy
 people to material from the lesions caused by the disease,
 either by putting it under the skin, or,
 - more often, inserting powdered scabs from smallpox pustules into the nose.
- Variolation was known and practiced frequently in the Ottoman Empire around 1670.

III. Lady Mary Wortley Montague

• Variolation later became popular in England, mainly due to the efforts of Lady Mary Wortley Montague and the practice of variolation spread rapidly throughout England in the 1740s

The The The American colonies.

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IV. Edward Jenner

- Edward Jenner an England physician had observed that dairymaids and farmers were "fair skinned" and lacked that pock marked complexions of their fellow citizens.
- This observation led Jenner to conclude that the cattle workers had some how immune to small pox.
- In 1796, Jenner inoculated James Phipps with material obtained from a cowpox lesion that appeared on the

- Six weeks later, he inoculated the experimental subject with smallpox without producing disease.
 - Although this experiment justifiably lacked an appropriate control, further studies by Jenner established the efficacy of his vaccination procedure.
- Jenner's approach to small pox prevention was subsequently published and was quickly adopted in through out Europe.

V. Robert koch (after 88years from Jenner)

• in 1884 Robert koch proposed the germ theory of diseases which was the base of identification of infectious causes.

- Robert Koch, inoculated the ear of a rabbit with the blood of an animal that had died of anthrax.
- Collected isolated infected lymph nodes from the died rabbit. Inoculated to health one.

VI. Louis Pasteur

- Quite independently, Louis Pasteur "father of immunology" began his studies of the "chicken cholera bacillus."
- In his discovery, Pasteur accidentally left a flask of the bacillus on the bench over the summer and inoculated 8 chickens with this "old but viable" stock of chicken cholera bacillus.

- He found that not only did the chickens not die, but they did not even appear ill, Pasteur said that the virulent chicken cholera bacillus had become attenuated by sitting on the bench over the summer months.
- The similarity between these results and those of Jenner using vaccinia virus was immediately apparent to him.
- In honor of Jenner, Pasteur called his treatment vaccination.
- Pasteur later worked on anthrax and rabies and developed the first viable vaccine for anthrax and rabies.

- 7. Metchnikoff was the first to recognize the contribution of phagocytosis to the generation of immunity.
- 8. Paul Ehrlich predicted the existence of immune bodies (antibodies) and side-chains from which they arise (receptors).
 - Ehrlich surmised that erythrocytes would not have this capacity and speculated that this immune function might be a specialized characteristic or "haemopoietic tissue."

- 9. The first Nobel prize in Physiology or Medicine was awarded to "von Behring "for his work on serum therapy, especially its application against diphtheria, by which he has opened a new road in the domain of medical science and thereby placed in the hands of the physician a victorious weapon against illness and deaths."
- Metchnikoff and Ehrlich shared the Nobel prize in 1908 "in recognition of their work on immunity."

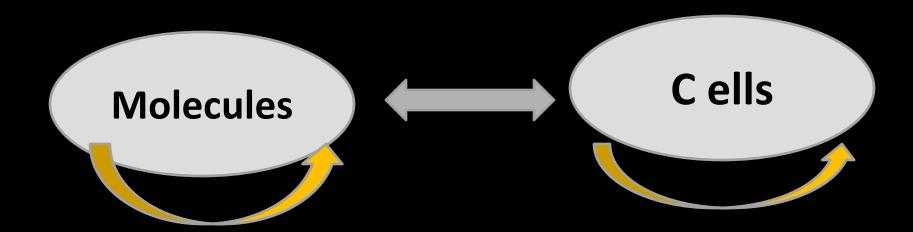
Summary of the state of immunology at the end of the 19th century

- 1. 1796-Edward Jenner (smallpox)
- 2. 1881-Loius Pasteur (vaccines)
- 3. 1884-Elie Metchnikoff (phagocytes)
- 4. 1890-Emil von Behring* (antibodies)
- 5. 1895-Jules Bordet* (complement)
- 6. 1959-Rodney Porter and Gerald Edelman* (antibodies)
- 7. 1960-F McFarlane Burnet* (tolerance)
- 8. 1975-Cesar Milstein*(monoclonal Ab)
- 9. 1987-Susumu Tonegawa* (genetics)
- 10.1996-Peter Doherty and Rolf Zinkernagel* (MHC)

Overview of the immune system

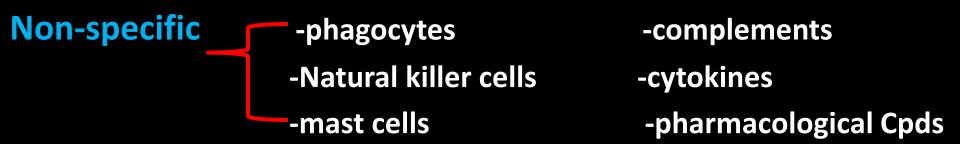
Immune response /immunity has two components :-

- cells and molecules
- They communicate with each other;
- Also communicate between their own kinds.



- Immunity is classified in to two major groups.
 - Non specific immunity
 - Specific immunity





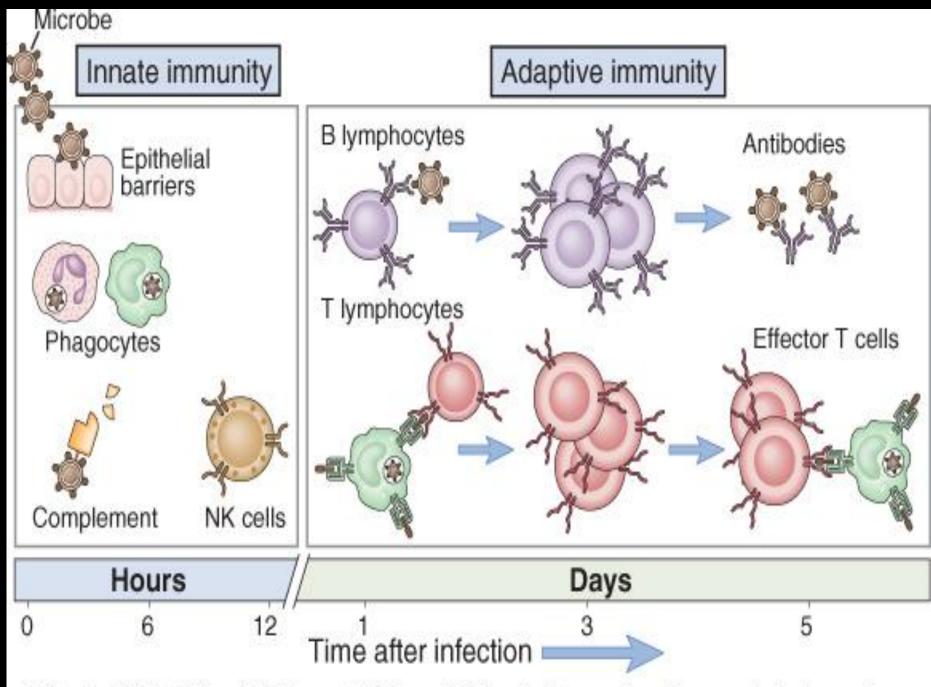
Types of the immunity /immune response

1. Natural /innate/non-clonal/non-adaptive immunity

- Present in a constituent way
- Aseptic
- Has no memory

2.Acquired /clonal/adaptive immunity

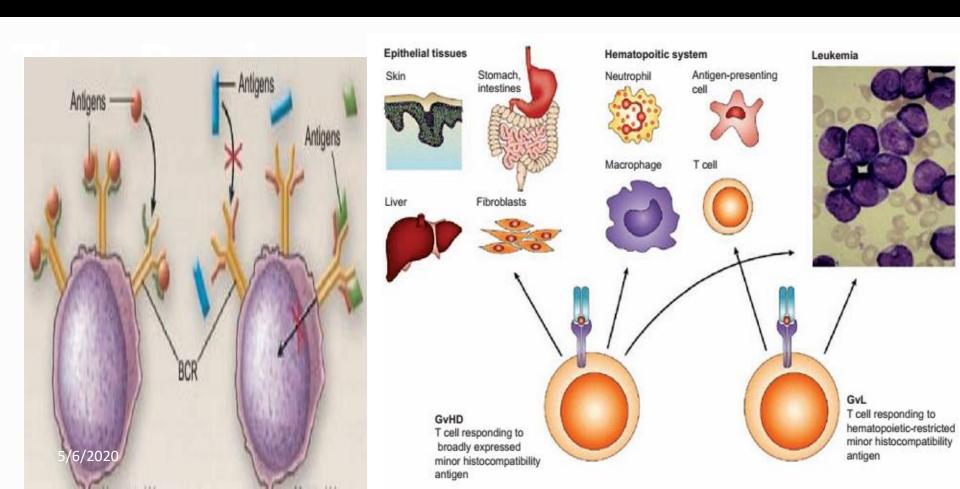
- Developed after the birth of the animal
- > Specific
- Has memory
- Natural immune system starts from body's physical barriers (skin, mucous membrane, enzymes etc.)
- Cells of the innate immunity.



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Chapter two

Cells and Organs of the Immune System



2.1 Cells and Organs of the Immune System

The immune system consists of many different organs and tissues that are found throughout the body.

- These organs can be classified functionally into two main groups.
 - primary lymphoid organs; development and maturation of lymphocytes; (training and preparation site)
 - secondary lymphoid organs =sites where mature
 lymphocytes interact with antigen.(battle field)

 blood vessels and lymphatic systems connect these organs, uniting them (logistics)

 The cells of the immune system circulate through the body via lymph and blood.

 The cells of the immune system spend much of their time in lymphoid organs.

• Thus, they develop (arise) in primary lymphoid organs, and they interact with antigens in sevendary lymphoid organs.

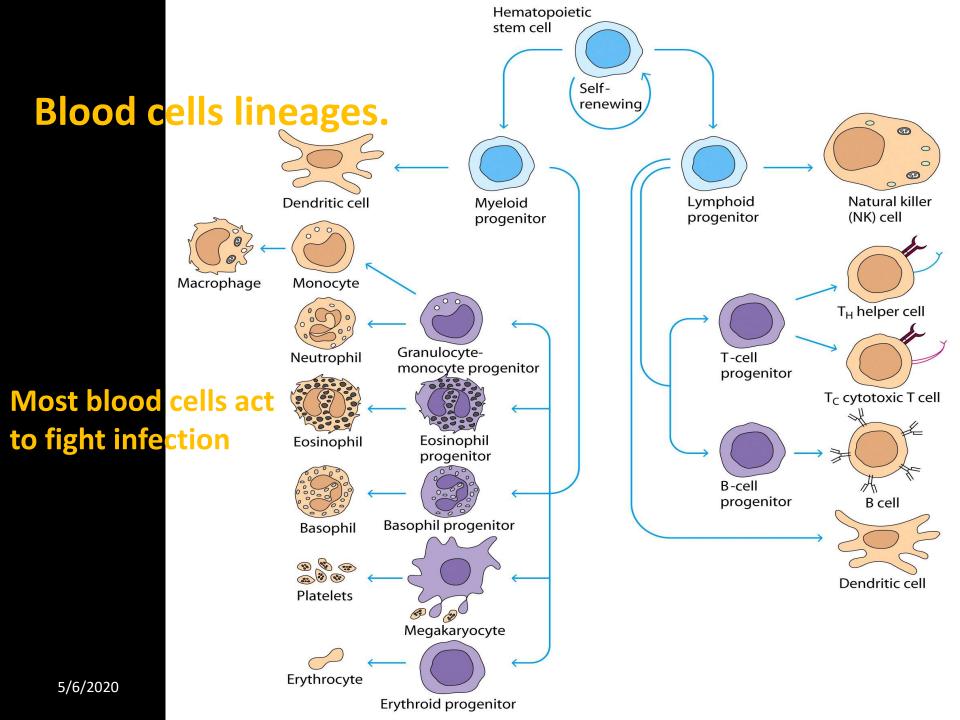
2.1 Hematopoiesis

 All blood cells arise from a type of cell called the hematopoietic stem cell (HSC) and process is called hematopoiesis.

- Stem cells are cells that can differentiate into other cell types.
 - they are self-renewing.
 - they maintain their population level by cell division.

- Early in hematopoiesis, a multipotent stem cell differentiates along one of two pathways, giving rise to either;
 - ✓ lymphoid progenitor/ancestor cell or
 - ✓ myeloid progenitor cell.

- Sites of hematopoiesis;-
 - Early embryogenesis :-in the yolk sack
 - Fetus:- liver , spleen and bone marrow
 - Adult:-marrow of spinal column, femur and humerus, ileum, ribs and sternum.



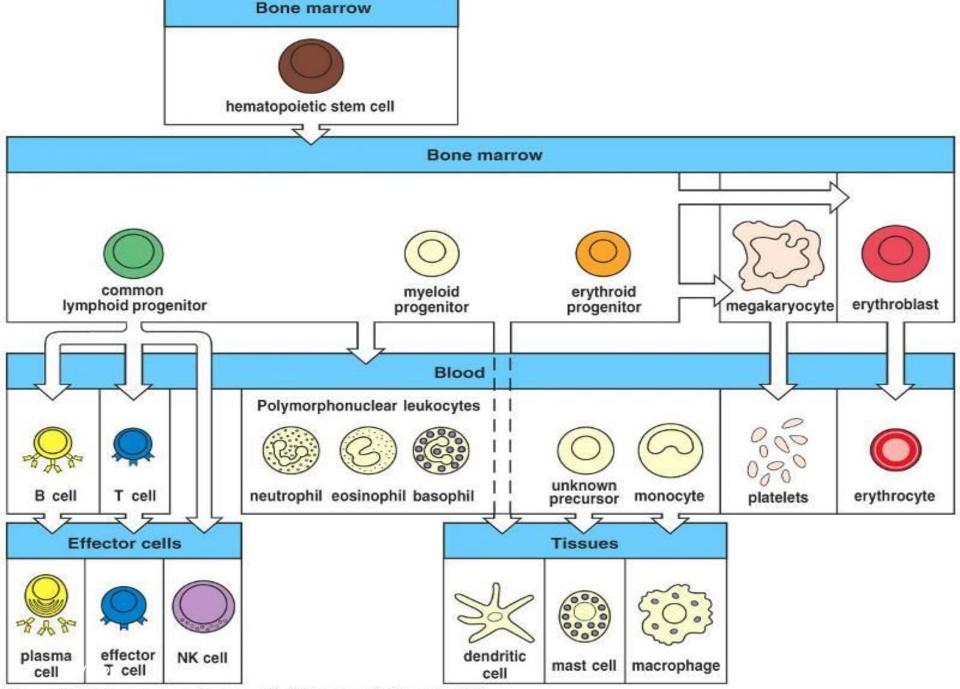


Figure 1-11 The Immune System, 2/e (© Garland Science 2005)

2.1.1 cells of myeloid lineage

1. Monocytes :-

- Among the largest blood cells in the circulation.
- Have cytoplasmic lysosomes
- They circulate in the blood at low density and 3-5% of all blood leukocytes .
- In the tissues they mature further to become macrophages.

2. Macrophages

- Derived from the greek word "big eaters".
- Large, powerful phagocytes that function primarily in the tissues, tirelessly engulfing and digesting not only foreign entities, but also spent host cells and cellular debris.

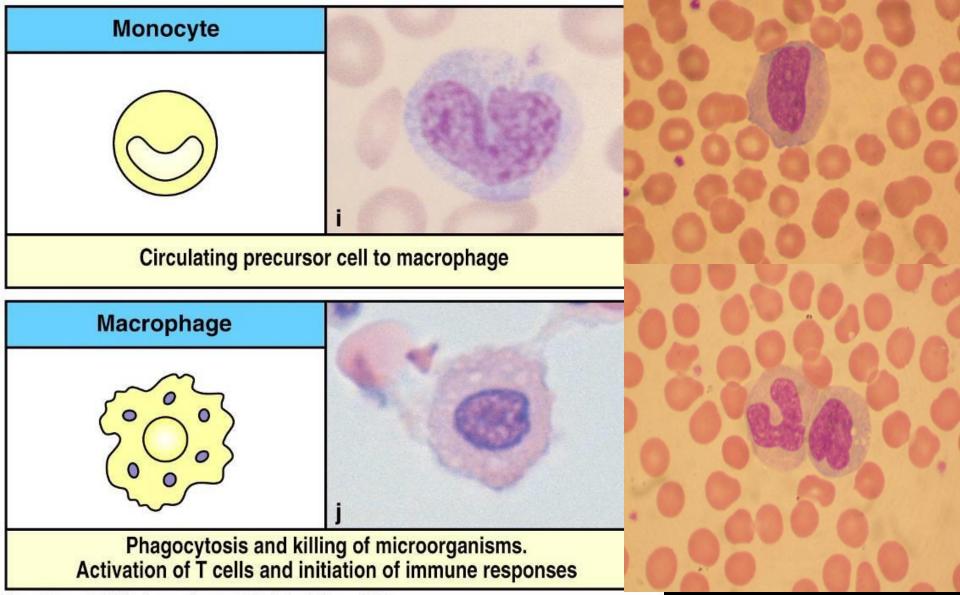
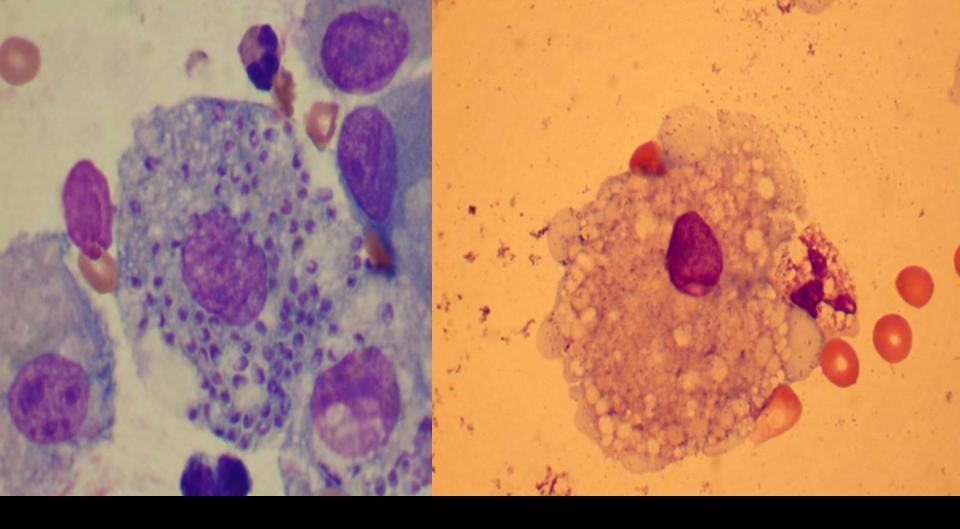
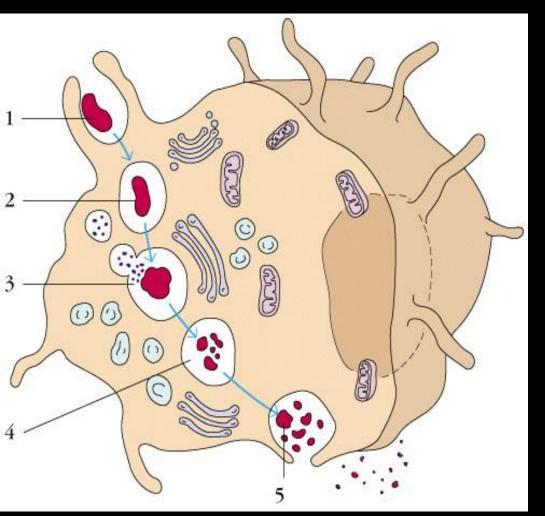


Figure 1-9 part 5 of 6 The Immune System, 2/e (© Garland Science 2005)



Tissue Macrophages

- They are long-lived mononuclear phagocytic cells found in all organs and tissues (2-4 months).
- Tissue macrophages in different locations in the body have different names, often reflecting where they reside in the body.
 - Brain = microglial cells
 - Connective tissues= histocytes
 - Kidney=mesangial cells
 - Liver = kupffer cells
 - Lung=alveolar macrophages.
- They do have also different receptors
 - Transport receptors
 - Cytokine receptors
 - Complement receptors
 - Antibody receptors



- 1. Bacterium attaches to membrane
 - 2. Bacterium is ingested, forming phagosome,
 - 3. Phagosome fuses with lysosome.
 - 4. Lysosomal enzymes digest the bacteria.
 - 5. Digested material is released from cell.

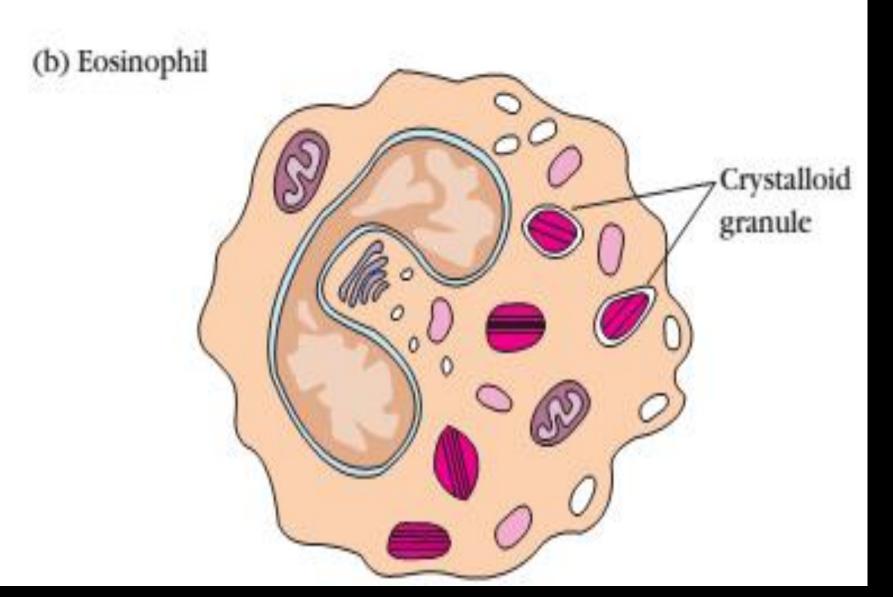
Phagocytes: -macrophage, neutrophils, dendritic

3. Granulocytes

 It comprises neutrophiles, basophiles and eosinophiles.

A. Eosinophils:-

- Leukocytes with bilobed nuclie and large cytoplasmic granules (crystalloid granules)
- They stain reddish with certain acidic (such as eosin).
- Their primary function is the removal of parasites.
- 99% of mature eosinophils reside in the connective tissues and so constitutes less than 4% of all leukocytes in blood.
- Also have a role in allerge

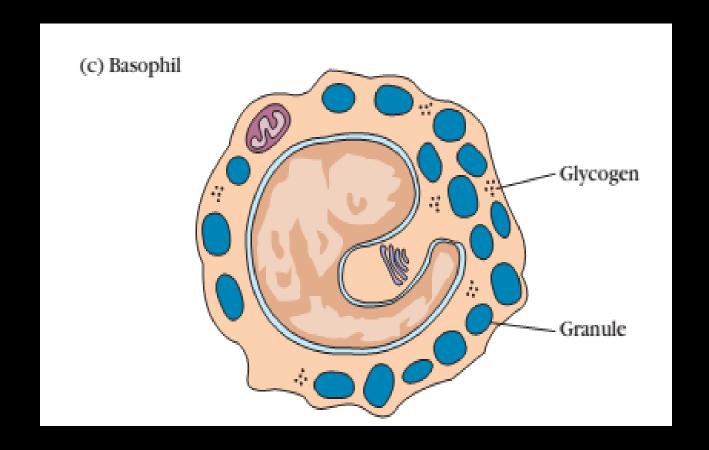


4.Basophiles

- Are circulating leukocytes with irregular shaped nuclei.
- Cytoplasmic granules that react with basic dyes such as hematoxylin, thus staining a dark blue color.

- Their granules contain Heparin, vasoactive amines and many enzymes.
- Are important for inflammation.

