

OOD CELL

RED ILODO CELL

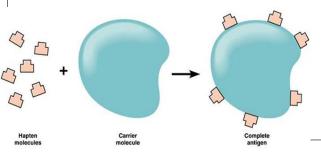
DOD CELL

Generality



ANTIGEN: CAN BE ANYTHING, MOSTLY PROTEIN, CARDIOLIPID [ONLY LIPID]

- HAPTEN
 - TOO SMALL FOR A IMMUNE REACTION
 - Some <u>haptens can induce autoimmune disease</u>.
 Ex: <u>hydralazine</u>, a blood pressure-lowering drug that occasionally can produce <u>drug-induced</u> <u>lupus erythematosus</u> in certain individuals.
 - This also appears to be the mechanism by which the anesthetic gas halothane can cause a lifethreatening hepatitis, as well as the mechanism by which penicillin-class drugs cause autoimmune hemolytic anemia.
- IMMUNOGEN
 - LARGE ENOUGH TO HAVE AN IMMUNE REACTION



- Immunogenicity
- is the ability to induce a humoral and/or cell-mediated immune response

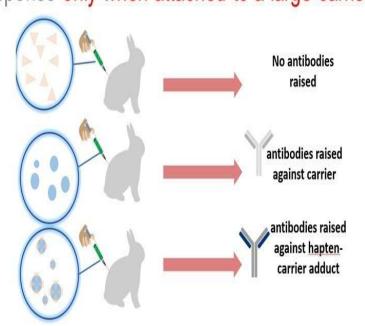
Antigenicity

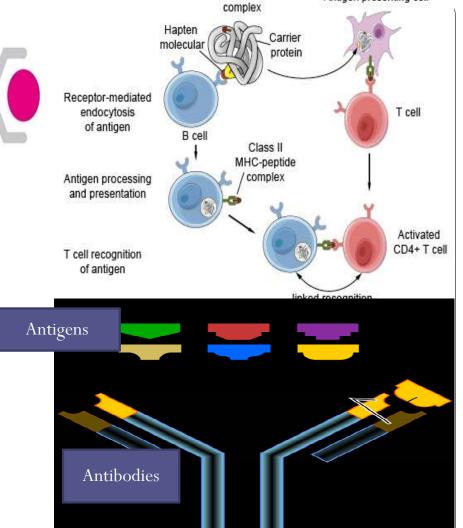
- is the ability to <u>combine specifically with the final products</u>
 of the immune response (i.e. secreted antibodies and/or
 surface receptors on T-cells).
- Although all molecules that have the property of immunogenicity also have the property of antigenicity, the reverse is not true
 - Antigen(ic) specificity
 - is the ability of the host cells to recognize an antigen specifically as a <u>unique molecular entity</u> and distinguish it from another with exquisite <u>precision</u>





Haptens are minute molecules that elicit an immune response only when attached to a large carrier





Hapten-Carrier

Antigen presenting cell

ANTIGEN VERSUS IMMUNOGEN

ANTIGEN

A substance specifically bind to antibodies or a cell surface receptors of B cells and T cells

Can be either immunogenic or non-immunogenic

Not all are immunogens

Can be either proteins, polysaccharides, lipids or nucleic acids

Haptens are low-molecularweight molecules, which bind to antibodies

IMMUNOGEN

An antigen capable of inducing an immune response

Immunogenic

All are antigens

Normally proteins and large polysaccharides

Haptens become immunogenic when binding to larger carrier molecules

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