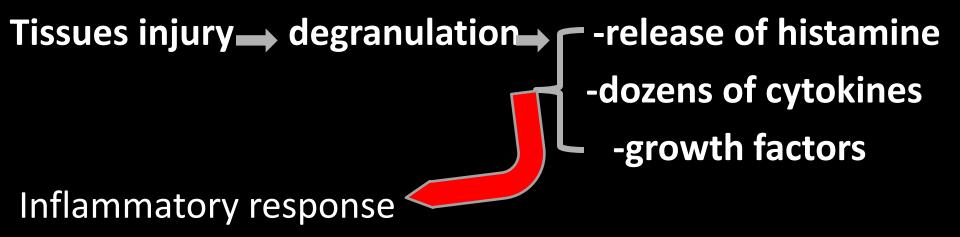
• They reside primarily in the blood until they move into the tissues during an inflammatory response.



5. Mast cells

Cytoplasmic granules stain in a way similar to basophiles and also contain Heparin and histamines.

- However, mast cells are derived from separate cell linage.
 - Nuclei not lobed
 - More granules .
 - Smaller size compared to basophiles.
- Unlike basophiles rarely found in blood.
 - Resides to live connective tissues and gastrointestinal mucosa.

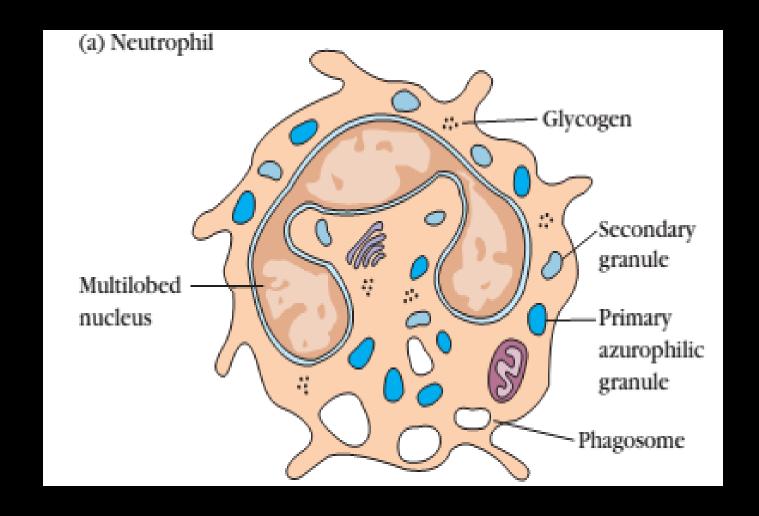


Occasionally hypersensitivity and allergy

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6. Neutrophiles

- The most common white cells in the body.
- Immediate response in tissue injury.
- Are phagocytes capable of engulfing macromolecules and particles.
- Irregular shaped, multilobed nuclei.
- Stain neutrally with contain dyes.
- Grow fully mature in bone marrow.
- Mature neutrophiles then enter the blood circulation in greater no.
- those large number necessary because each neutrophiles has a life span of only 1-2 days.
- Eg. Adult human 50 billion neutrophiles in circulation at any given time.

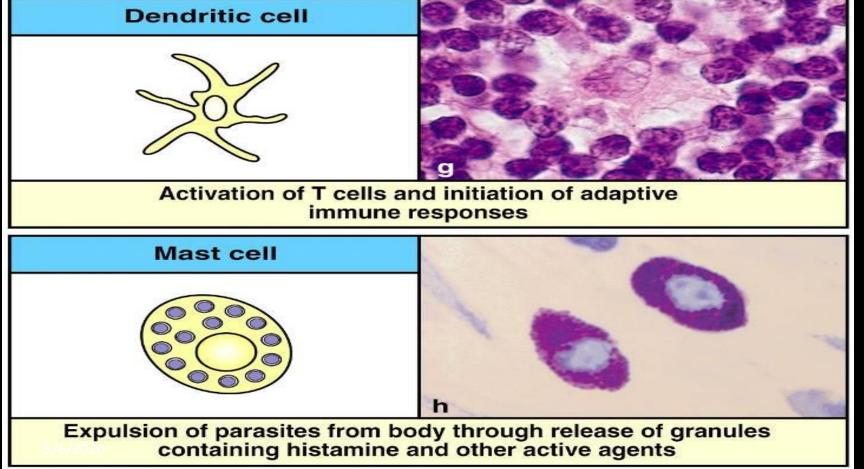


Azurophilic and specific granules also contain <u>anti-microbial</u> proteins and peptides that are the cornerstone of <u>innate immunity</u>

7. Dendritic cells

- Cells with dendriform (star shaped) morphology.
- Interdigitating reticular cells (synonym)

Capture and present antigens to T lymphocytes.



2.1.2 Cells of lymphoid lineage

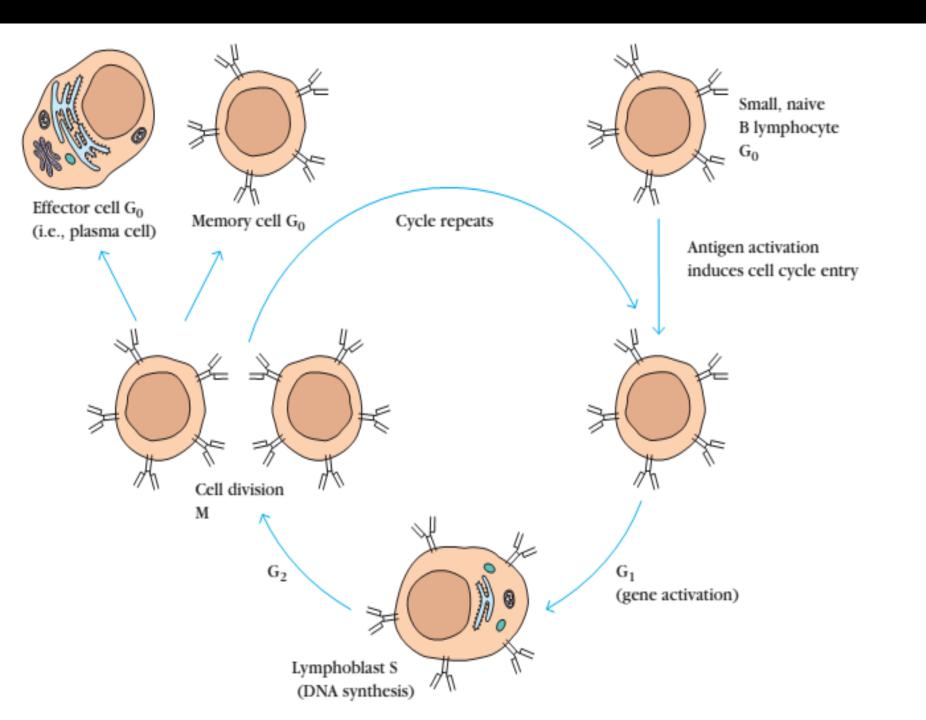
- Cells of lymphoid lineage divided into three based on function and cell-membrane components.
 - T-lymphocytes
 - B- lymphocytes and
 - Natural killer cells.
- Lymphocytes constitute 20%–40% of the body's white blood cells and 99% of the cells in the lymph.
- Lymphocytes responsible for adaptive immunity and the immunologic attributes of diversity, specificity, memory, and self/nonself recognition.
 - But the other types of white blood cells play important roles, engulfing and destroying microorganisms, presenting antigens, and secreting cytokines.

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They continually circulate in the blood and lymph

- Also are capable of migrating into the tissue spaces and lymphoid organs,
 - ✓ thereby integrating the immune system to a high degree.
- 1. B-lymphocytes: its site of maturation bursa of Fabricius/ lymphoid tissue associated with the gut:/ in birds but bone marrow is its major site of maturation in a number of mammalian species, including humans.
- 2. T lymphocytes derive their name from their site of maturation in the thymus.
- 3. Natural killer cells (NK cells) are large, granular lymphocytes that do not express the set of surface markers typical of B or T cells.

- Resting B and T lymphocytes are small, motile, nonphagocytic cells, which cannot be distinguished morphologically.
- B and T lymphocytes that have not interacted with antigen— referred to as naive.or unprimed—are resting cells in the GO phase of the cell cycle.
- The naive lymphocyte is generally thought to have a short life span.
- Interaction of small lymphocytes with antigen, in the presence of certain cytokines induces these cells to enter the cell cycle | lymphoblasts.
- Lymphoblasts proliferate and eventually differentiate into effector cells or into memory cells.
- Plasma cells—the antibody-secreting effector cells of the B-cell lineage.



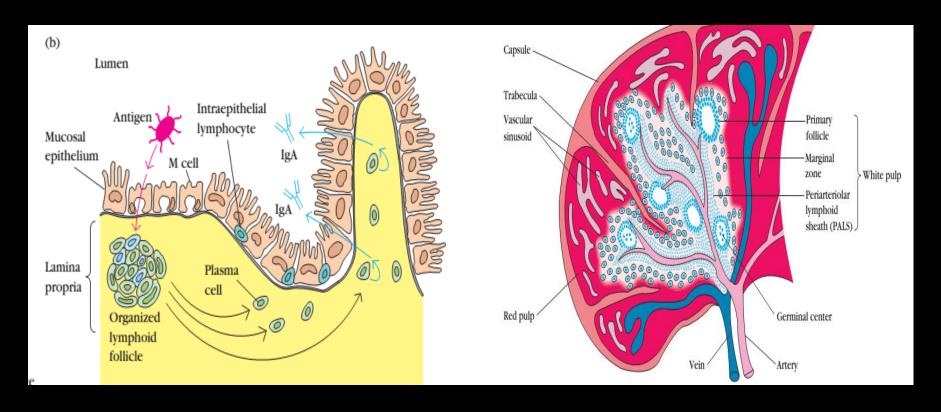
- The effector cells of the T-cell lineage include the
 - cytokine-secreting T helper cell (TH cell)
 - T cytotoxic lymphocyte (TC cell)

cluster of differentiation (CD):-CD marker

- Although the CD nomenclature was originally developed for the membrane molecules of human leukocytes but also found in all animal leukocytes.
- More 200 CD markers that have been described.

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lymphoid organs (Tissues)



2.2. lymphoid organs (Tissues)

- The immune system is not a discrete organ, like liver or a kidney.
- It is an integrated partnership; with contribution by :-
 - The circulatory system
 - Lymphatic system
 - Various lymphoid organs and tissues
 - The specialized hematopoietic cells moving among these.
- A lymphoid tissue:-is simply a tissue in which lymphocytes are found.
- Lymphoid follicles:- are organized cylindrical clusters of lymphocytes that ,when gathered into groups are called lymphoid patches.

Lymphoid organs

1. Primary Lymphoid organs ;- thymus, bursa, bone marrow and payer's patches.

2. Secondary Lymphoid organs:-spleen,lymph node, some PPs, bone marrow, the mucosal-associated lymphoid tissues (MALT), the skin-associated lymphoid tissues.

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2.2.1 Primary Lymphoid organs

A. Thymus and bone marrow

- The thymus and bone marrow are referred to a primary lymphoid organ,
 - are essential for initial production of lymphocytes from progenitor cells.

Thymus

Progenitor cells that leave the bone marrow thymus proliferation and differentiation.

This process is facilitated by a hormone, thymosin.

1. Bone marrow

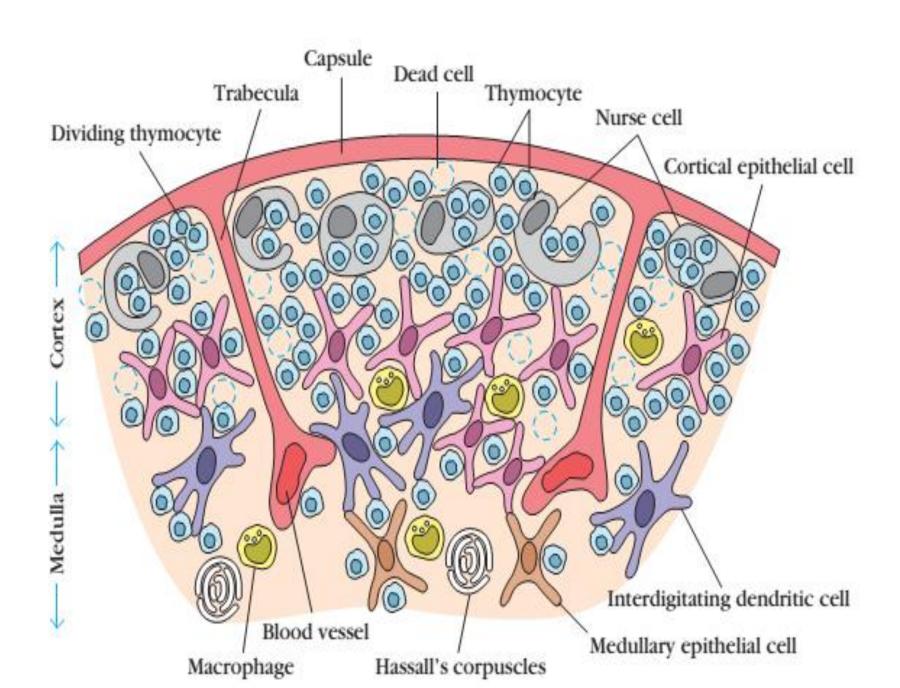
- Bone marrow is the source of progenitor cells.
 - These cells can differentiate in to lymphocytes, granulocytes, erythrocytes, etc.
 - differentiation of progenitor cells into B-lymphocytes and functions as the bursa equivalent in human.

2. THYMUS

- The thymus is the site of T-cell development and maturation.
- It is a flat, bilobed organ situated above the heart,
- Composed of stromal-cell network composed of :-
 - epithelial cells,
 - dendritic cells,
 - and macrophages

3. Bursa of Fabricius

- Bone marrow is not the site of B-cell development in all species.
 - In birds, a lymphoid organ called the bursa of Fabricius, "a lymphoid tissue associated with the gut", is the primary
 5/6/2020 of B-cell maturation



4. Peyer's patch

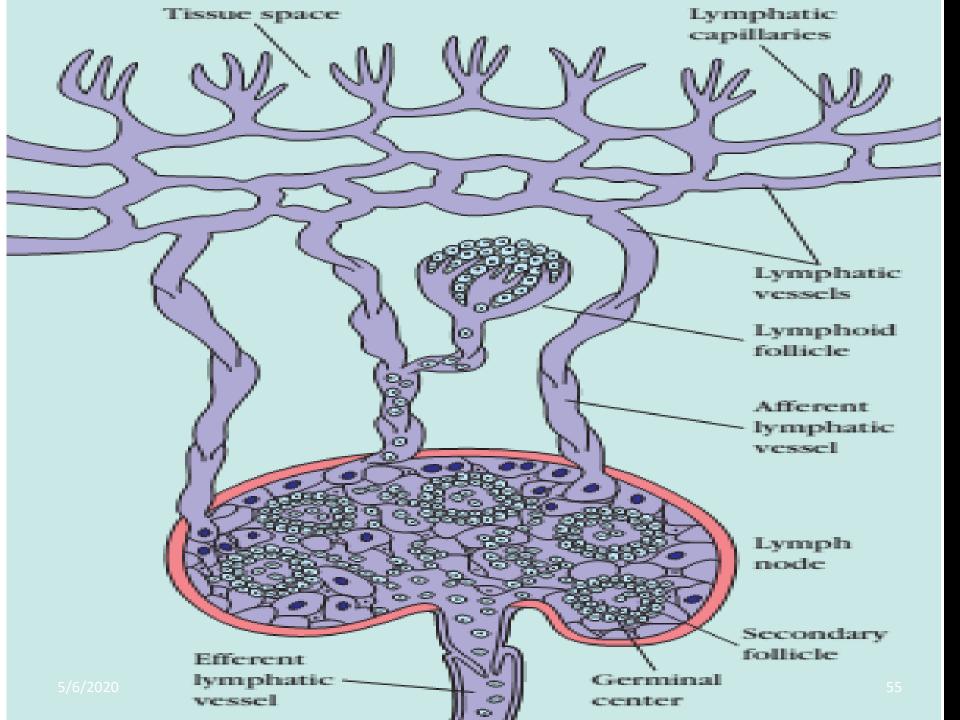
• In cattle and sheep, fetal spleen is the primary lymphoid tissue hosting the maturation, proliferation, and diversification of B cells early in gestation.

 Later in gestation, this function is assumed by a patch of tissue embedded in the wall of the intestine called the ileal Peyer's patch, which contains a large number of B cells.

2.2.2 Secondary Lymphoid organs

Introduction

- The lymphatic system also serves as a means of transporting lymphocytes and antigen from the connective tissues to organized lymphoid tissues which Includes:-
 - spleen ,lymphnode, some PPs, bone marrow ,the mucosal-associated lymphoid tissues (MALT),the skinassociated lymphoid tissues.
 - Their function is to maximize encounters between lymphocytes and foreign substances.



A. Lymph nodes

- Filled with dense aggregates of lymphocytes and macrophages.

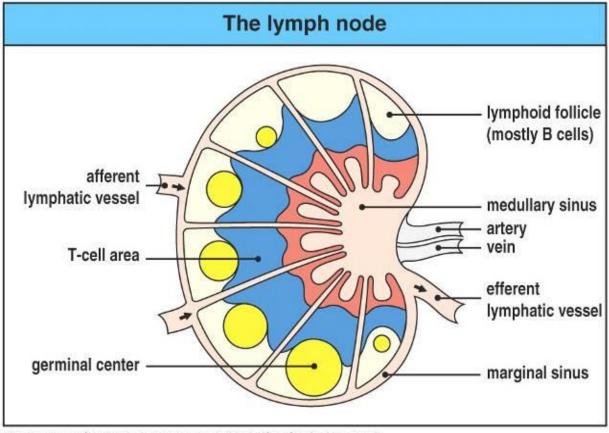
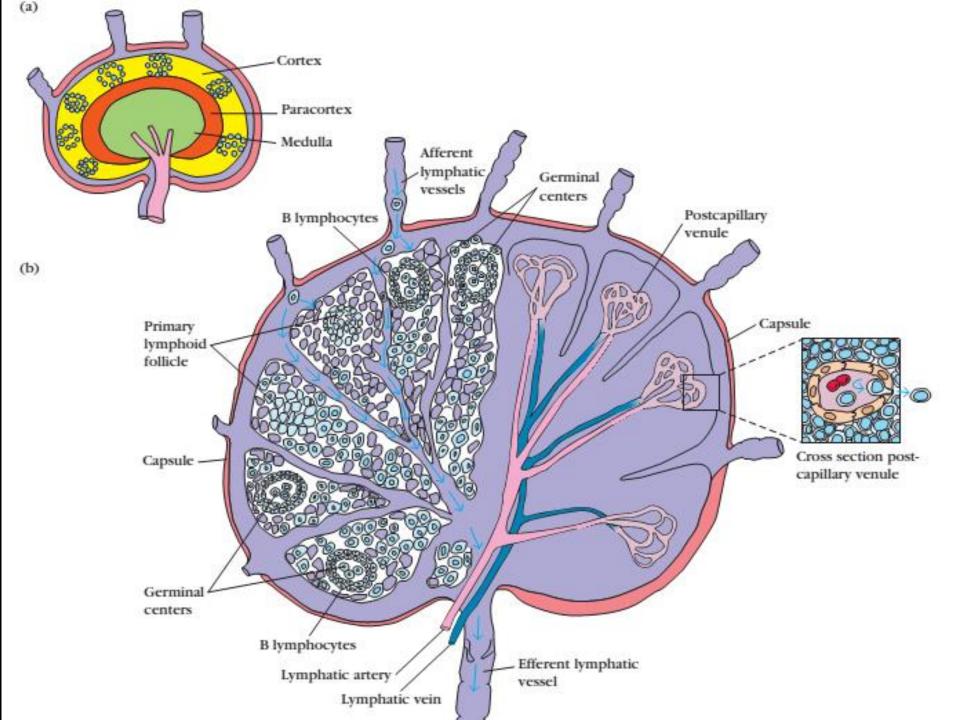




Figure 1-17 The Immune System, 2/e (© Garland Science 2005)



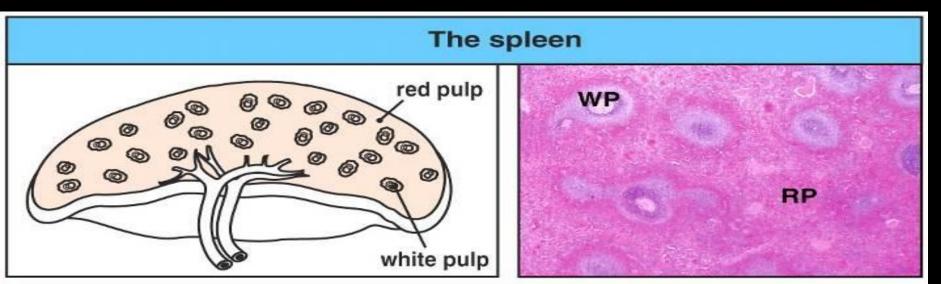
- Lymph nodes act like lymphoid filters in the lymphatic system.
 - It responds to antigens introduced distantly and routed to them by afferent lymphatic.
- They are encapsulated bean shaped packed with
 - lymphocytes, macrophages, and dendritic cells.
- 1. The cortex, contains lymphocytes (mostly B cells),
 - few macro-phages, and follicular dendritic cells arranged in primary follicles.
- 2. The paracortex, populated largely by T lymphocytes,
 - also contains interdigitating dendritic cells thought to have migrated from tissues to the node.
- 3. The medulla, is more populated with are plasma cells actively secreting antibody molecules.

B. Spleen

- The spleen act like a lymphatic filter with in the blood vascular tree.
 - It is an important site of antibody production in response to intravenous particulate antigen (e.g. bacterial).

 The spleen is also a major organ for the clearance of particles.

 The spleen, It is specialized for trapping bloodborne antigens.



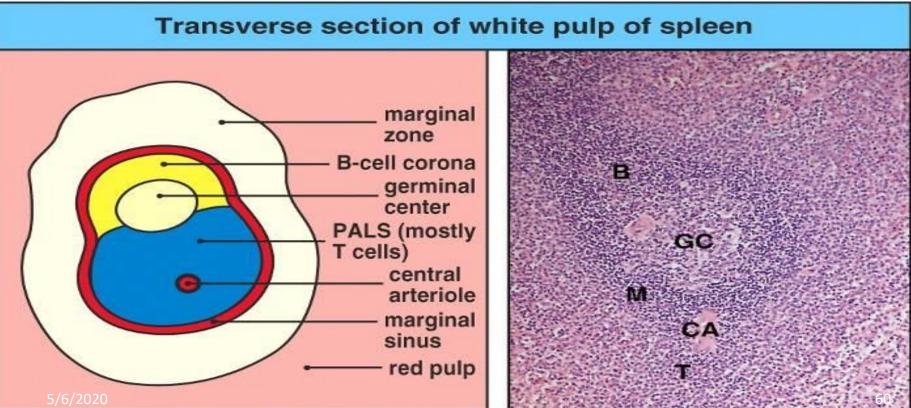
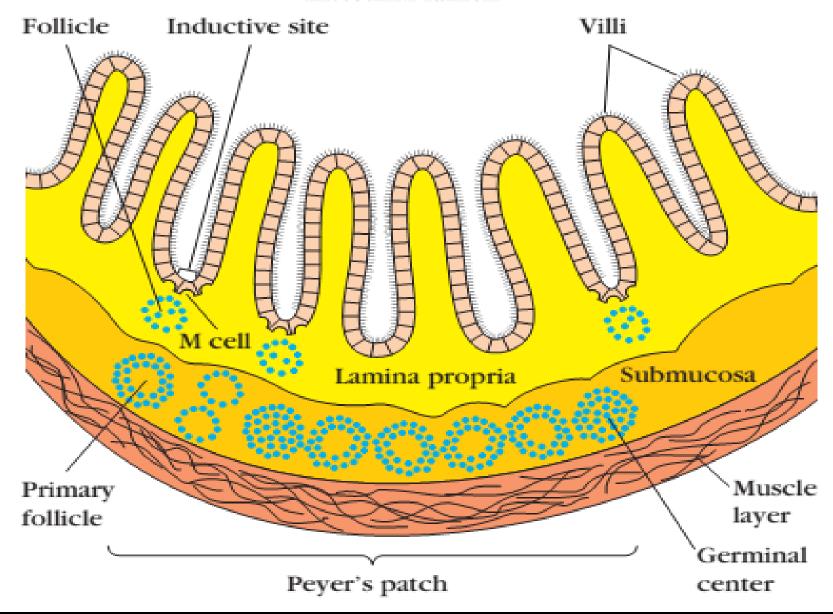


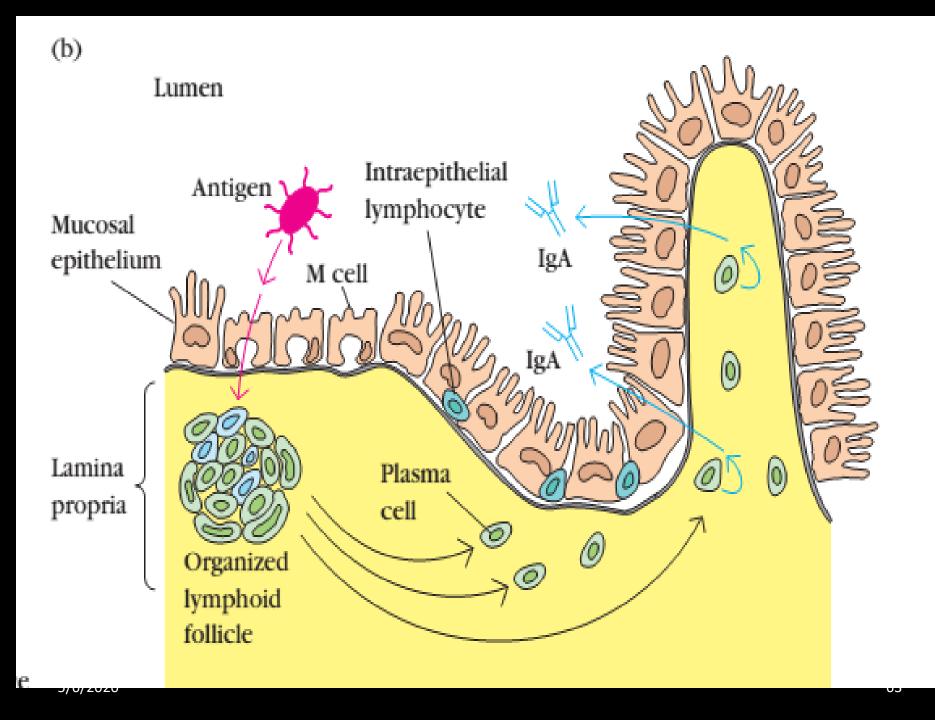
Figure 1-19 The Immune System, 2/e (© Garland Science 2005)

C. Gut – associated lymphoid tissue (GALT)

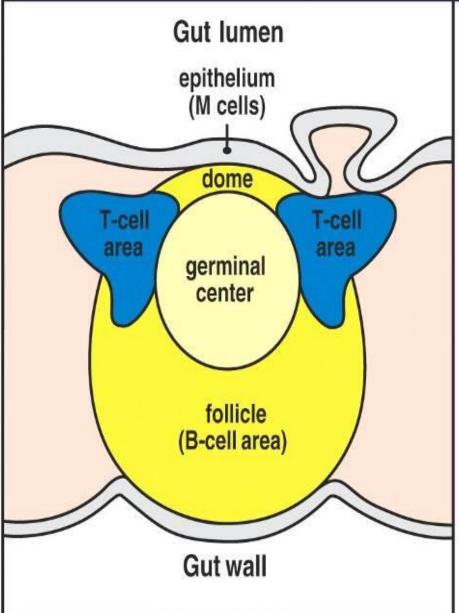
- Gut-associated lymphoid tissue includes lymphoid tissue in the intestines (payer's patches) and the liver.
- Gut associated lymphoid tissue is involved in lymphocyte circulation,
 - i.e. pre-B cells develop in payer's patches and after meeting antigen from the gut, they enter to the general circulation and then return back to the gut.

Intestinal lumen





Gut lumen Gut lumen Gut lumen



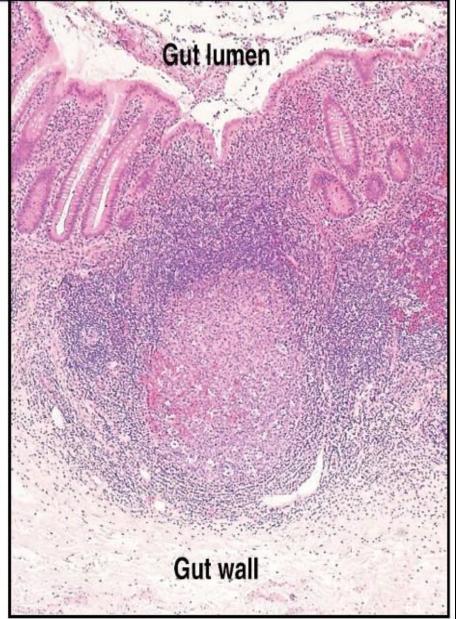


Figure 1-20 The Immune System, 2/e (© Garland Science 2005)

D. Tonsils

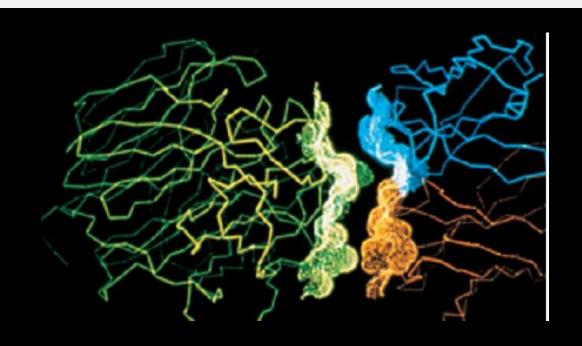
 Tonsils are nodular aggregates of lymphoid tissues, their function is to detect and respond to pathogens in the respiratory secretion.

E. Blood

 The blood is an important lymphoid organ and immunologic effector tissue. Circulating blood has enough mature T-cells to produce graft- versushost reaction.

Chapter three

Antigens and antibodies



Introduction

Definition:-

- 1. An antigen means :- a substance which can be recognized by :-
 - immunoglobulin receptor of B cells,
 - or by the T- cell receptor when complexes with MHC.
- The molecular properties of antigens and the way in which these properties ultimately contribute to immune activation are central to our understanding of the immune system.

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- 3.1 Immunogenicity Versus Antigenicity
- Immunogenicity and antigenicity are related but distinct immunologic properties that sometimes are confused.
- 1. Immunogenicity is the ability to induce a humoral and/or cell mediated immune response:
- B -cells + antigen effector B cells + memory B cells



T- cells + antigen



(plasma cells)



2. Antigenicity is the ability to combine specifically with the final products of the above responses (i.e., antibodies and/or cell-surface receptors).

 Although all molecules that have the property of immunogenicity also have the property of antigenicity, the reverse is not true. Eg. haptens

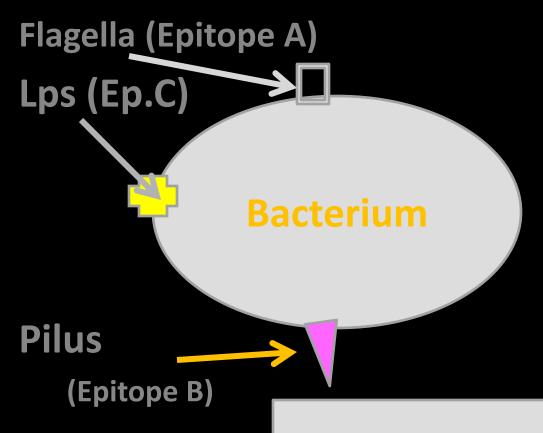
- Proteins are the most potent immunogens, with polysaccharides ranking second.
- In contrast, lipids and nucleic acids of an infectious agent generally do not serve as immunogens unless they are complexed with proteins or polysaccharides.
- For cell-mediated immunity, only proteins and some lipids and glycolipids serve as immunogens
- Immunogenicity is determined by four properties of the immunogen:
 - its foreignness,
 - molecular size,
 - Chemical composition and complexity,
 - and ability to be processed and presented with an MHC molecule on the surface of an antigen-presenting cell or altered self-cell.

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3.2 Epitopes

- immune cells do not interact with, or recognize, an entire immunogen molecule;
 - instead, lymphocytes recognize discrete sites on the macromolecule called epitopes, or antigenic determinants.
- Epitopes are the immunologically active regions of an immunogen that bind to antigen-specific membrane receptors on lymphocytes or to secreted antibodies or ,
- Small parts of a protein that contain specific aminoacid sequences, or certain confirmation of the protiens is called Extense.

- Complexity of Antigens :-
 - E.g b acteria: bacterial protein + polysaccharides +lipids(bacteria=∑antigens).

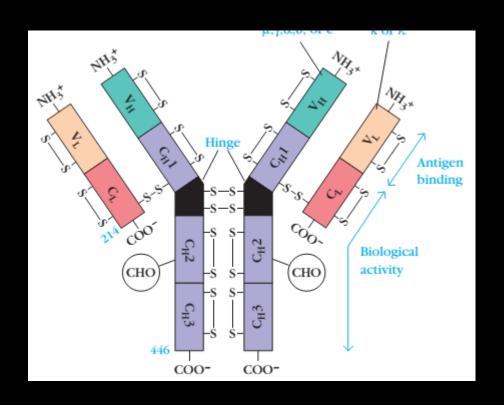


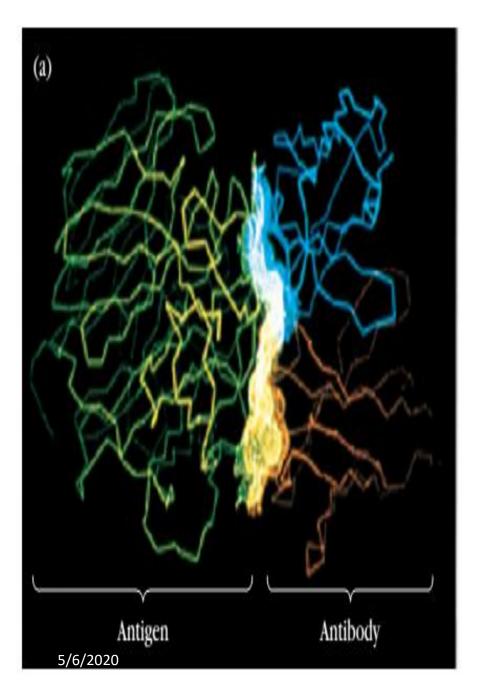
Antigens= ∑epitopes

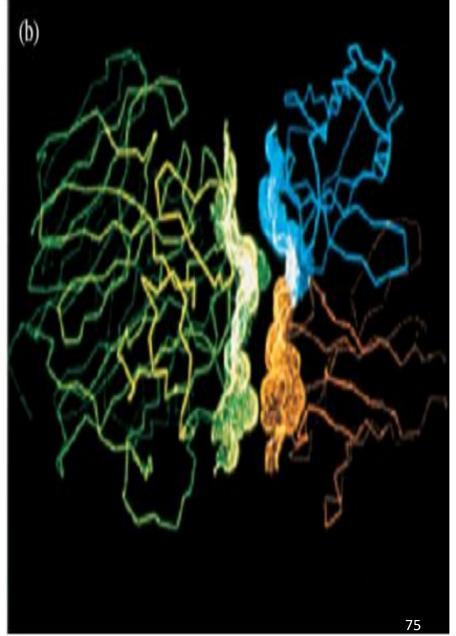
1. Properties of B-Cell Epitopes:-

- The antibody's binding site and the epitope must have complementary shapes that place the interacting groups near each other.
 - The size of the epitope recognized by a B cell can be no larger than the size of the antibody's binding site
 - Smaller ligands such as carbohydrates, small oligonucleotides, peptides, and haptens often bind within a deep pocket of an antibody.

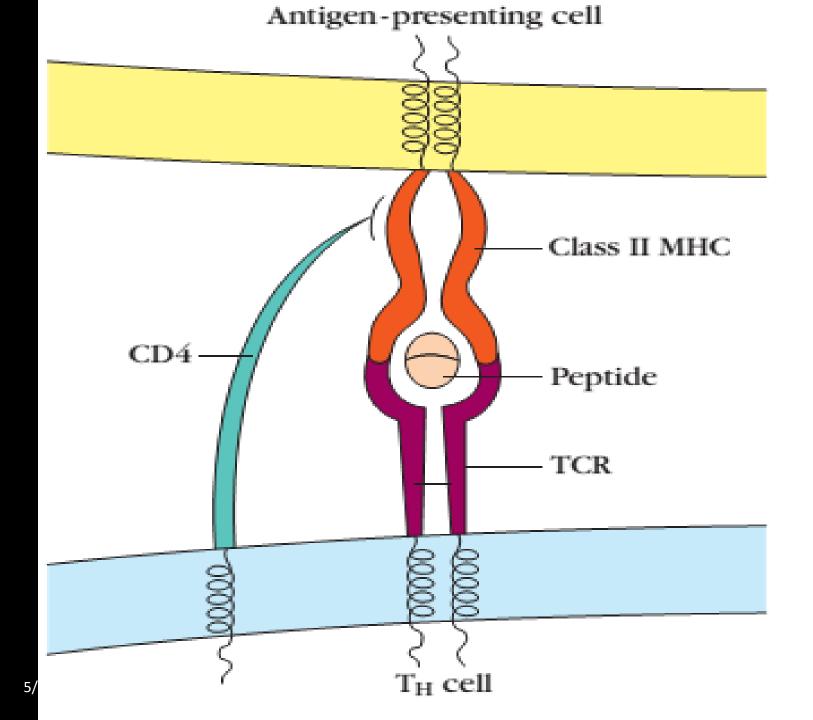
Antibody structure





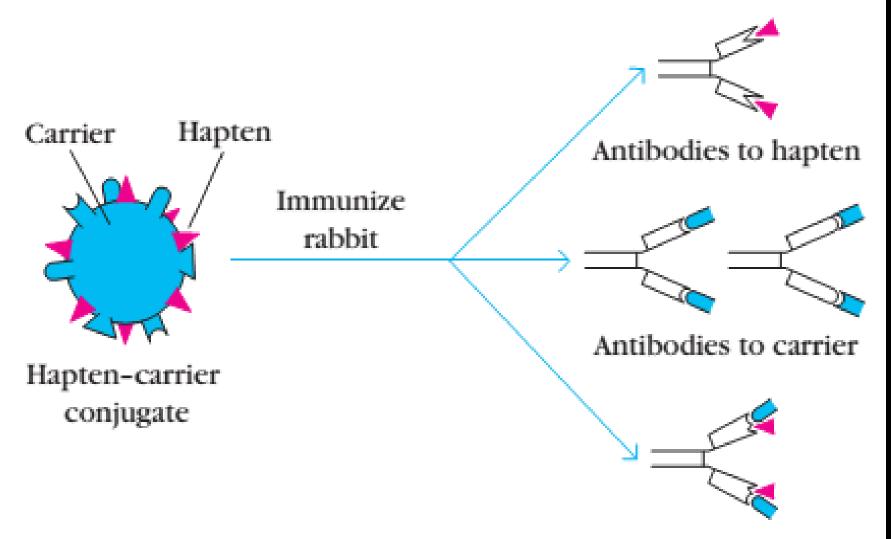


- Antigen-Derived Peptides are the key elements of T-Cell Epitopes.
- T-cell epitopes must include :-
 - -antigen-presenting cells
 - —or target cells that can display the peptides bound to an MHC molecule.



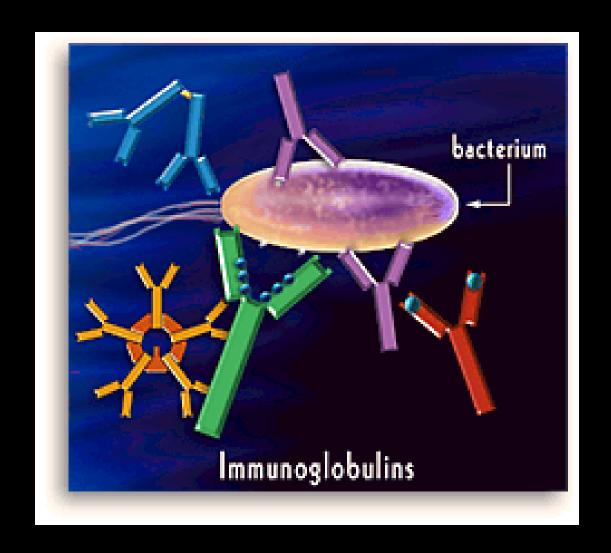
3.3 Haptens and the Study of Antigenicity

- Haptens are small molecules, which are antigenic but incapable, by themselves, of inducing a specific immune response.
 - In other words, they lack immunogenicity.
- Chemical coupling of a hapten to a large protein, called a carrier,
 - yields an immunogenic hapten carrier conjugate.
- Animals immunized with such a conjugate produce antibodies specific for:-
 - (1) the hapten determinant,
 - (2) unaltered epitopes on the carrier protein, and
 - (3) new epitopes formed by combined parts of both the 5/6/2020 apten and carrier



Antibodies to conjugate of hapten and carrier

3.5. Antibodies



- Anybodies are the antigen binding proteins present on the B-cell membrane and secreted by plasma cells.
- Or they proteins that appear in the blood serum following exposure of an animal to certain foreign substances.
- All antibodies share :-
 - -structural features,
 - —bind to antigen,
 - have effector functions.

• The antibodies produced in response to a particular antigen are heterogeneous.

Basic Structure of Antibodies

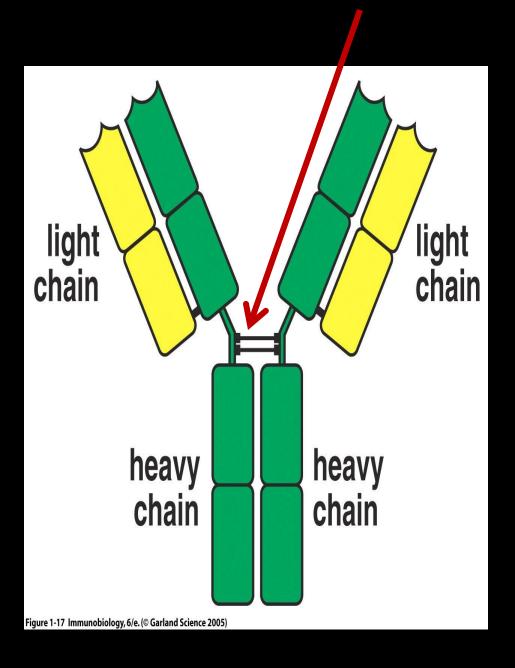
 Plasma/fluidy part of blood/ contains all of the soluble small molecules and macromolecules of blood,

 If the blood or plasma is allowed to clot, the fluid phase that remains is called serum and,

- antibodies reside in the serum.

 the γ-globulin Serum was identified as containing serum antibodies, which were called immunoglobulins.

- Immunoglobulins /soluble antibodies/ are glycoproteins made up of:
 - Four polypeptide chains (IgG):
 - a- Two light (L) polypeptide chains
 - b- Two heavy (H) polypeptide chains
- The four chains are linked by disulfide bonds.
- And each chain is with a variable region (V) & constant region (C).



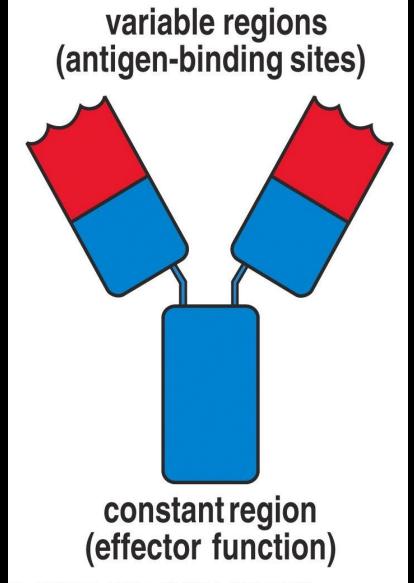
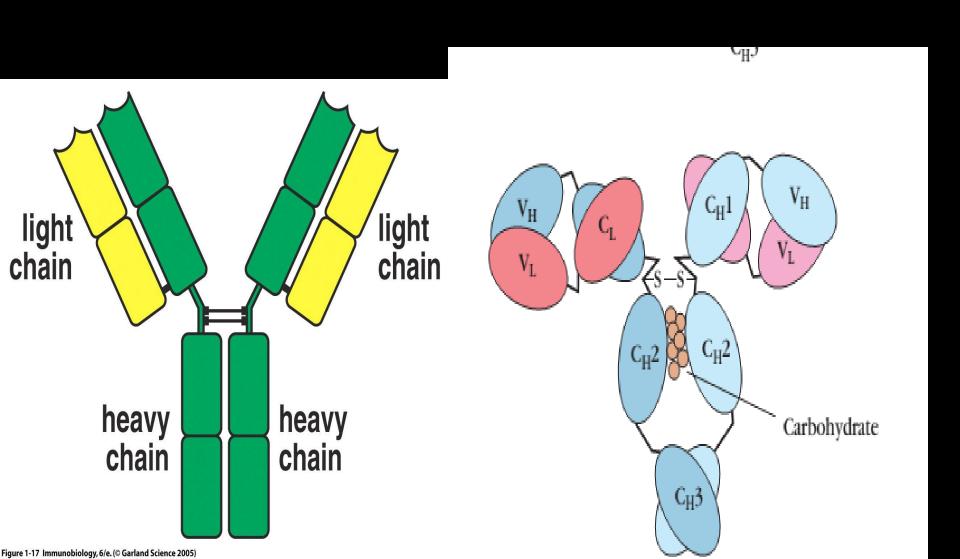


Figure 1-16 Immunobiology, 6/e. (© Garland Science 2005)

- The primary structure, "the amino acid sequence",
 - accounts for the variable and constant regions
 - For both heavy and light chains.



Heavy chains

The heavy chains of a given antibody molecule determine

the class of that antibody:

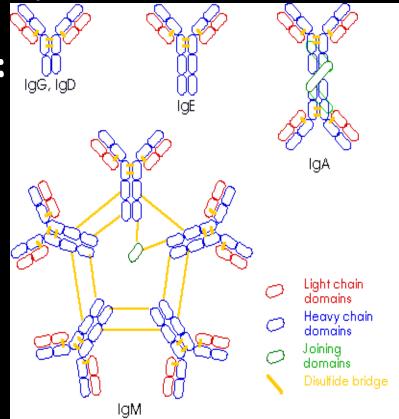
Five classes of Antibodies:

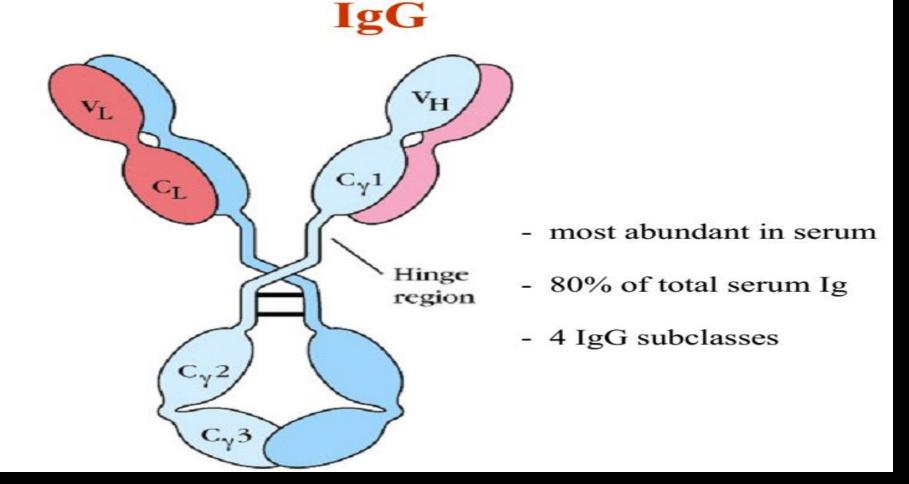
- IgG =monomer(80%)
 - subclass IgG1, IgG2, IgG3
- , IgG4.
- IgM=pentamer (5-10%)
- IqA=dimer (5-15%)
 - subclass IgA1, IgA2
- IqD=monomer(0.2%)
- IgE=monomer(0.002%)

It contains

- one variable domain (VH)),
- **three or four constant** domains (CH1, CH2, CH3, and 5/6/€H4), depending on the antibody class.

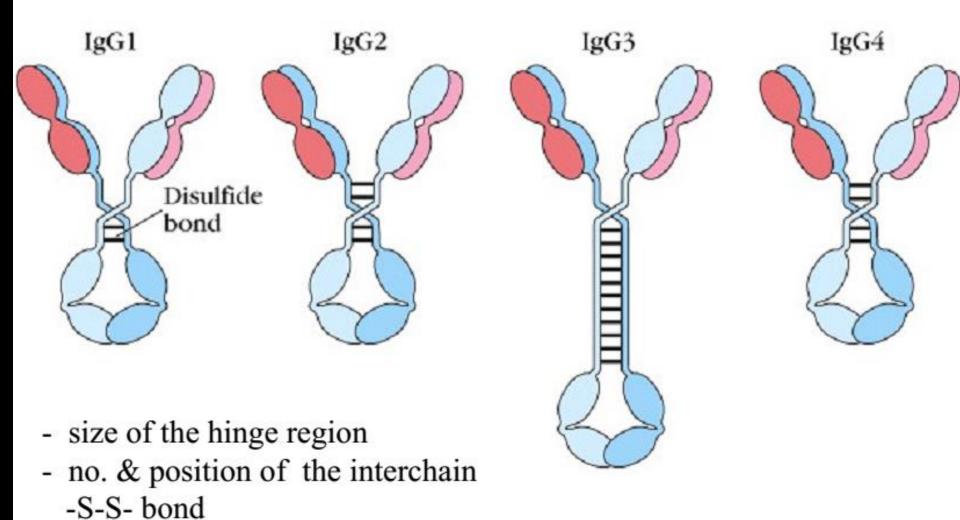
 86





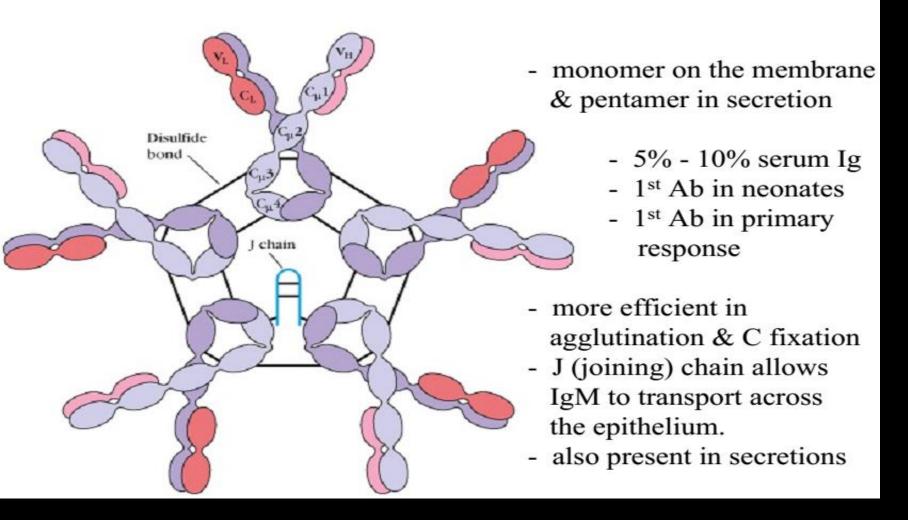
- •IgG =bind to antigen of Fab and bind to phagocytic white blood cells on the other end (Fc).
- •it is the smallest of all molecules which easily migrate to all tissues and only 45% found in the blood.

4 subclasses of human IgG



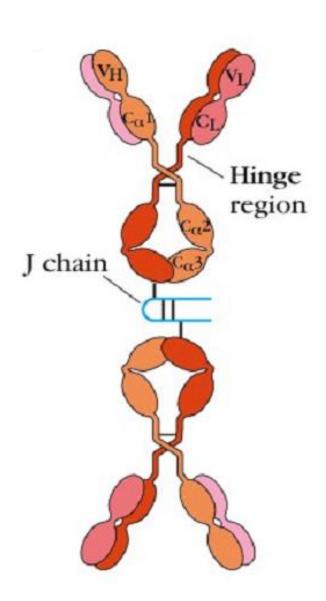
- IgG1>IgG2>IgG3>IgG4 in serum conc.
- 90% 95% homologous in DNA sequences

IgM Pentamer

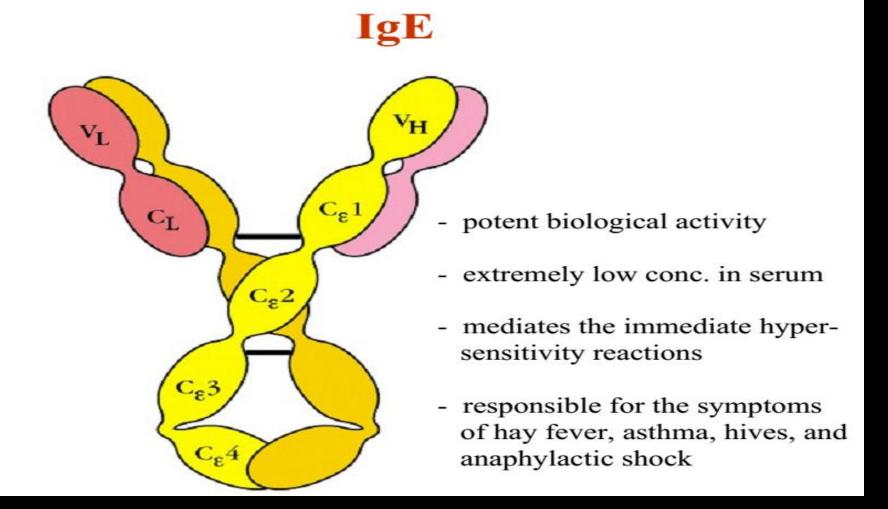


- •IgM= responds early during the attack before the amount of IgG sufficient.
- •The Searce called Macroglobulin C/Z of their large size.

IgA Dimer

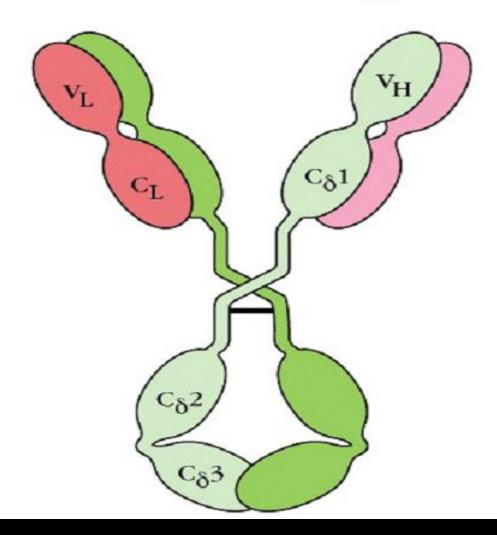


- 10% 15% of total serum Ig
- monomers, dimers, trimers and tetramers in serum
- predominant in external secretions,
 e.g., breast milk, saliva, tears, and
 mucus of the bronchial, genitourinary,
 and digestive tracts



- •IgE activates mast cells and basophiles which respond to parasitic worms and allergens such as pollen.
- •Mast cell and basophiles release Histamine molecules as an inflammatory reaction.

IgD

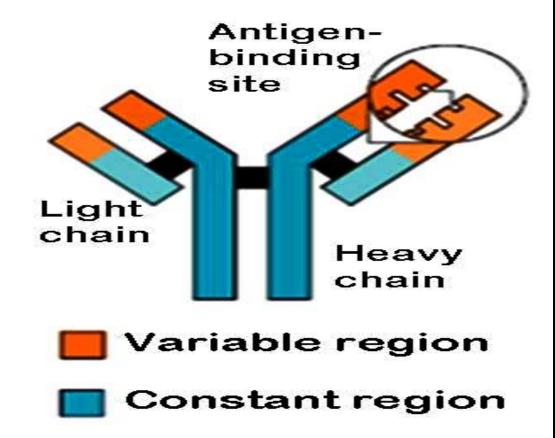


- 0.2% of total serum Ig
- together with IgM, is the major membrane-bound Ig on mature B cells
- thought to function in the activation of B cells
- no biological effector function has been identified

lgD activates mast cells and basophiles which respond to parasitic worms and allergens.

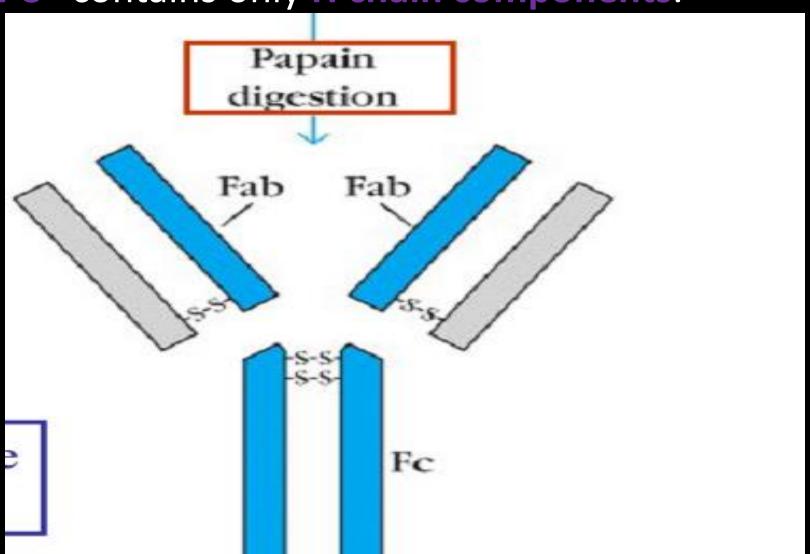
Light chains

- Light chains contain:-
 - one variable domain (VL),
 - one constant domain (CL);



5/6/2....

- Fab =consists of portions of an H and a L chain.
- Fc= contains only H chain components.



Function of immunoglobulines

- Antibodies: generally do not kill or remove pathogens solely by binding to them.
- While V regions(Fab) bind to Ag,

 The FC region is responsible for a variety of collaborative interactions with other proteins, cells, and tissues that result in the effector functions of the humoral responses.

Ig-Mediated Effector Functions

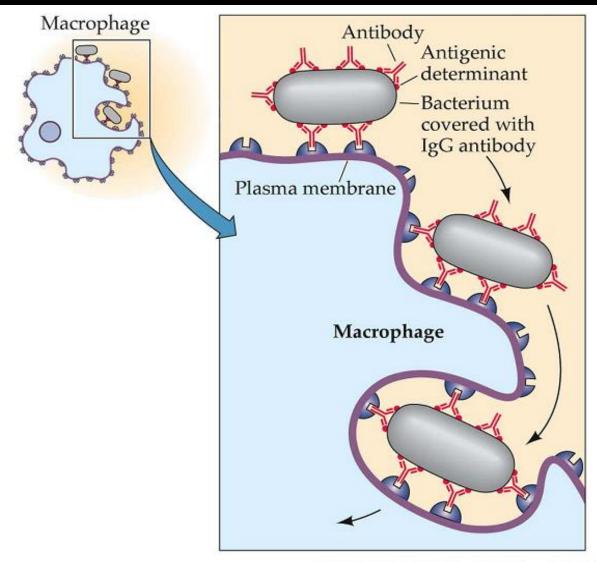
- > neutralization
- **Opsonization**
- Activation of complement.
- Antibody-Dependent Cell-Mediated Cytotoxicity (ADCC)
- ➤ Ab transport through epithelium or placenta
- Activation of mast cells, eosinophils and basophiles by IgE

A. Neutralization

- Antigen neutralization is carried out by secreted or secretory antibodies.
- Certain viruses, bacterial toxins and venom of insects or snakes cause disease by binding to proteins on the host cell surface and using them to enter host cells.

• A neutralization antibodies can recognize and bind to the virus, toxin or venom can physically prevent it from binding, thereby protecting the cell.

B. Opsonization:-The promotion of **phagocytosis** of **Ags** by Macrophages and **neutrophiles** (FcR).



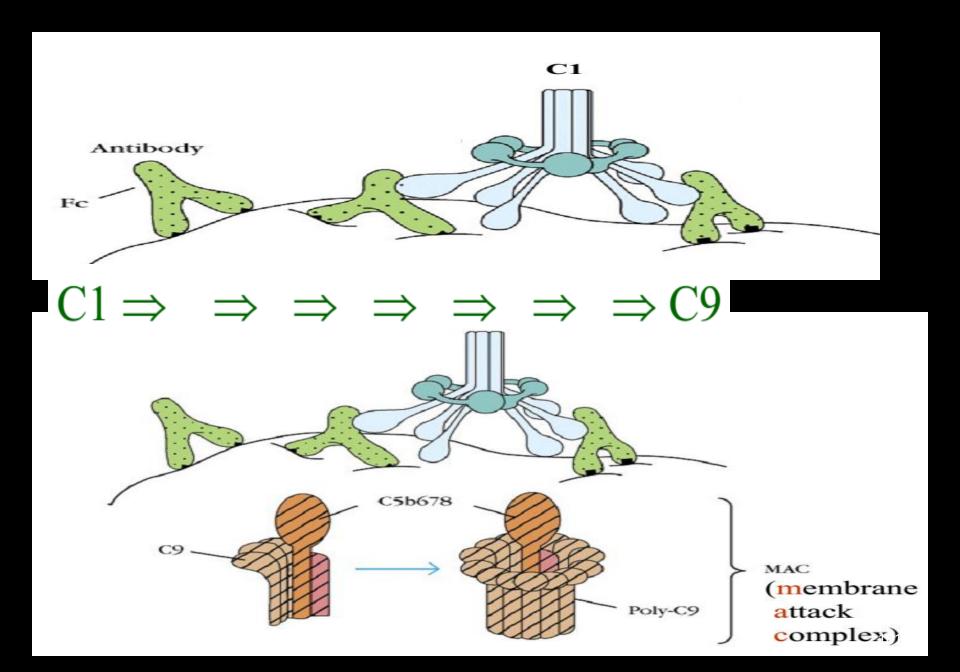
C. Activation of Complement

- Complements are a group of serum proteins found in inactive form.
 - Activate inflammation
 - Cell lysis (destroy abnormal cells)
 - Participate in opsonization.

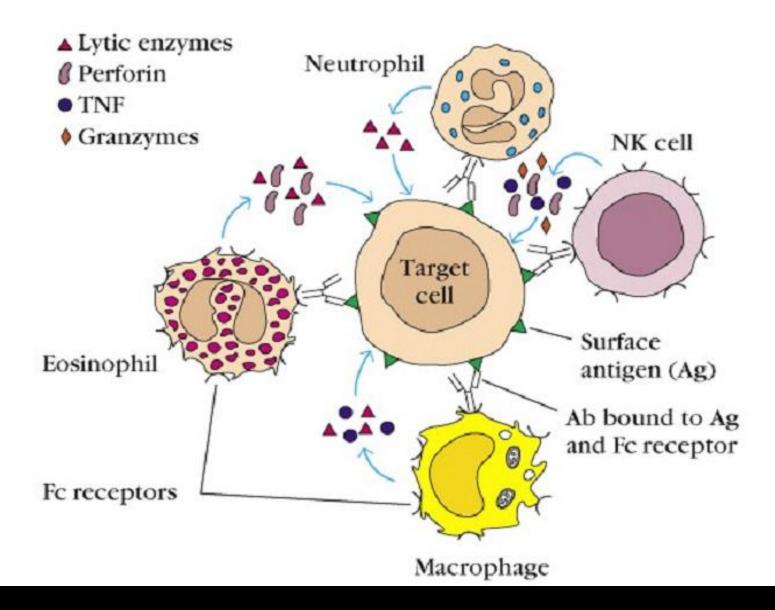
Classical pathway

- Complements are activated by different foreign molecules.
- The formation of immunocomplex (Ag+Ab)= leads to comformational change on Fc region of the Igs(IgG,IgM)
- Activated C1 cleaves C2 → C2a+C2b and C4 = C4a+C4b.
- Then C2b+C4b combined to form C3 convertase enzyme (protease).
- C3 convertase cleaves C3→C3a+C3b.

- C3a activates inflammation.
- C3b also attaches with Ags
 activates opsonization.
- C3 convertase +properdin →C5 convertase → breaks C5=C5a+C5b.
- Again C5a enhances inflammation.
- C5b+C6C7C8C9 is a lytic complex similar with perforin of NKs is called membrane attack complex (MAC).
- MAC forms a hole in the cell membrane → leakage of lots of substances out of the cell → death of the cell (antigen).



Antibody-dependent Cell-mediated Cytotoxicity (ADCC)



Clonal selection

- How Do B Cells Produce Antibodies?
- First of it is the Ag which selects the lymphocytes which makes antibodies.
- Antibodies are formed before Ag is ever seen →
 then they are selected by the antigen based on
 exact fit.
- Each B-lymphocyte subset is programmed to make one, and only one, antibodies and it places this Ab on its outer surface to act as areceptor.
- Each lymphocyte has of the order of 10⁵ identical Ab molecules on its surface.

Clonal selection theory

 Lymphoid stem cells differentiated randomely to produce clones of lymphocytes.

- A lymphocytes clone:- all of the progeny cells derived from any single virgin lymphocyte.
- Each clone is committed to respond to a single epitope.

 All the Ig proteins expressed by B-cells in a given cone are identical.

<u>Clone</u>: A group of identical cells derived from a single cell.

• B cells exist as clones.

Mature B-cell +Ag +stimuli from TH
cells

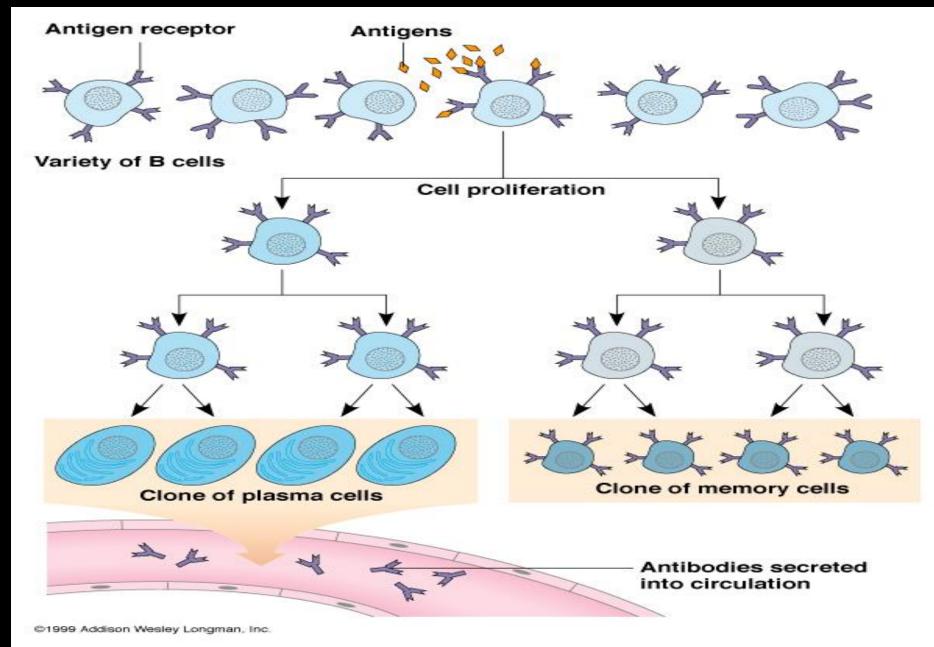
↓
B-cell division and differentiation

Upon encountering its specific antigen, a single B cell, or a clone of cells with shared specificity, divides to produce many B cells.

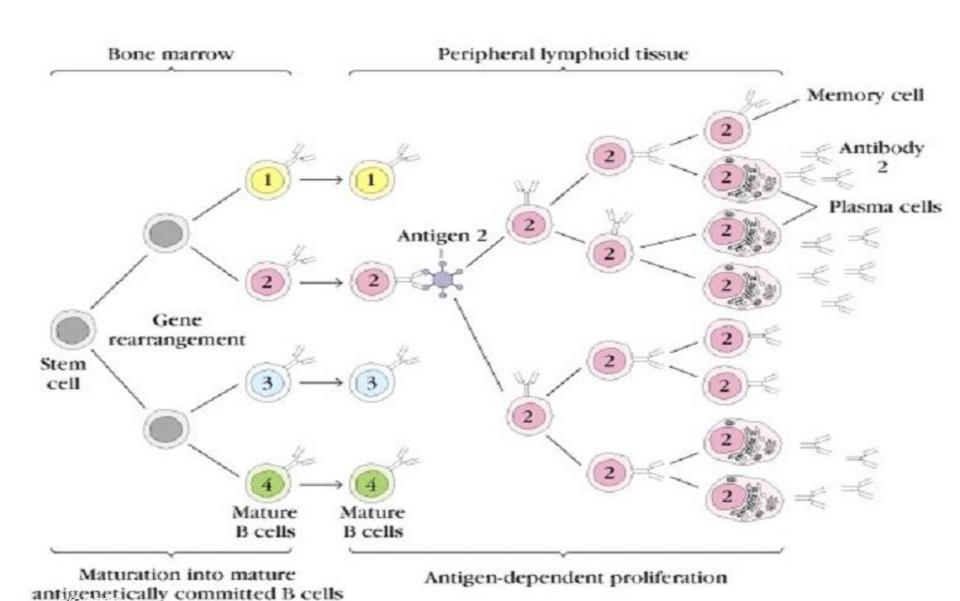
- Most of such B cells differentiate into plasma cells that secrete antibodies into blood that bind the same epitope that elicited proliferation in the first place.
- A small minority survives as memory cells that can recognize only the same epitope.

 However, with each cycle, the number of surviving memory cells increases.

Clonal Selection of B Cells is Caused by Antigenic Stimulation



Clonal Selection of B Lymphocytes



Chapter 5

5. Innate immunity (Cellular immunity)

Introduction

- Innate immunity:- is working by interaction of certain cells, cell surface receptors and soluble molecules.
- Innate immunity can be seen to comprise four types of defensive barriers:
 - anatomic and physiologic
 - Phagocytic (cellular internalization)
 - inflammatory.

Innate immunity

 the first line immunologic defense, which is always active or nearly active.

- Innate immunity is prorammed to:
 - To recognize broad range of molecules associated with pathogens.
 - To destroy the invaders rapidly: Activation of the phagocytic system and devoloping an inflmmatory response.

5.1. Types and mechanisms of protection

- I. <u>Defensive barriers</u>
- A. Skin and the Mucosal Surfaces
- The *Skin and the Mucosal Surfaces* Provide Protective Barriers Against Infection.
- Physical and anatomic barriers prevent the entry of pathogens .
 - first line of defense against infection.
- The skin consists of two a thinner outer layer:-
 - the epidermis
 - thicker layer (dermis).
- The epidermis contains several layers of tightly powered epithelial cells.

- A. The <u>outer epidermal</u> layer consists of dead cells and is filled with a waterproofing protein called keratin.
- B. The dermis, which is composed of :-
 - connective tissue,
 - hair follicles, sweat glands
 - -sebaceous glands (sebum consists lactic acid and fatty acids ,

B. Physiologic Barriers to Infection

 waving of nasal cilia or tears and mucous that work to reinforce the anatomical barriers.

- The physiologic barriers that contribute to innate immunity include
 - temperature
 - pH (gastric acidity is an innate physiologic barrier to infection).

II. Innate immune cells ;phagocytes ,dendritcs, NK......

- What is detected by innate immunity?
 - highly conserved and essential components of microbes "Pathogen-associated molecular patterns" (PAMPs).
- The molecules of the microbes targeted by th immune system are -→pathogen associated molecular patterns (PAMPs).
- The receptors of the innate immunity for these molecules are "pattern recognition receptors" (PRRs)

4 key families of cellular receptors:

- Toll-like receptors (TLRs; transmembrane receptors)
- C-type lectin receptors (CLRs; transmembrane receptors)
- Rig I-like receptors (RLRs; cytoplasmic RNA helicases)
- NOD-like receptors (NLRs; cytoplasmic sensors).

A. Toll like receptors (TLR)

- TLR activates:-"transcrition factors", which stimulate the expression of genes encoding:
 - cytokines,
 - enzymes
 - other proteins (endotheliala dhesion factor).

- Most important transcription factors are:
 - Nuclear factor-kappaB (NF-kappaB) and
 - interferon response factor -3 (IRF-3).

1. NF-kappaB: promotes expression of cytokines and endotheliala dhesion factor.

2. IRF-3 :-stimulates type I interferons and cytokines with antiviral activity.

Different mammalian TLRs are specific for different classes of microbial products.

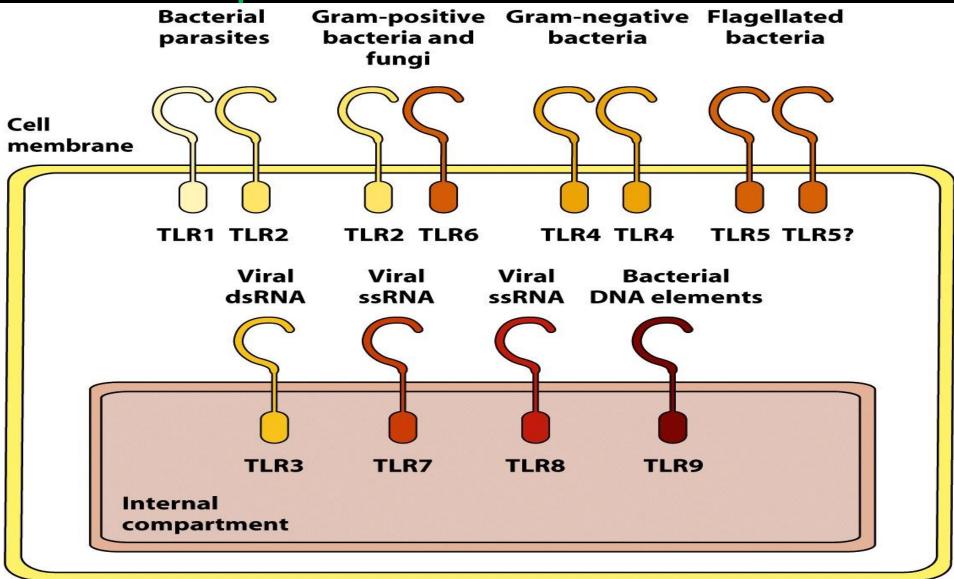


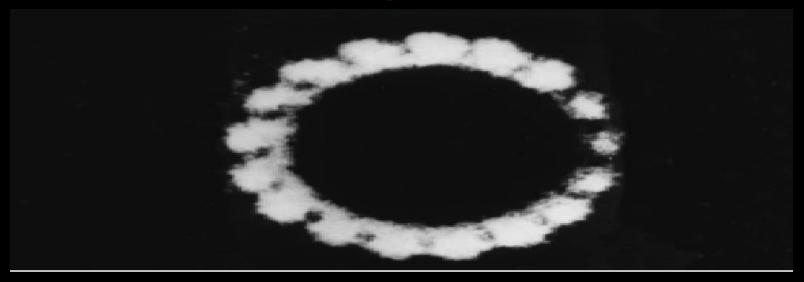
Figure 3-11 part 1

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Microbe	PAMP	PRR	Site of recognition
Virus	Glycoproteins 5'PPP RNA ss RNA dsRNA Genomic DNA	TLR2, TLR4 RIG-I TLR7, TLR8 TLR3, MDA5, RIG-I TLR9, DAI	Cell surface Cytoplasm Endosomes Endosomes/cytoplasm Endosomes/cytoplasm
Bacteria	Lipopeptides Lipoteichoid acid Peptidoglycan LPS Flagellin CpG DNA B-form DNA Diaminopimelic acid Muramyl dipeptide	TLR2 TLR2 TLR2 TLR4 TLR5 TLR9 DAI NOD1 NOD2	Cell surface Cell surface Cell surface Cell surface Cell surface Cell surface Endosome Cytoplasm Cytoplasm Cytoplasm
Protozoa	GPI anchors dsRNA CPG DNA Haemozoin Profilin-like protein	TLR2, TLR4 TLR3 TLR9 TLR9 TLR11	Cell surface Endosomes Endosomes Endosomes Cell surface

III. Complements



Poly-C9 Complex

- Serum complement proteins and membrane-bound complement receptors partake in a number of immune activities:-
 - •Lysis of cells, bacteria, and viruses.
 - •Opsonization, which promotes phagocytosis of particulate antigens.
 - •Activates inflammation, and secretion of immunoregulatory molecules

Complement Activation

- Complement activation has two pathways.
 - classical pathway,
 - the alternative pathway, or the lectin pathway.

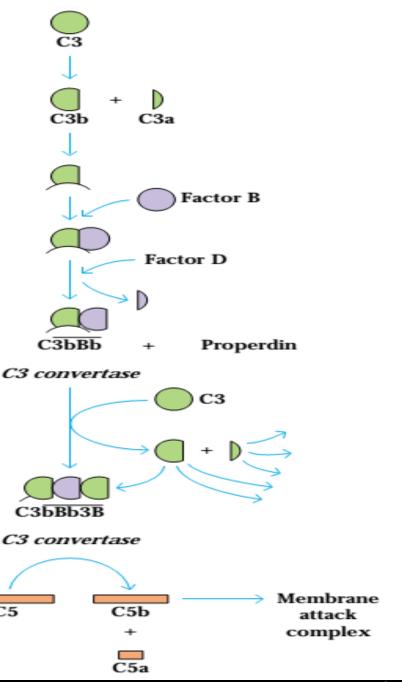
• The final steps that lead to a membrane attack are the same in all pathways.

C3 hydrolyzes spontaneously, C3b fragment attaches to foreign surface

the alternative pathway

- Factor B binds C3a, exposes site acted on by Factor D. Cleavage generates C3bBb, which has C3 convertase activity
- Binding of properdin stabilizes convertase

Convertase generates C3b; some binds to C3 convertase activating C5' convertase. C5b binds to antigenic surface

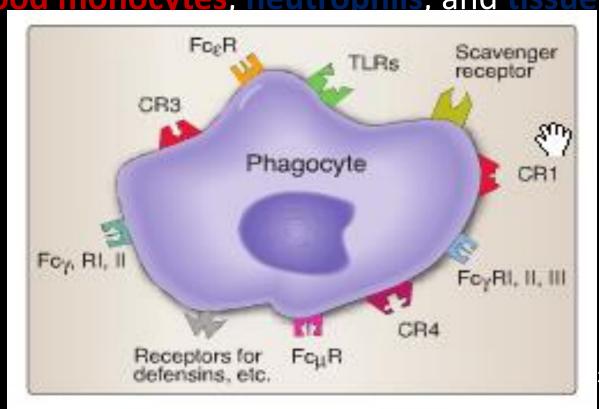


IV. Phagocytic Barriers

 Another important innate defense mechanism is the ingestion of extracellular particulate material by phagocytosis.

 Most phagocytosis is conducted by specialized cells, such as blood monocytes, neutrophils, and tissue

macrophages.

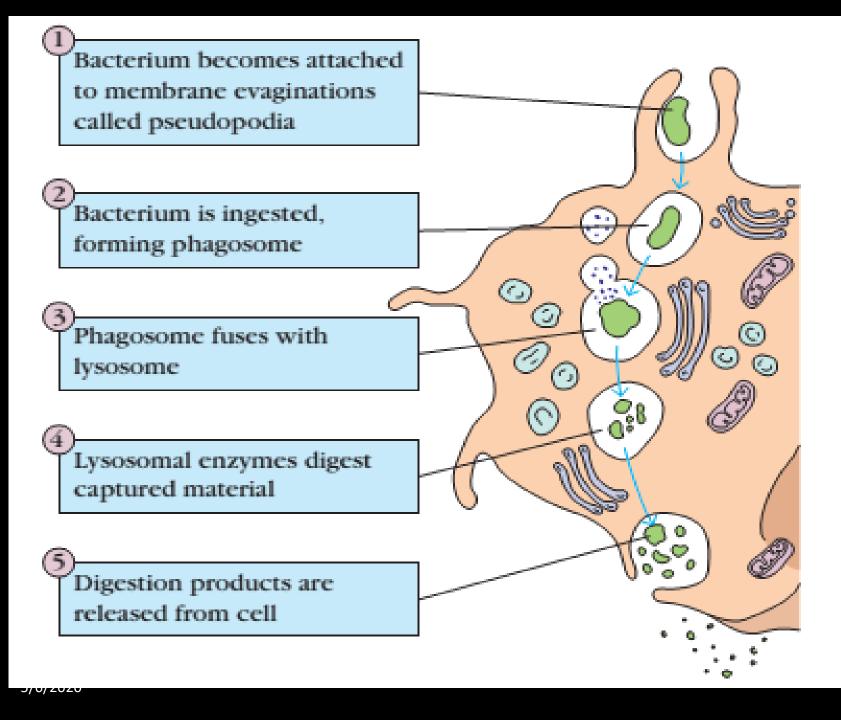


Cell types of innate immunity

Cell type	Neutrophils	Macrophages	Dendritic cells	Natural killer cells
Function	Phagocytosis Reactive oxygen and nitrogen species Antimicrobial peptides	Phagocytosis Inflammatory mediators Antigen presentation Reactive oxygen and nitrogen species Cytokines Complement proteins	Antigen presentation Costimulatory signals Reactive oxygen species Interferon Cytokines	Lysis of viral-infected cells Interferon Macrophage activation

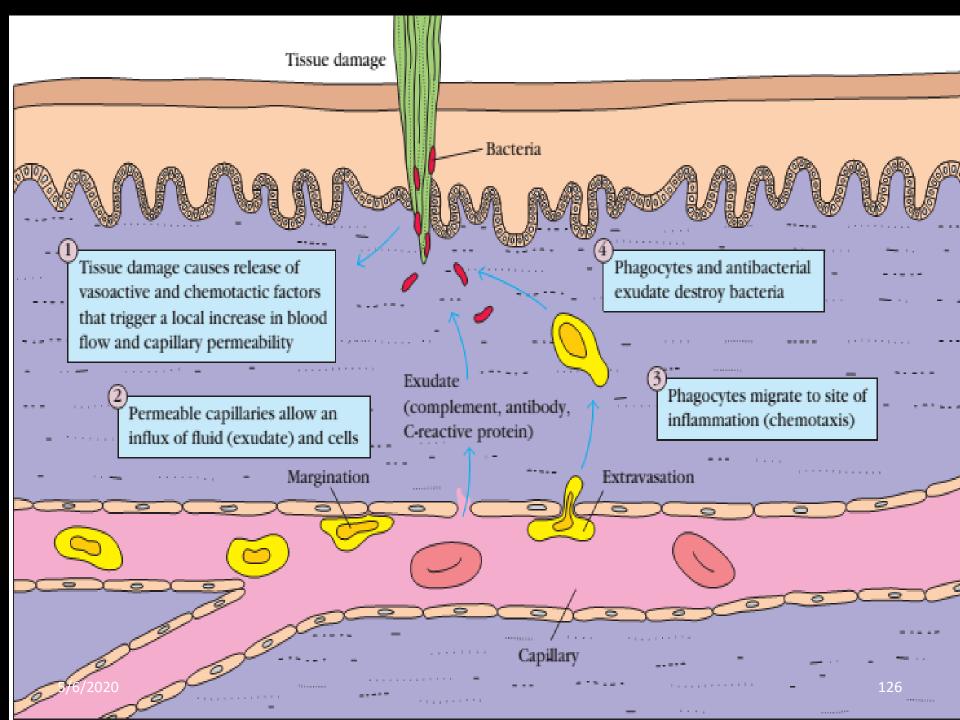
Figure 3-12

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5.2. Principles of Inflammation

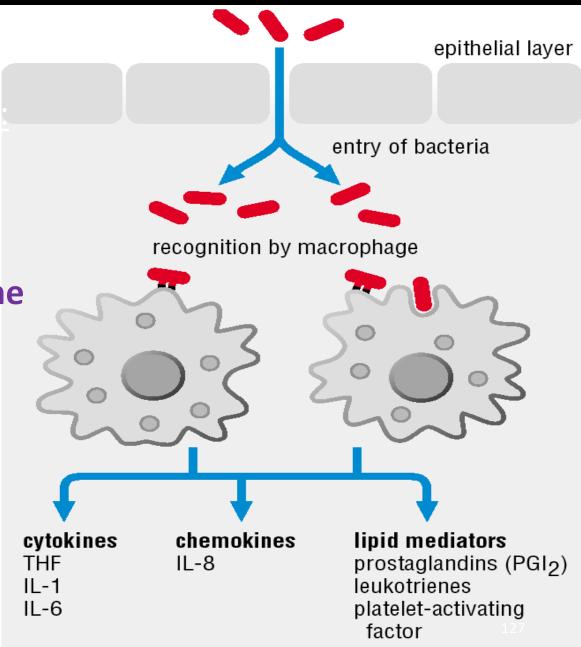
- The main goals of the innate immunity
 - To induce inflammation
 - To achieve first line of defensive against pathogen.
- Inflammation= Innate immunity and the initial response to infection.
- Tissue damage caused by a wound or by an invading pathogenic microorganism induces a complex sequence of events collectively known as the inflammatory response.
- Inflammation induced by immune recognition



Infection leads to production of inducers of inflammation.

Inflammatory mediators
Complex and many,
but include:

Lipids and Proteins (cytokines/chemokineS).

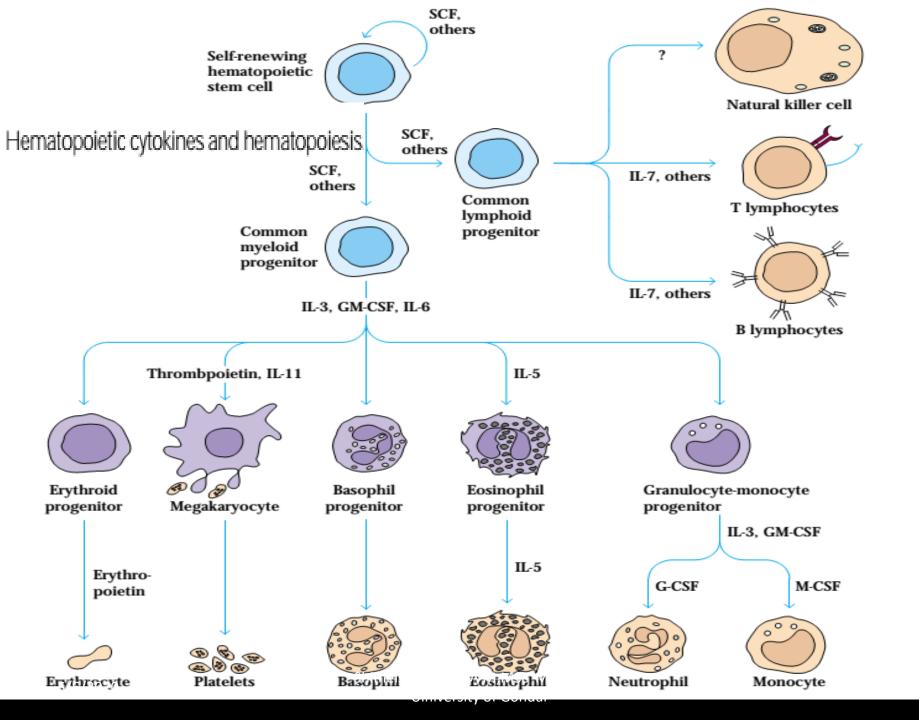


A. Cytokines

- "Cytokines" are soluble protein mediators secreted by immune cells.
 - (mostly) that act on other cells to regulate their activity;
 - many are called "interleukins" (IL-1, IL-2, etc.) (note: sometimes exist in cell-bound forms).

"Chemokines"

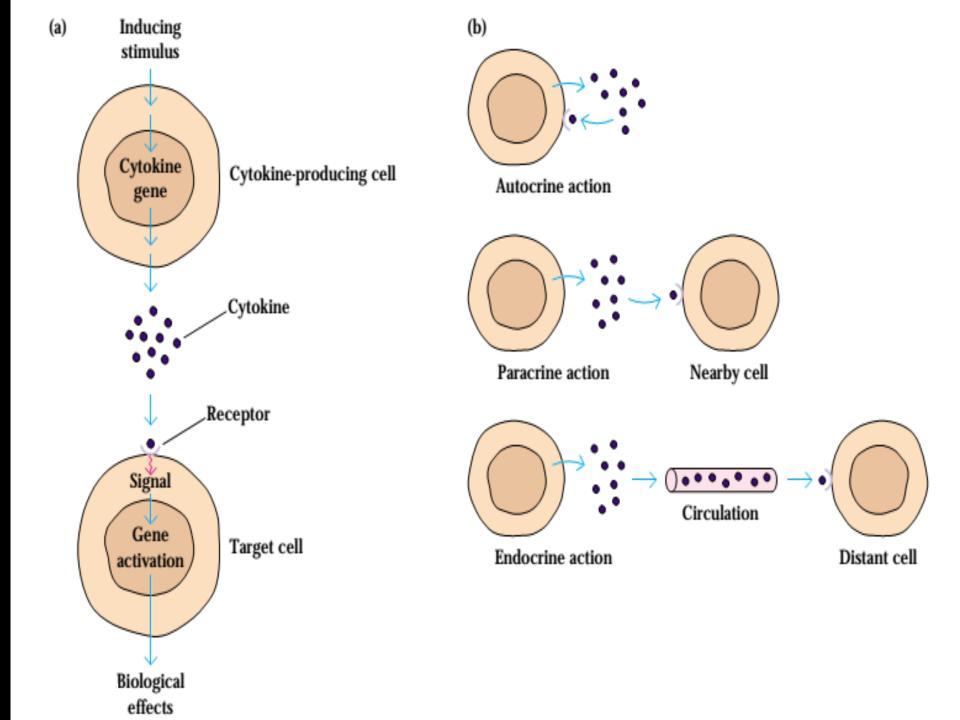
- A subfamily of cytokines primarily functions:-
 - "in directing migration of cells", these are called "chemotactic cytokines" or "chemokines".



Properties of Cytokines

- Cytokines are low-molecular weight regulatory proteins or glycoproteins secreted by white blood cells and various other cells in the body in response to a number of stimuli.
- Cytokines bind to specific receptors on the membrane of target cells, triggering signal-transduction pathways that ultimately alter gene expression in the target cell.
- Cytokines regulate the intensity and duration of the immune response.
- Most cytokines exhibit autocrine and/or paracrine action; fewer exhibit endocrine action.

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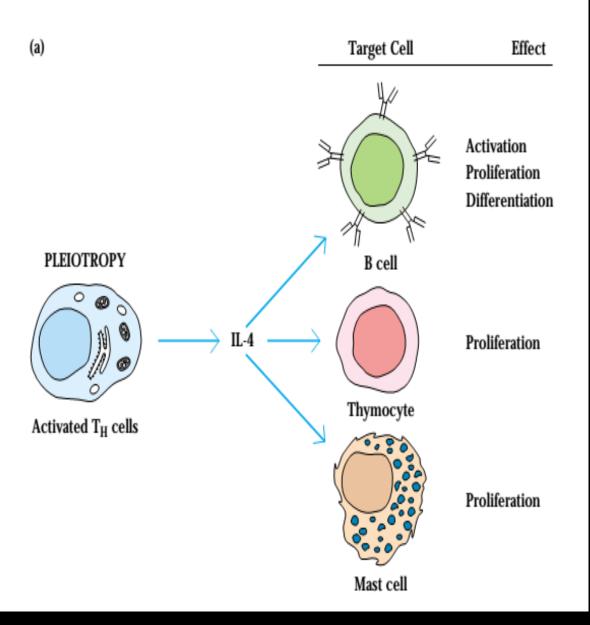
- Many cytokines are referred to as inter-leukins "b/n leukocytes", secreted by leukocytes and act upon other leukocytes.
- Interleukins 1–25 have been identified.
- Some cytokines are known by common names, including the interferons and tumor necrosis factors.
- Chemokines, a group of low-molecular weight cytokines that affect chemotaxis and other aspects of leukocyte behavior.

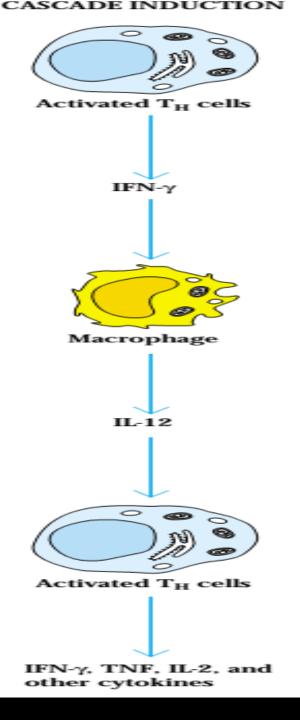
They derive from three gene family:

- Hematopietin
- interferon
- -tumor necrosis factor

Function

- Pleiotrophy:- when one cytokine function multiple jobs.
- Redundancy: when multiple cytokines function the same work.
- Synergy: when two or more cytokines work together to increase their effectiveness.
- Antagonistic function: -when two or more cytokines work appositively when one opposes the function of the other.

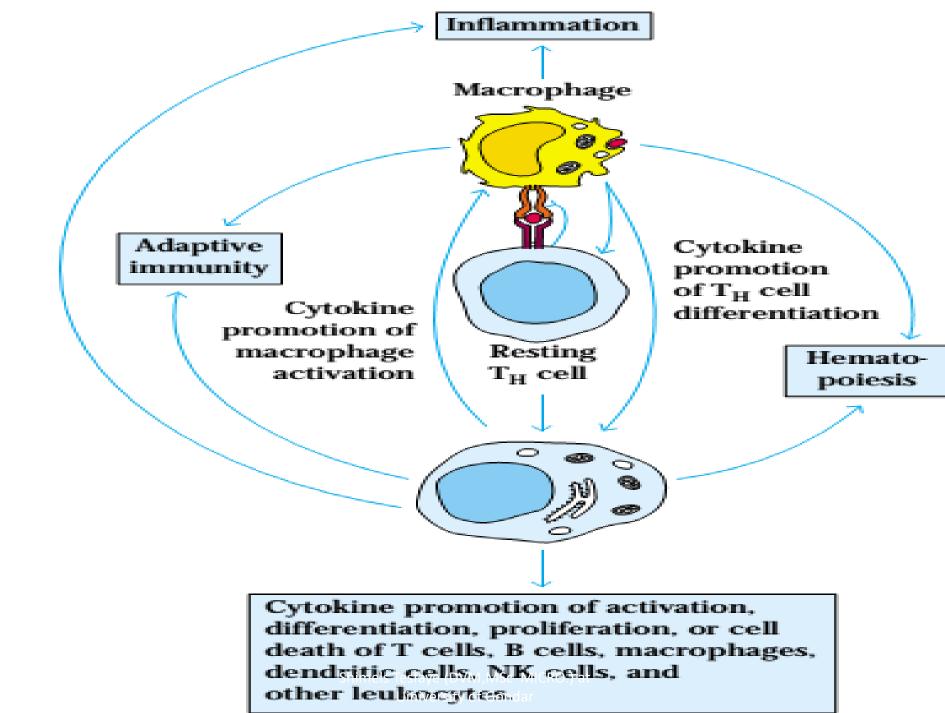




REDUNDANCY IL-2 Proliferation IL-4 IL-5 Activated T_H cells B cell SYNERGY IL-4Induces class switch to IgE IL-5 Activated T_H cells B cell ANTAGONISM Blocks class switch to IgE IL-4 induced by IL-4 IFN-γ Activated T_H cells B cell

Ulliversity of Golidar

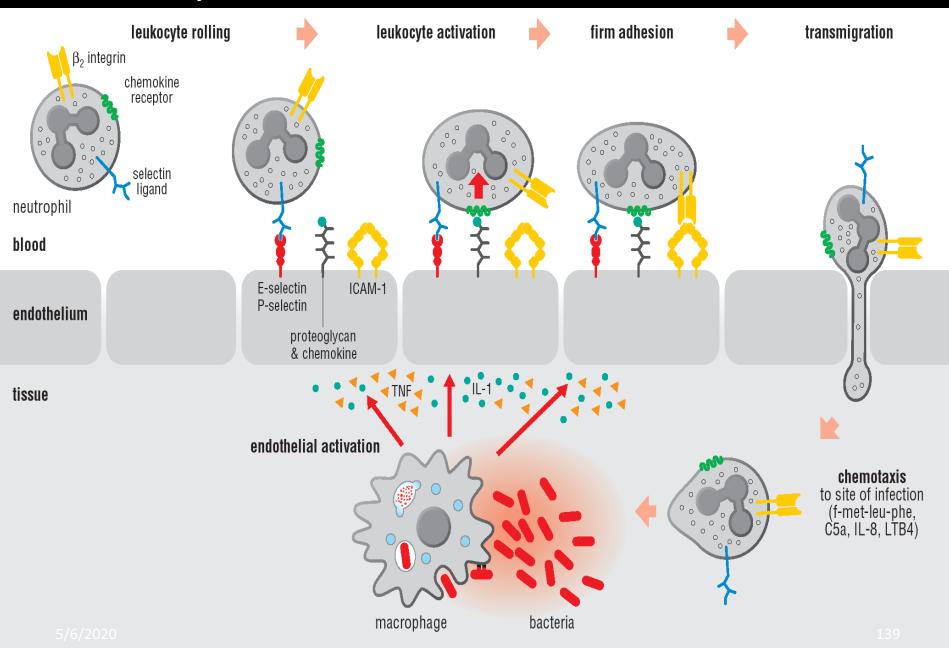
- Cytokines are involved in activities including
 - —innate immunity,
 - -adaptive immunity,
 - inflammation, and
 - –hematopoiesis



Cytokines and Inflammation

- Macrophages or DCs stimulated via innate immune receptors make pro-inflammatory cytokines, especially TNF (Tumor necrosis factor), IL-1, and IL-6.
- TNF and IL-1 = signal to endothelial cells to make them:
 - Leaky to fluid (influx of plasma; containing antibodies, complement components, etc.)
 - Sticky for leukocytes, leading to influx of first neutrophils, later monocytes, lymphocytes
- <u>IL-6</u>= promotes adaptive immune responses and has systemic effects ("acute phase response" of liver,
 - including C-reactive protein or CRP; levels used clinically as an indication of systemic inflammation).

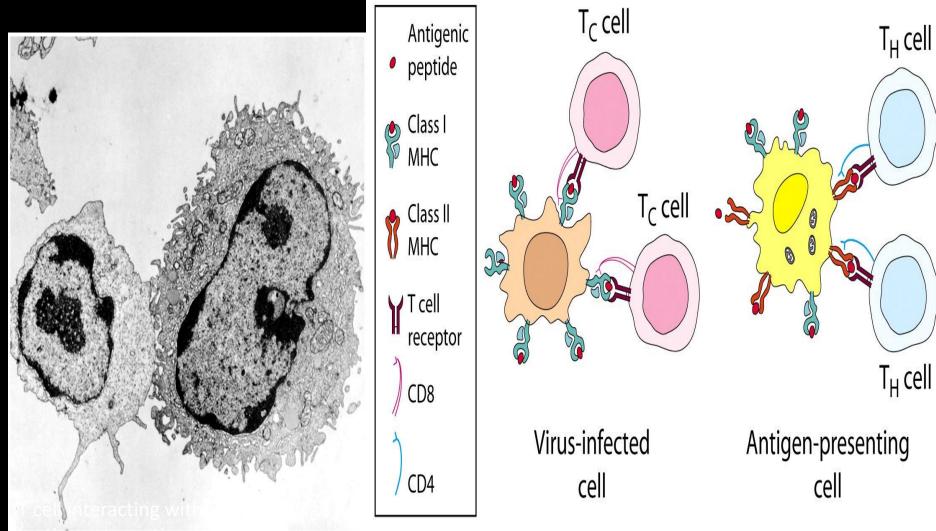
Leukocyte recruitment to sites of inflammation



5.3 Connections between adaptive and innate immunity

- When innate immune signaling is insufficient to clear a pathogen, the adaptive immune system kicks in.
- Innate immune signaling turns on the adaptive immune.

Macrophage and dendritic cells serve as antigen-presenting cells for adaptive immune cells (T cells).



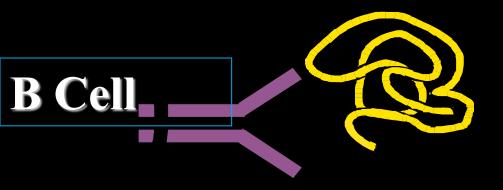
(antigen presenting cen)

Chapter 6

Antigen processing and T-Cell mediated immunological response

Chapter 6

6.1. Antigen Recognition by B and T lymphocytes



What can you say about these pictures?





Introduction

- Class I and class II MHC molecules associate with peptides that have been processed in different intracellular compartments.
- Class I MHC molecules bind peptides derived from endogenous antigens that have been processed within the cytoplasm of the cell (e.g., normal cellular proteins, tumor proteins, or viral and bacterial proteins produced within infected cells).
- Class II MHC molecules bind peptides derived from exogenous antigens that are internalized by phagocytosis or endocytosis and processed within the endocytic pathway.

Intro.....

- Both CD4⁺ and CD8 ⁺T cells can recognize antigen only when it is presented by a self-MHC molecule, an attribute called self-MHC restriction.
- Nearly all nucleated cells express class I MHC molecules, virtually any nucleated cell is able to function as a target cell presenting endogenous antigens to TC cells.
- Most often, target cells are cells that have been infected by a virus or some other intracellular microorganism.
- However, alteredself-cells such as cancer cells, aging body cells, or allogeneic cells from a graft can also serve as targets.

- Since all cells expressing either class I or class II
 MHC molecules can present peptides to T cells,
 - strictly speaking they all could be designated as antigen-presenting cells.
- however, by convention, cells that display peptides associated with class I MHC molecules to CD8 +T cells are referred to as target cells.
- cells that display peptides associated with class II MHC molecules to CD4⁺ TH cells are called antigen-presenting cells (APCs).

Antigen presenting cells function

 Dendritic cells are the most effective of the antigen presenting cells.

Because these cells constitutively express a high level of class II MHC molecules and costimulatory activity, they can activate naive TH cells.

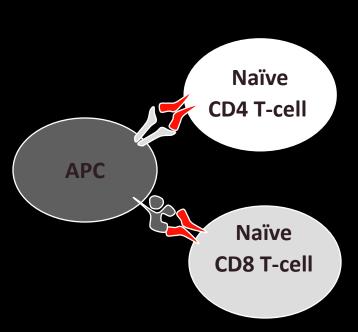
MHC Expression

Cells	MHC Class I	MHC Class II
T cells	+++	-
B cells	+++	+++
Macrophages	+++	+++
Dendritic cells	+++	+++
Thymic Epithelia	+	+++
Neutrophils	+++	-
Hepatocytes	+	-
Kidney	+	-
Muscle	+/-	-
Red blood cells	-	-

APCs

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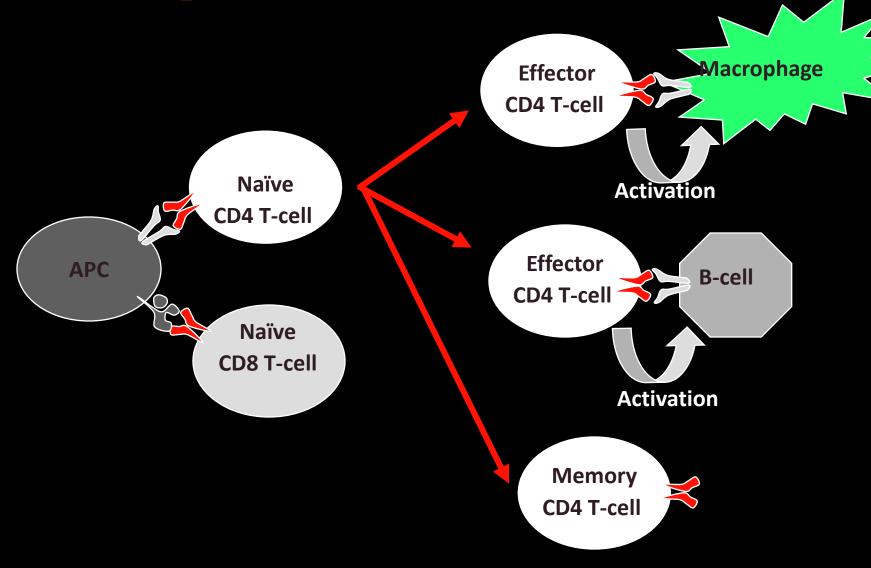
A simple view of T-cell mediated immunity



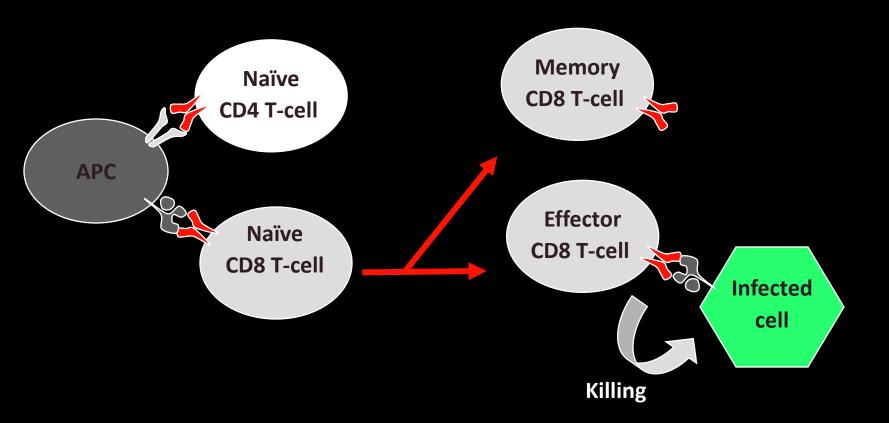
KAfter initial activation, T cells differentiate into effector cells and can be activated in lymphoid organs and periphery.

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A simple view of T-cell mediated immunity

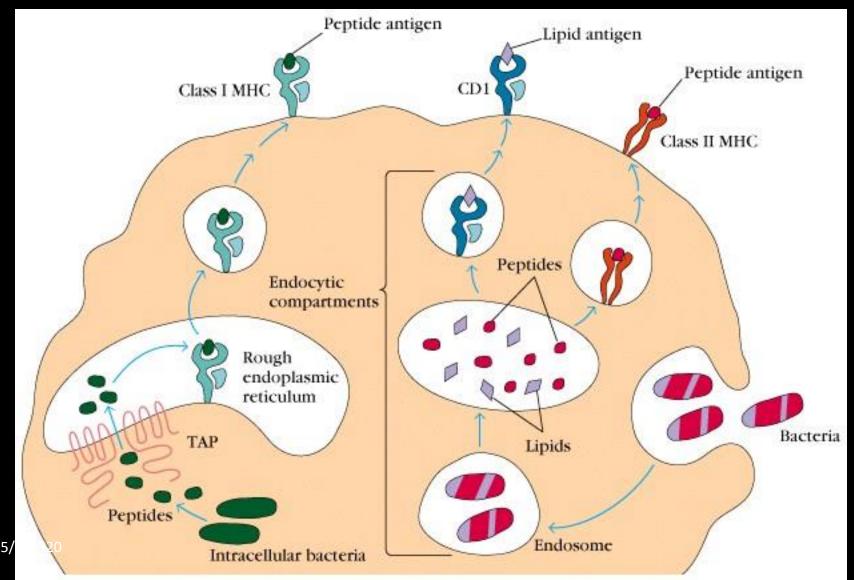


A simple view of T-cell mediated immunity



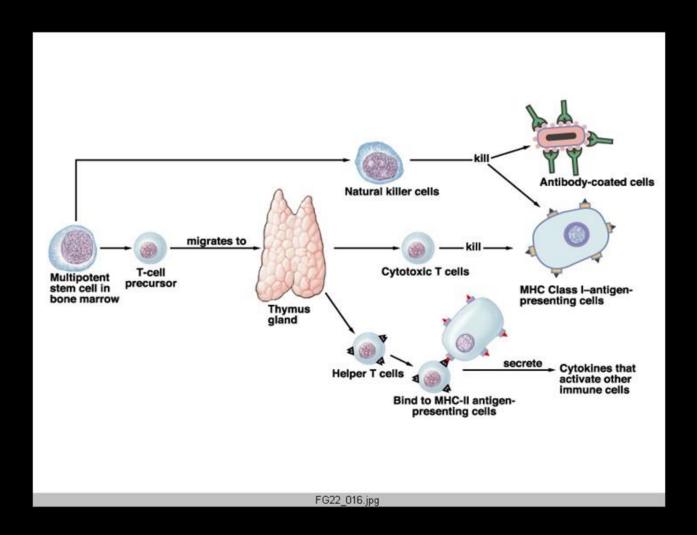
■ Target cells activate effector CD8⁺ Tc (CTLs).

Processing of Class I and Class II vs CD1 Antigens

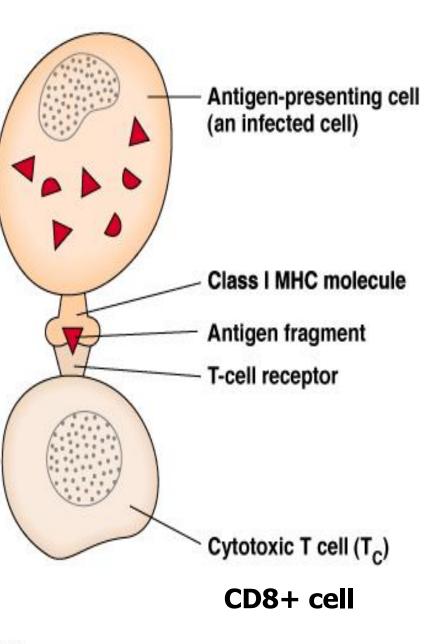


6.2 .T Cell Activation

- After having the Matured T-cells (CD8+ & CD4+ naïve T-cells),
- the next is Activation of those T-cells into Effector T-cells.
- To form more effectors T-cells.
- The first step is gene activation.



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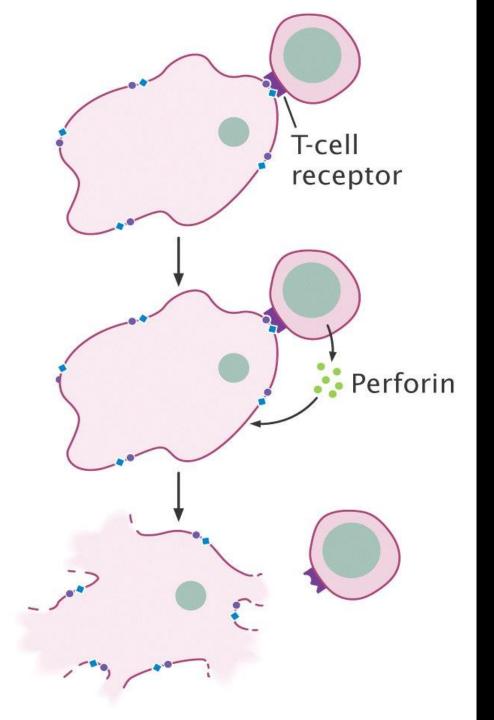


Cytotoxic T Cell and MHC I

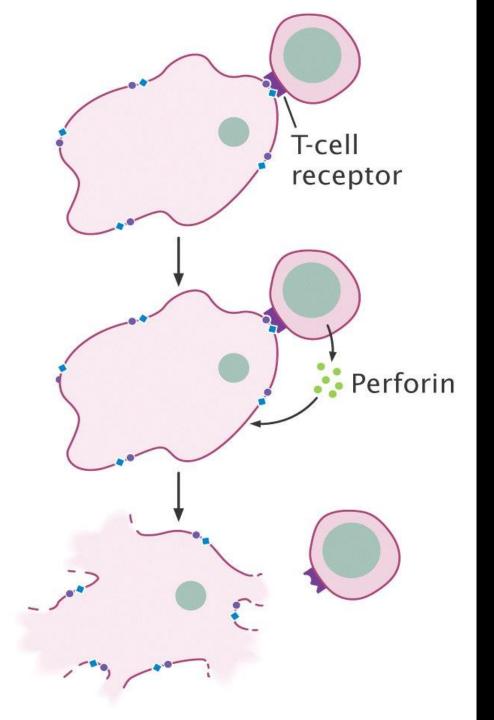
Antigen presentation

(a)

1999 Addison Wesley Longman, Inc.



Cytotoxic T cell= CD8+



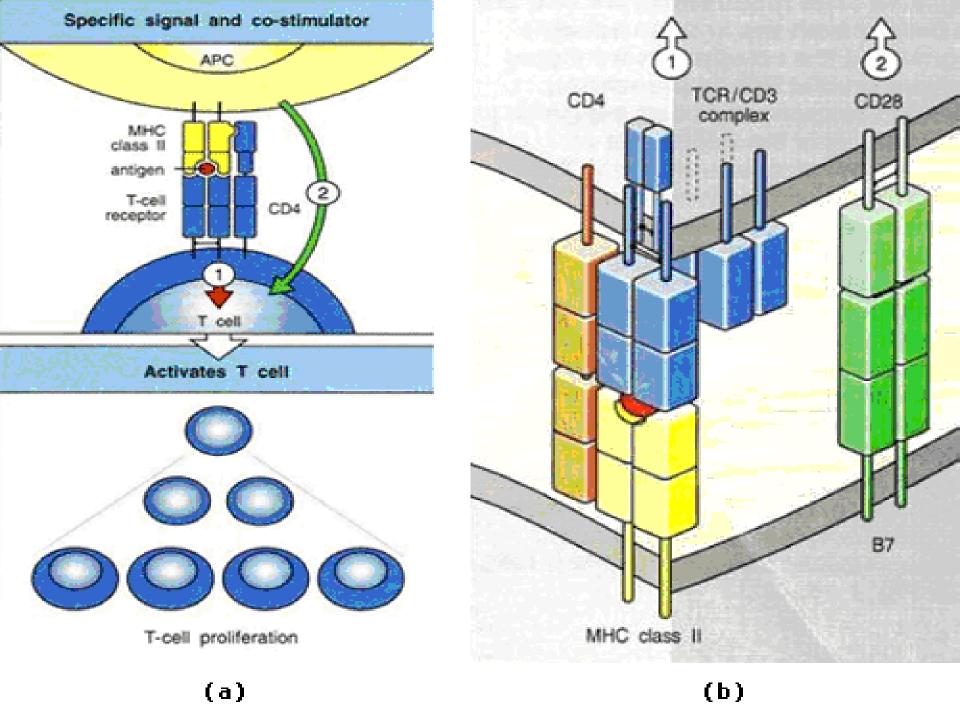
Cytotoxic T cell= CD8+

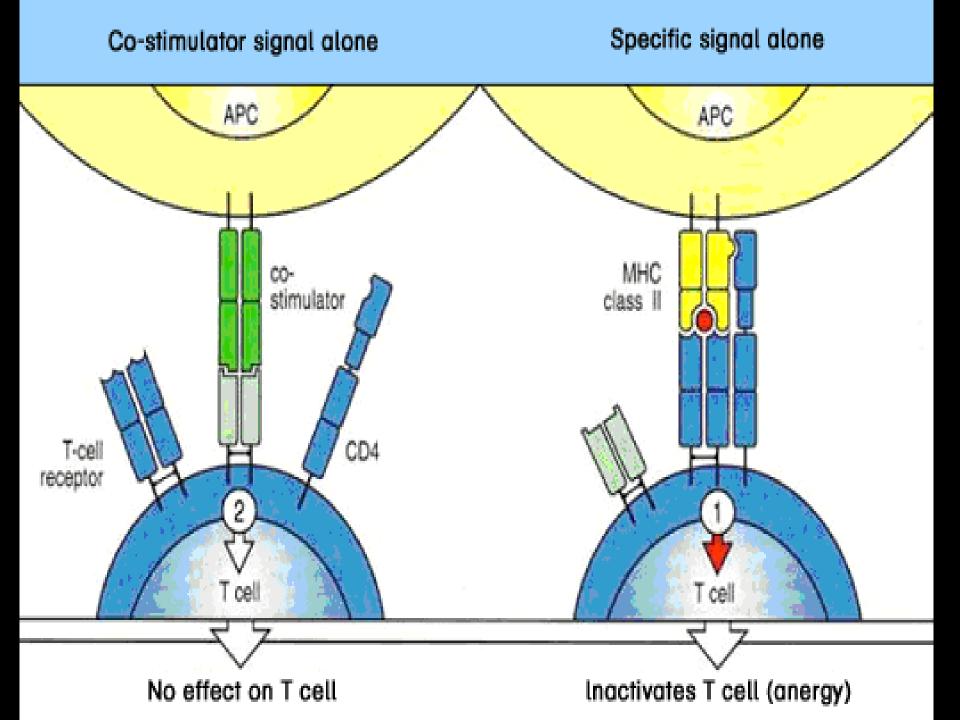
- The central event in the generation of both humoral and cellmediated immune responses is:
 - —the activation and Clonal expansion of TH cells.

- Activation of TC cells, is generally similar to TH-cell activation.
- TH cell activation is initiated by:
- interaction of the <u>TCR-CD3 complex</u> +<u>antigenic</u> <u>peptide bound to a class II MHC molecule</u> on the surface of an antigen-presenting cell.
- an additional requirement for activation is a costimulatory signal, as provided by the binding of the T cell CD28 receptor to the APC B7 molecule.

The interaction summarized as:-

- TCR-CD3/MHC peptide complex interact(main combination).
- Involvement of co-receptor
 - CD4 to MHC II
 - CD8 to MHC I
- Co-stimulatory signal
 - CD 28 to B7 (T_H Cells/APCs)
- —Inhibitory role of CTLA-4.



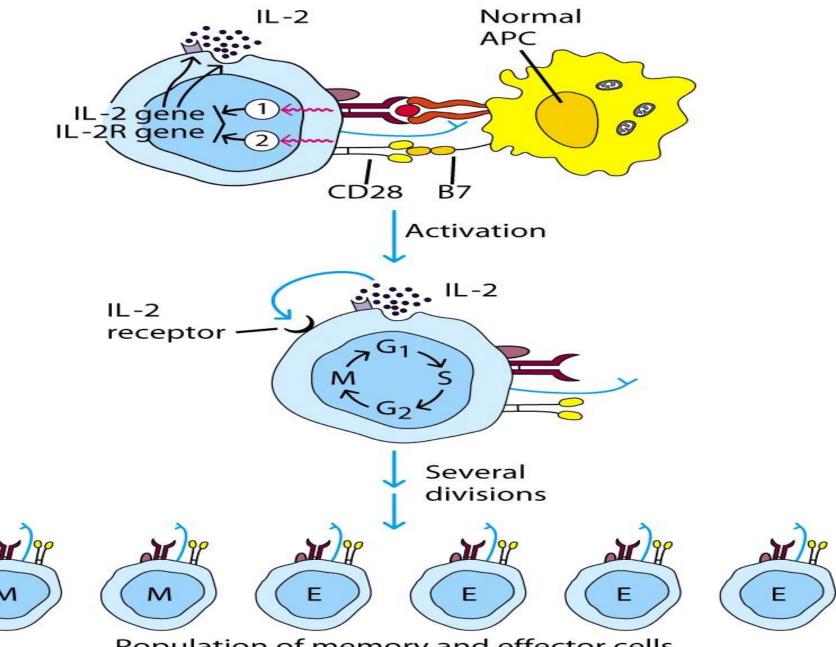


 Post-activation Signaling changes results of Signaling Pathways like:-

—Gene expression changes

-Functional change

–Differentiation



Population of memory and effector cells

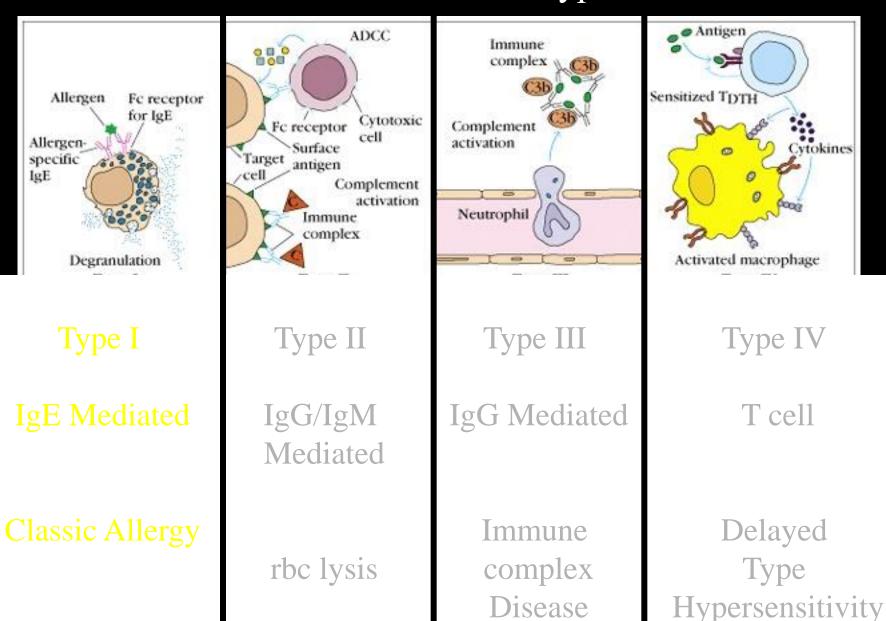
- Functions of effectors
 - —B cell helper
 - —Cytotoxicity

Characteristics of memory cells

-Last months to years vs. effector cells that last days to weeks. Memory cells more easily activated by all APCs then naïve T cells

Chapter 7 Hypersensitivity

Gel and Coombs classification of hypersensitivities.



TYPE I Hypersensitivity Classic allergy

• Mediated by IgE attached to Mast cells.

- The symptoms resulting from allergic responses are known as **anaphylaxis**.
 - Includes: Hay fever(cold allergy), asthma, eczema(skin allergy), bee stings, food allergies.

Allergens

• Allergens are nonparasite antigens that can stimulate a type I hypersensitivity response.

• Allergens bind to IgE and trigger degranulation of chemical mediators.

Allergens

TABLE 16-1 COMMON ALLERGENS ASSOCIATED WITH TYPE I HYPERSENSITIVITY

Proteins

Foreign serum

Vaccines

Plant pollens

Rye grass

Ragweed

Timothy grass

Birch trees

Drugs

Penicillin

Sulfonamides

Local anesthetics

Salicylates

Foods

Nuts

Seafood

Eggs

Peas, beans

Milk

Insect products

Bee venom

Wasp venom

Ant venom

Cockroach calyx

Dust mites

Mold spores

Animal hair and dander

Characteristics of allergens

- Small 15-40,000 molecular weight proteins.
- Specific protein components
 - Often enzymes.
- Low dose of allergen
- Mucosal exposure.
- Most allergens promote a Th2 immune (antibody dependentor humoral immunity).

Allergens

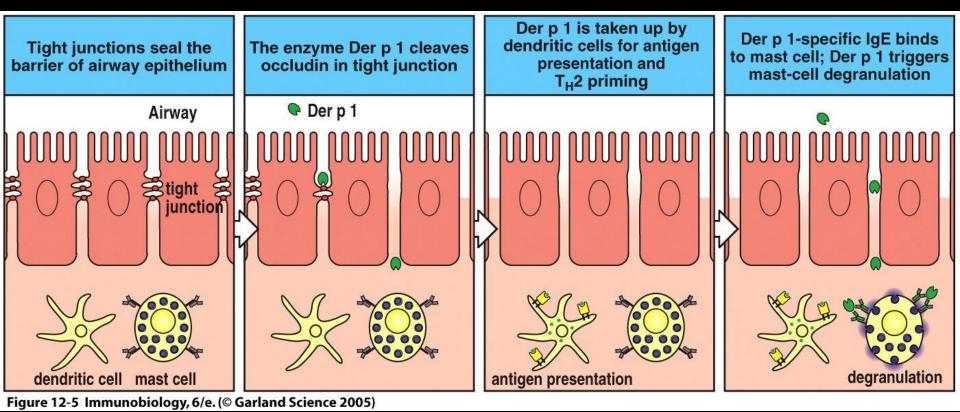


Dermatophagoides pteronyssinus (common dust mite)

Example: Der P1

Der P1 is an enzyme allergen from the fecal pellets of the dust mite.

Der P1 Allergen



Allergen is easily aerosolized and inhaled. Der P1 breaks down components of tight junctions which helps it to cross mucosa.

Atopy

• Atopy is the term for the genetic trait to have a predisposition for localized anaphylaxis.

• Atopic individuals have higher levels of IgE and eosinophils.

Genetic Predisposition Type I hypersensitivity

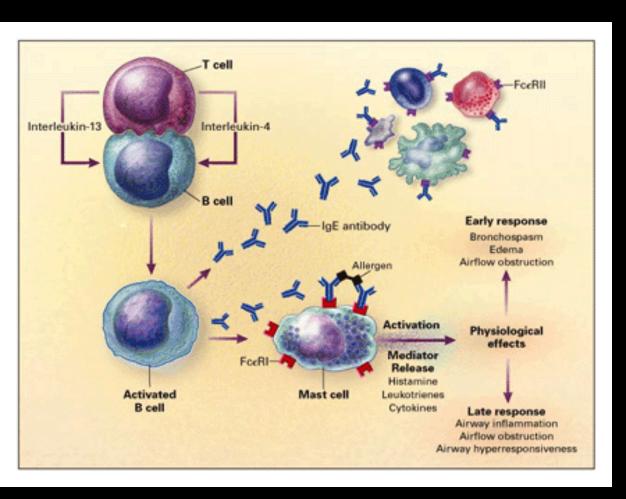
- Candidate polymorphic genes include:
 - IL-4 Receptor.
 - IL-4 cytokine (promoter region).
 - FcεRI. High affinity IgE receptor.
 - Class II MHC(present peptides promoting Th2 response).
 - Inflammation genes.

Mechanisms of allergic response Sensitization

Repeated exposure to allergens initiates immune response that generates IgE isotype.

Th2 cells required to provide the IL-4 required to get isotype switching to IgE.

Mechanisms of allergic response Sensitization Th2/B cell interaction



IL-4
IL-4R
CD40
Drive B cell
Activation and IgE isotype switch.

Mechanisms of allergic response Sensitization

- The IgE can attach to Mast cells by Fc receptor, which increases the life span of the IgE.
- Half-life of IgE in serum is days whereas attached to FceR it is increased to months.

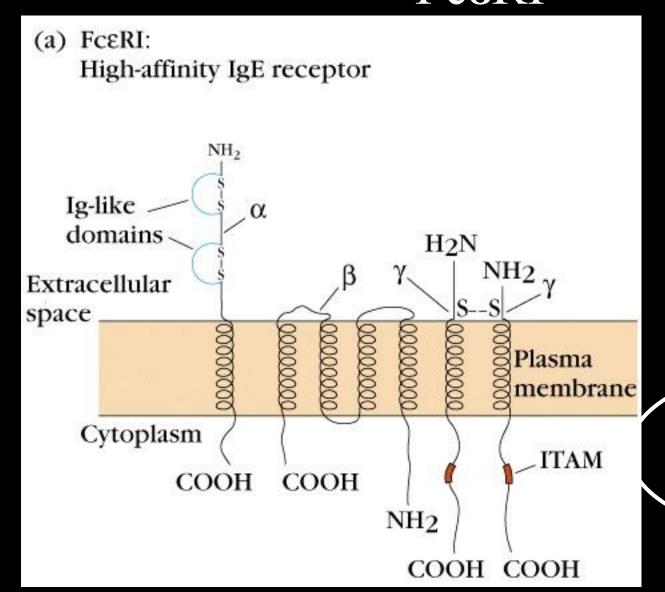
Mechanisms of allergic response Fc ϵ receptors (Fc ϵ R)

FceR1

- high affinity IgE receptor found on
 - mast cells/basophils/activated eosinophils.

• Allergen binding to IgE attached to FceR1 triggers release of granules from cell.

Mechanisms of allergic response FceRI



High affinity
IgE Fc
Receptor

Has ITAM motifs

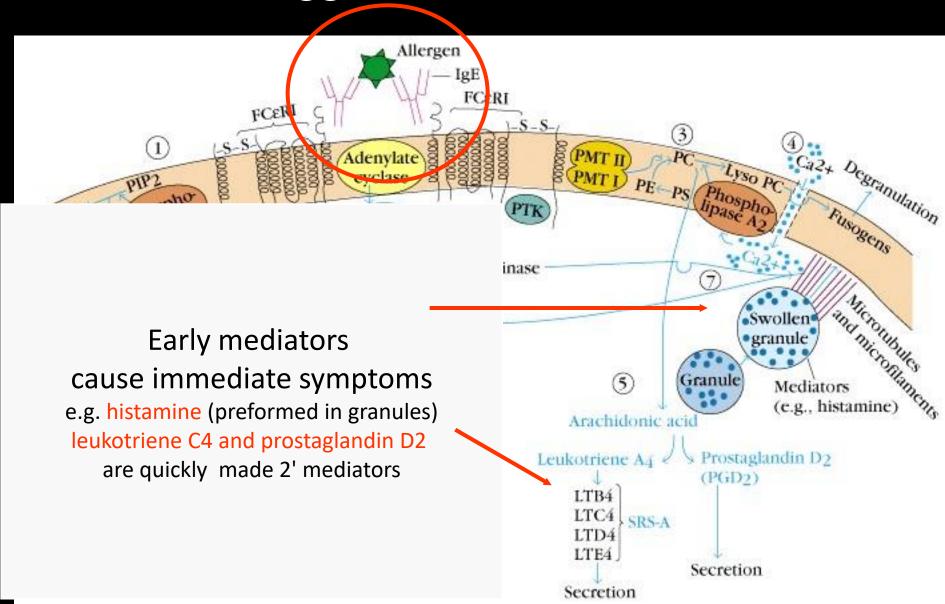
Mechanisms of allergic response Effector Stage of Hypersensitivity

Secondary exposure to allergen

• Mast cells are primed with IgE on surface.

• Allergen binds IgE and cross-links to activate signal with tyrosine phosphorylation, Ca++ influx, degranulation and release of mediators.

FceRI Triggers Release of Mediators



Mediators of Type I Hypersensitivity Immediate effects

Histamine

- Constriction of smooth muscles. Bronchiole constriction = wheezing. Constriction of intestine = cramps-diarrhea.
- Vasodilation with increased fluid into tissues causing increased swelling or fluid in mucosa.
- Activates enzymes for tissue breakdown.
- Leukotrienes =Bronchial smooth muscles contract
- Prostaglandins

Mediators of Type I Hypersensitivity Primary Mediators

Pre-formed mediators in granules

- Histamine
- Cytokines TNF-α, IL-1, IL-6.
- Chemoattractants for Neutrophils and Eosinophils.
- Enzymes
 - tryptase, chymase, cathepsin.
 - Changes in connective tissue matrix, tissue breakdown.

Type I Hypersensitivity

Secondary mediators

Mediators formed after activation

- Leukotrienes=Bronchial smooth muscles contract
- Prostaglandins=Inhibit the secretion of histamine(high conc.)but promote histamine release (low con.)
- Th2 cytokines- IL-4, IL-5, IL-13, GM-CSF

Continuation of sensitization cycle

- Mast cells control the immediate response.
- Eosinophils and neutrophils drive late or chronic response.

• More IgE production further driven by activated Mast cells, basophils, **eosinophils**.

Continuation of sensitization cycle Eosinophils

- Eosinophils play key role in late phase reaction.
- Eosinophils make
 - enzymes,
 - cytokines (IL-3, IL-5, GM-CSF),
 - Lipid mediators (LTC4, LTD4, PAF)
- Eosinophils can provide CD40L and IL-4 for B cell activation.

Localized anaphylaxis

- Thigestiventract contactiresults in womiting ergen. cramping, diarrhea.
- Skin sensitivity usually reddened inflamed area resulting in itching.
- Airway sensitivity results in sneezing and rhinitis OR wheezing and asthma.

Systemic anaphylaxis

• Systemic vasodilation and smooth muscle contraction leading to severe bronchiole constriction, edema, and shock.

• Similar to systemic inflammation.

Treatment for Type I

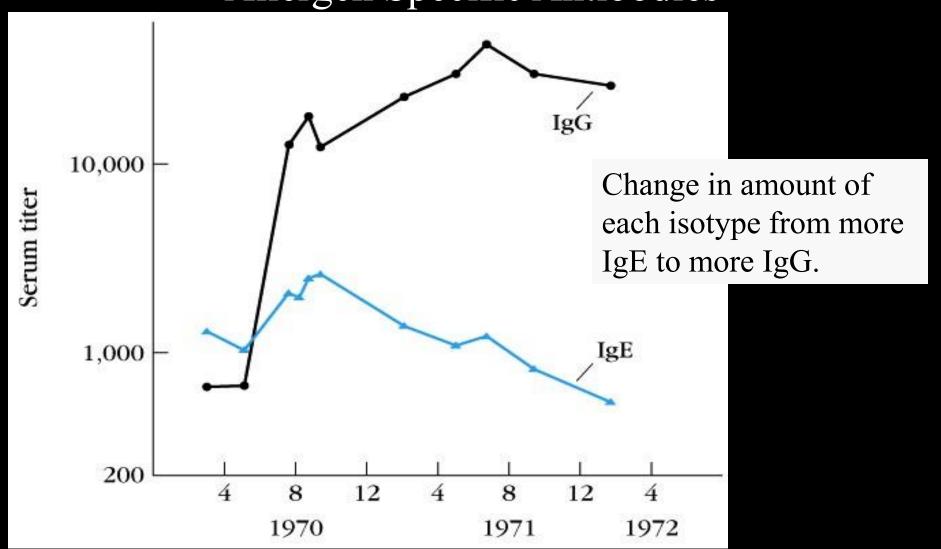
Pharmacotherapy

- Drugs.
 - Non-steroidal anti-inflammatories
 - Antihistamines block histamine receptors.
 - Steroids
 - Theophylline OR epinephrine -prolongs or increases cAMP levels in mast cells which inhibits degranulation.

Treatment for Type I

- Immunotherapy
 - Desensitization (hyposensitization)
 also known as allergy shots.
 - Repeated injections of allergen to reduce the IgE on Mast cells and produce IgG.

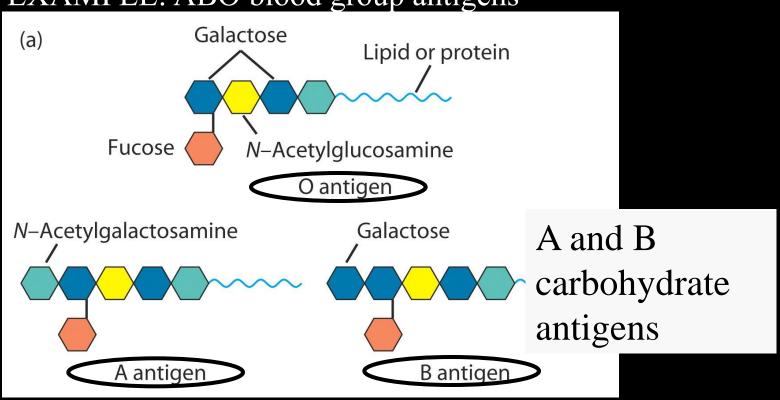
Treatment for Type I Effect of allergy shots Allergen Specific Antibodies



TYPE II Hypersensitivity Antibody mediated cytotoxicity Blood Transfusion reactions

Innocuous antigens on red blood cells.

EXAMPLE: ABO blood group antigens



 Type II hypersensitive reactions involve antibodymediate destruction of cells.

- Antibody can activate the complement system, creating pores in the membrane of a foreign cell
 - or it can mediate cell destruction by antibodydependent cell-mediated cytotoxicity (ADCC).

A. Transfusion Reactions Are Type II Reactions

- A large number of proteins and glycoproteins on the membrane of red blood cells.
 - Which are encoded by different genes, each of which has a number of alternative alleles.
- An individual possessing one allelic form of a blood-group antigen can recognize other allelic forms on transfused blood as foreign and mount an antibody response.
- Antibodies to the A, B, and O antigens, called isohemagglutinins, are usually of the IgM class.

ABO Blood Groups

Genotype	Blood–group phenotype	Antigens on erythrocytes (agglutinins)	Serum antibodies (isohemagglutinins)
AA or AO	Α	A	Anti-B
BB or BO	В	В	Anti–A
AB	AB	A and B	None
00	0	None	Anti-A and anti-B

Antibody against rbc antigen binds and mediates killing of rbcs via C'or ADCC causes systemic inflammation.

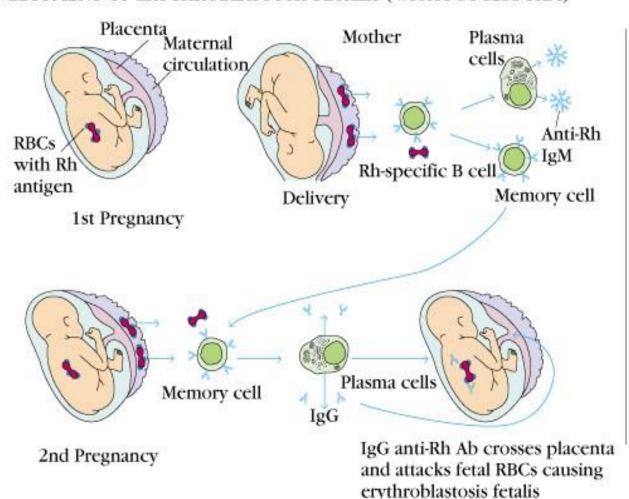
Quex: Why do we have antibodies to these innocuous antigens even before we get blood transfusion?

B. Hemolytic disease of newborn Rh factor incompatibility

- IgG abs to Rh an innocuous rbc antigen.
 - Rh⁺ baby born to Rh⁻ mother first time fine.
 - 2nd time can have abs to Rh from 1st pregnancy.
 - Ab crosses placenta and baby kills its own rbcs.
 - Treat mother with ab to Rh antigen right after birth and mother never makes its own immune response.

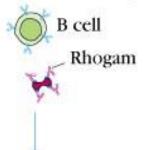
TYPE II Rh factor incompatibility

DEVELOPMENT OF ERYTHROBLASTOSIS FETALIS (WITHOUT RHOGAM)



PREVENTION (WITH RHOGAM)

Mother (treated with Rhogam)



Prevents B-cell activation and memory cell formation

C. drug-Induced Hemolytic Anemia Is a Type II Response

•Certain antibiotics (e.g., penicillin, cephalosporin, and streptomycin) can adsorb non-specifically to <u>proteins on RBC membranes</u>,

→ → forming a complex similar to a hapten-carrier complex.

In some patients, such drug-protein complexes induce formation of antibodies,

- •which then bind to the adsorbed drug on red blood cells, inducing complement mediated lysis →→ progressive anemia.
- •When the drug is withdrawn, the hemolytic anemia disappears.
- •Penicillin is notable in that it can induce all four types of hypersensitivity with various clinical manifestation.

TYPE III

Antigen antibody immune complexes (IgG) mediated

Immune Complex Disease

• Large amount of antigen and antibodies form complexes in blood.

• If not eliminated can deposit in capillaries or joints and trigger inflammation.

Neutrophiles and macrophages bind to immune complexes via FcR and phagocytize the complexes.

BUT

- If unable to phagocytize the immune complexes can cause inflammation via C'activation ---> C3a C4a, C5a and "frustrated phagocytes".
- As explained in the C3a, C4a, and C5a complement split products are anaphyla-toxins.
 - that cause localized mast-cell degranulation and consequent increase in local vascular permeability.

- C3a, C5a, and C5b67 are also chemotactic factors for neutrophils, which can accumulate in large numbers at the site of immune-complex deposition.
- If neutrophils and macrophages are unable to phagocytize the immune complexes →→ (cells) degranulate in the area of immune complex →→ deposition and trigger inflammation.
- Unable to eat -----try to digest outside cell.
- Much of the tissue damage in type III reactions stems from release of lytic enzymes by neutrophils as they attempt to phagocytose immune complexes.

Localized disease

1.In addition, the activation of complement can induce aggregation of platelets, $\rightarrow \rightarrow$ release of clotting factors $\rightarrow \rightarrow$ microthrombi.

2. **Deposited in joints causing local** inflammation = arthritis.

- 3. Deposited in kidneys = glomerulonephritis.
- 4. Serum sickness from large amounts of antigen such as injection of foreign serum.

Delayed type hypersensitivity (type IV) Th1 cells and macrophages

- When some subpopulations of activated TH cells encounter certain types of antigens, they secrete cytokines that induce a localized inflammatory reaction called delayed-type hypersensitivity (DTH).
- **DTH** response is from:
 - Continued macrophage activation → chronic inflammation → in tissue lesions, scarring, and granuloma formation.
 - Delayed is relative because DTH response arise 24-72
 hours after exposure rather than within minutes.

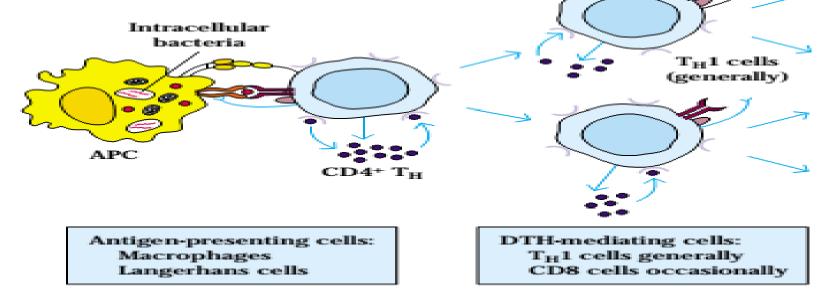
Sensitization stage

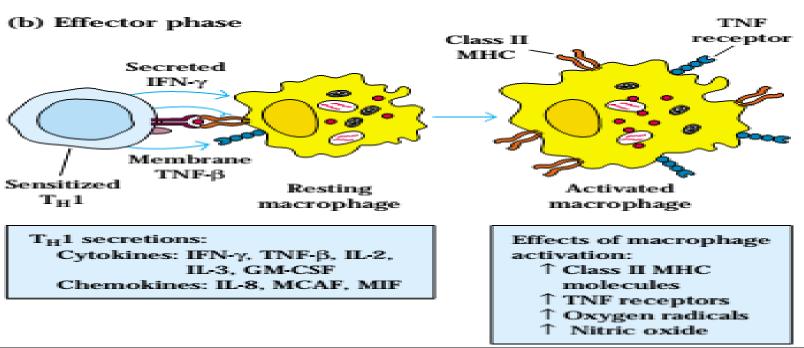
- Memory Th1 cells against DTH antigens are generated by dendritic cells during the sensitization stage.
- These Th1 memory cells can activate macrophages and trigger inflammatory response.

Dendritic cells+Ags \rightarrow TH1 cells activation \rightarrow \rightarrow activate macrophages +inflammation

Effector stage

- Th1 memory cells are activated and produce cytokines.
 - IFN- γ , TNF- α , and TNF- β which cause tissue destruction, inflammation.
 - IL-2 that activates T cells and CTLs.
 - Chemokines- for macrophage recruitment.
 - IL-3, GM-CSF for increased monocyte/macrophage.
- Continued exposure to antigen can cause chronic inflammation and result in **granuloma formation**.

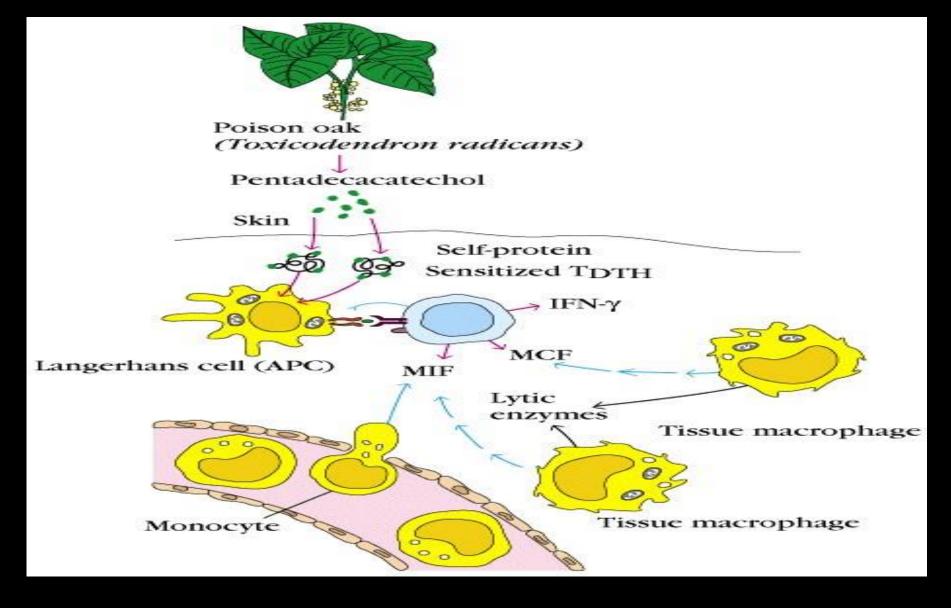




Contact dermatitis

- The response to poison oak is a classic Type IV.
 - Small molecules act as haptens and complex with skin proteins to be taken up by APCs and presented to Th1 cells to get sensitization.
 - During secondary exposure Th1 memory cells become activated to cause DTH.

Contact dermatitis



Delayed type hypersensitivity (DTH)

TABLE 14-3 INTRACELLULAR PATHOGENS AND CONTACT ANTIGENS THAT INDUCE DELAYED-TYPE HYPERSENSITIVITY

Intracellular bacteria

Mycobacterium tuberculosis

Mycobacterium leprae

Listeria monocytogenes

Brucella abortus

Intracellular fungi

Pneumocystis carinii

Candida albicans

Histoplasma capsulatum

Cryptococcus neoformans

Intracellular parasites

Leishmania sp.

Intracellular viruses

Herpes simplex virus

Variola (smallpox)

Measles virus

Contact antigens

Picrylchloride

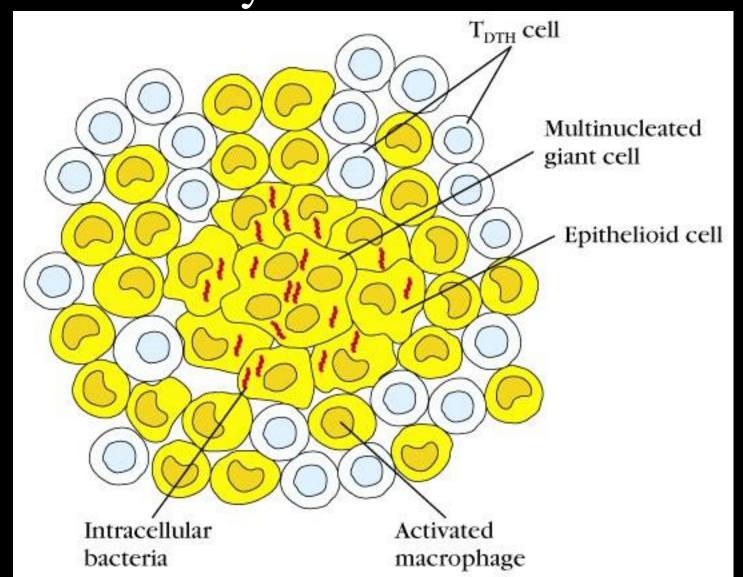
Hair dyes

Nickel salts

Poison ivy

Poison oak

Granuloma Formation from DTH Mediated by Chronic Inflammation



Drug reactions can be any Type of Hypersensitivity

TABLE 16-5	Penicillin-induced hypersensitive reactions		
Type of reaction	Antibody or lymphocytes induced	Clinical manifestations	
I	IgE	Urticaria, systemic anaphylaxis	
II	IgM, IgG	Hemolytic anemia	
III	IgG	Serum sickness, glomerulonephritis	
IV	T _{DTH} cells	Contact dermatitis	

Chapter 10 Vaccination

- Vaccine development begins with basic research.
- Recent advances in immunology and molecular biology have led to effective new vaccines and to promising strategies for finding new vaccine candidates.
- Knowledge of the differences in epitopes recognized by T cells and B cells has enabled immunologists to begin to design vaccine candidates to maximize activation of both arms of the immune system.
- As differences in antigen-processing pathways became evident, scientists began to design vaccines and to use adjuvants that maximize antigen presentation with class I or class II MHC molecules.
- Genetic engineering techniques can be used to develop vaccines to maximize the immune response to selected epitopes and to simplify delivery of the vaccines.

Type of vaccines

- **Active and Passive Immunization**
- Designing Vaccines for Active Immunization
- Whole-Organism Vaccines
- Purified Macromolecules as Vaccines
- Recombinant-Vector Vaccines
- DNA Vaccines
- Multivalent Subunit Vaccines

10.1. Active and Passive Immunization

- Immunity to infectious microorganisms can be achieved by active or passive immunization.
- In each case, immunity can be acquired either by natural processes
 - (usually by transfer from mother to fetus or by previous infection by the organism) or,
- by artificial means such as injection of antibodies or vaccines.
- The agents used for inducing passive immunity include antibodies from humans or animals.

- Active immunization is achieved by inoculation with microbial pathogens that induce immunity
 - but do not cause disease or with antigenic components from the pathogens.
- In history Jenner and Pasteur are recognized as the pioneers of vaccination, or induction of active immunity.
- Emil von Behring and Hidesaburo Kitasato for their contributions to passive immunity.

Passive immunization

- Passive immunization can also be achieved by injecting a recipient with preformed antibodies.
- Passive immunization is routinely administered to individuals exposed to botulism, tetanus, diphtheria, hepatitis, measles, and rabies.
- Passively administered antiserum is also used to provide protection from poisonous snake and insect bite.
- Produce immediate immunization.
- Because passive immunization does not activate the immune system, it generates no memory response and the protection provided is transient.
- Although passive immunization may be an effective treatment, it should be used with caution because certain risks are associated with the injection of preformed antibody.

 If the antibody was produced in another species, such as a horse, the recipient can mount a strong response to the isotypic determinants of the foreign antibody

Chapter 8 Vaccination

Introduction

• Immunization: a procedure designed to increase concentrations of antibodies and/or effector T-cells which are reactive against infection (or cancer).

- Immunization procedure called vaccination and the immunizing agent called vaccine (or "serum" in historical references)
- When performed before exposure to an infectious agent (or soon after exposure in certain cases), it is called immunoprophylaxis.
- intended to *prevent* the infection.

10.1. Types of Immunization

- Two mechanisms by which immunization can be achieved
- Passive immunization:
- The agents used for inducing passive immunity include antibodies from humans or animals.
 - Protective Abs --> non immune recipient.
 - No immunological memory T- helper cells.
- Active immunization:
 - Induction of adaptive immune response, with protection and memory.
- Passive Immunization aquarized through
 - Natural maternal serum/milk
 - Artificial immune serum.

Active Immunization aquared trough—

- Natural infection
- Artificial infection (vaccination)*:
- Whole-Organism Vaccines
 - ✓ Attenuated organisms (live)
 - √ inactivated organisms (dead)
- ✓ Purified Macromolecules as Vaccines (proteins and polysaccharides).
- ✓ Cloned genes of microbiological antigens
- ✓ Synthetic peptides.
- **✓ DNA**
- **✓ Recombinant-Vector Vaccines**

Passive Immunity

- Naturally transplacental transfer of maternal IgG
 Abs to developing fetus; transfer of IgG + IgA Abs in milk during breast-feeding of newborn animals.
- Passive immunization is routinely administered to individuals exposed to botulism, tetanus, diphtheria, hepatitis, measles, and rabies.

 An antiserum is also used to provide protection from poisonous snake and insect bite.

• passive immunization does not activate the immune system, it generates no memory response and the protection provided is transient.

- Artificially injection of Ig Performed prophylactic ally, either after diagnosis of exposure to toxin/virus or as a short term preventive procedure, e.g. if one is traveling to an endemic area.
- If the antibody was produced in another species, such as a horse, the recipient can mount a strong response to the isotypic determinants of the foreign antibody.

Sources of Passive Immunity

- Almost all blood or blood products
- homogeneous serum: serum obtained from blood donor volunteers, have been immunized.
- heterogeneous serum: serum obtained from blood of animals hyper-immunized.
- Heterologous hyperimmune serum (antitoxin)

Active Immunization

Naturally - following exposure to an infection.

Artificially - by vaccination: Performed either

 by i. m. injection of killed or attenuated antigens (often with adjuvant) or by ingestion of attenuated live organisms.

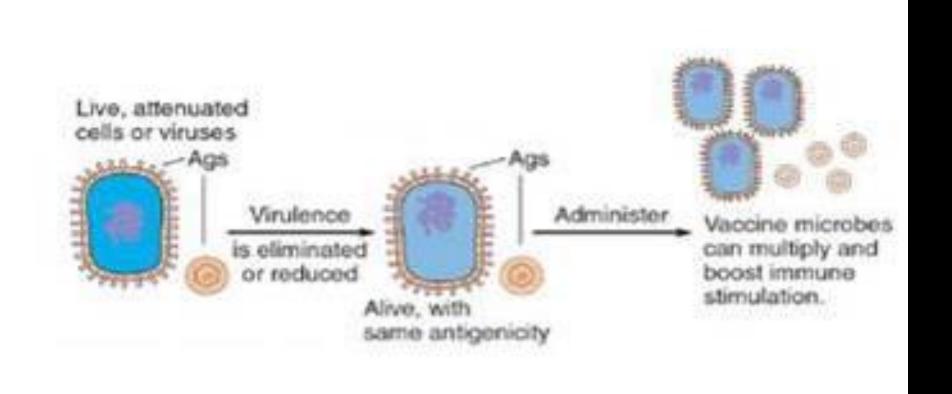
10.2. Types of Vaccines

1. Attenuated whole-agent vaccines

- . Many of the common vaccines currently in use consist of inactivated (killed) or live but attenuated (avirulent) bacterial cells or viral particles.
- Attenuation often can be achieved by growing a pathogenic bacterium or virus for prolonged periods under abnormal culture conditions.
- E.g an attenuated strain of Mycobacterium bovis called Bacillus Calmette-Guerin (BCG) was developed by growing M. bovis on a medium containing increasing concentrations of bile.

- Eg.2 The poliovirus used in the Sabin vaccine was attenuated by growth in monkey kidney epithelial cells.
- Live vaccines more closely mimic an actual infection.
- Lifelong immunity, especially with viruses, is often achieved without booster immunizations, and an effectiveness rate of95% is common.
- This long-term effectiveness probably occurs because the attenuated viruses replicate in the body,
 - increasing the original dose and acting as a series of secondary (booster) immunizations.
 - >e.g. Rabies virus vaccine and anthrax vaccine.
 - ➤ BCG (Bacillus Calmette Guerin) vaccine for Mycobacterium tuberculosis= human

 A major disadvantage of attenuated vaccines is the possibility that they will revert to a virulent form



Ideal properties of a live vaccine

 Attenuated microorganism which replicates in the host thus eliciting immune responses similar to natural infection.

- Able to elicit lifelong protection using only one or two doses.
- Disease causing capacity is virtually eliminated (attunated).

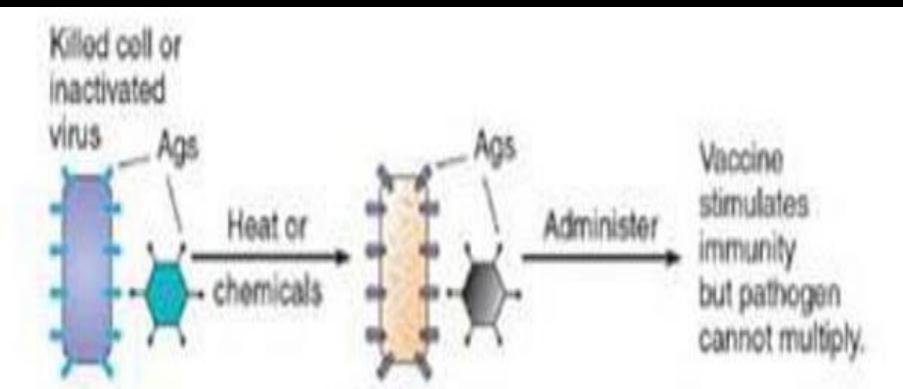
Elicits both humoral and cellular immunity.

Modern attenuation mechanisms

- Genetic engineering techniques provide a way to attenuate a virus irreversibly by selectively removing genes that are necessary for virulence.
- More recently, a vaccine against rotavirus, a major cause of infant diarrhea, was developed using genetic engineering techniques to modify an animal rotavirus to contain antigens present on the human viruses.

Inactivated -whole-agent vaccines

- Another common approach in vaccine production is inactivation of the pathogen by heat or by chemical means so that it is no longer capable of replication in the host.
- Heat inactivation is generally unsatisfactory because it causes extensive denaturation of proteins;
 - —thus, any epitopes that depend on higher orders of protein structure are likely to be altered significantly.
- Chemical inactivation with formaldehyde or various alkylating agents has been successful.



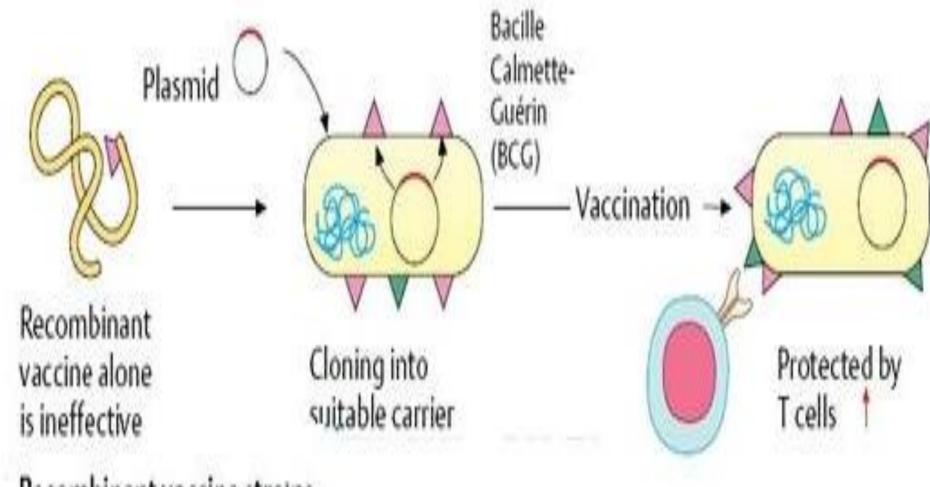
Dead, but antigenicity is retained

- Inactivated virus vaccines used in humans include those against rabies (animals sometimes receive a live vaccine considered too hazardous for humans), influenza, and polio (the Salk poliovaccine).
- Inactivated bacterial vaccines in animals black leg diseases vaccineand pasturella vaccine.
 - stimulates the antibody mediated response only.
 - e.g. DPT (diphtheria, tetanus toxoids
- Toxoids, which are inactivated toxins, are vaccines directed at the toxins produced by a pathogen.
- The tetanus and diphtheria toxoids have long been part of the standard childhood immunization series.

3. Subunit vaccines:

- use only those antigenic fragments of a microorganism that best stimulate an immune response.
 - Synthetic peptides
 - Recombinant proteins
- Those subunit vaccines that are produced by genetic modification techniques,
 - meaning that other microbes are programmed to produce the desired antigenic fraction, are called recombinant vaccines.
 - For example, the vaccine against the hepatitis B virus consists of a portion of the viral protein coat that is produced by a genetically modified yeast.
 - They need carriers to give them called vectors like virosomes, liposomes, beeds etc.

Sub-unit vaccine (recombinant)



Recombinant vaccine strains

- How recombinant viruses are made
 - Hepatitis B vaccine purified viral coat protein.
 - Streptococcus pneumoniae (PneumoShot) capsular polysaccharide
 - -Hemophilus influenzae (HiB) capsular polysaccharide.
 - Nesseria meningiditis capsular polysaccharide

Tuberculosis

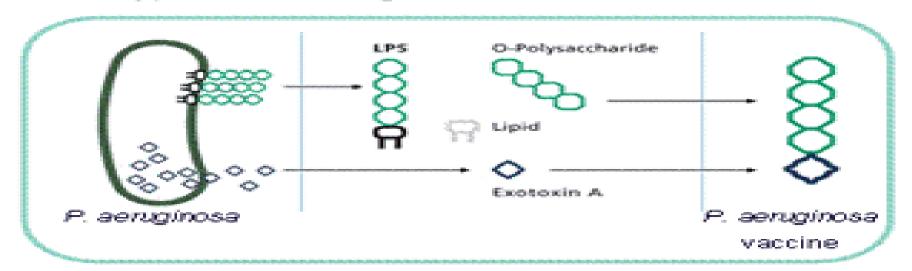
- Mycobacterium tuberculosis
- antibiotic resistant strains
- use purified extracellular
- stimulates the antibody mediated response only.

Conjugated vaccines

 Conjugated vaccines have been developed in recent years to deal with the poor immune response of children to vaccines based on capsular polysaccharides.

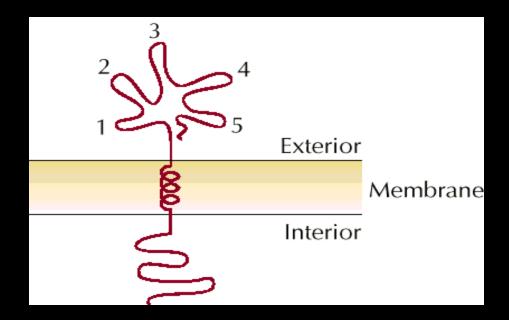
P. aeruginosa conjugate vaccine

A polyvalent conjugate vaccine combining 8 prevalent serotypes of *P.aeruginosa* with exotoxin A

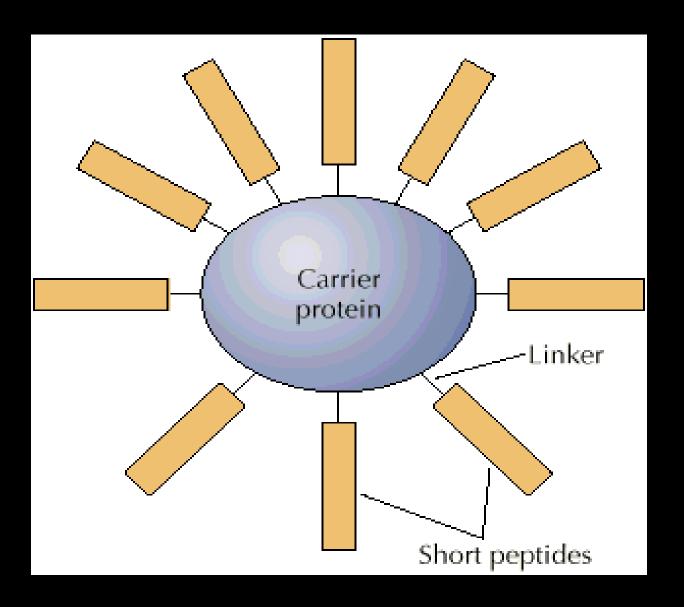


4. Peptide Vaccines

- Use discrete portion (domain) of a surface protein as Vaccine.
- These domains are 'epitopes'
- antigenic determinants
- are recognized by antibodies



CARRIER PROTEINS – vetors



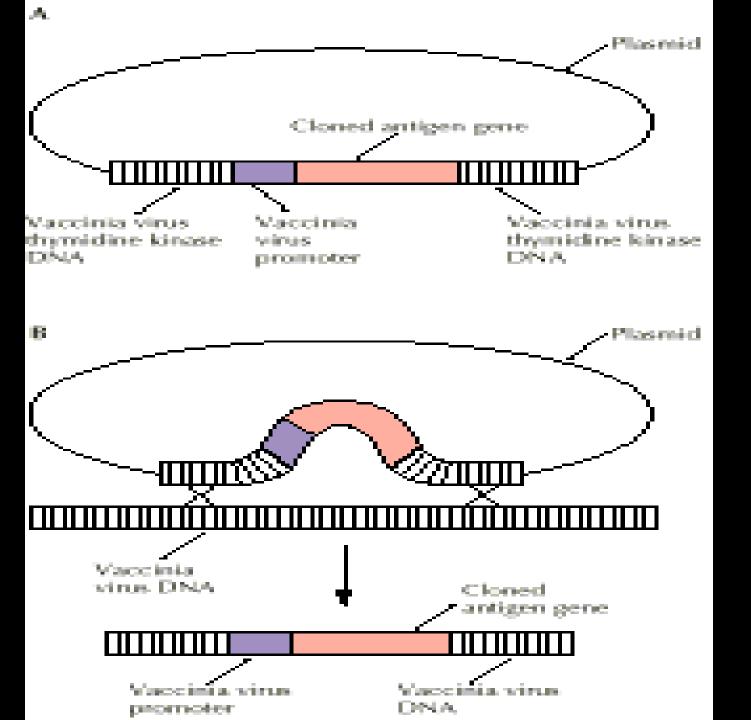
5. Genetic Immunization(DNA vaccine)

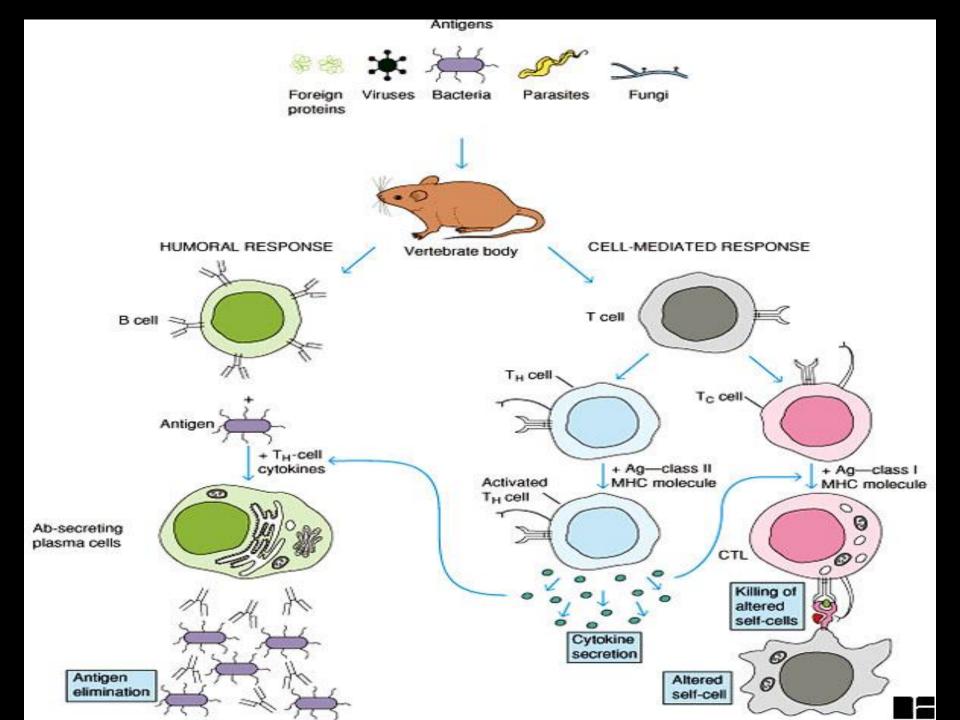
- Delivery of a gene for the antigen to a host organism
- Use vector containing cDNA from viral protein/
- eukaryotic promoter
- Inject into muscle/micr-oprojectile system
- POTENTIAL
- eliminates purification of antigen
- protein is modified post-translationally

6. Vector Vaccines

- Vaccinia good candidate for a live recombinant viral vaccine •benign virus
 - •replicate in cytoplasm (viral replication genes)
 - •easy to store
- A) Insert cloned gene encoding antigen
- b. Infect host cell with native virus
- c) Transform these cells with recombinant plasmid
- d) HOMOLOGOUS RECOMBINATION

**MODIFIED VIRUS USED AS VACCINE **





Adjuvants

Main activities:-

- Facilitation of antigen transport, uptake and presentation by antigen-capturing and processing cells.
- Repeated or prolonged release of antigen (depot effect).
- Signaling of receptors activating innate immune cells to release cytokines which up-regulate costimulatory molecules.

 'Danger signals' from stressed or damaged tissues activate APCs.

 Signaling by recombinant cytokines or costimulatory molecules mimics classical adjuvant activity

Thank you

Have a nice time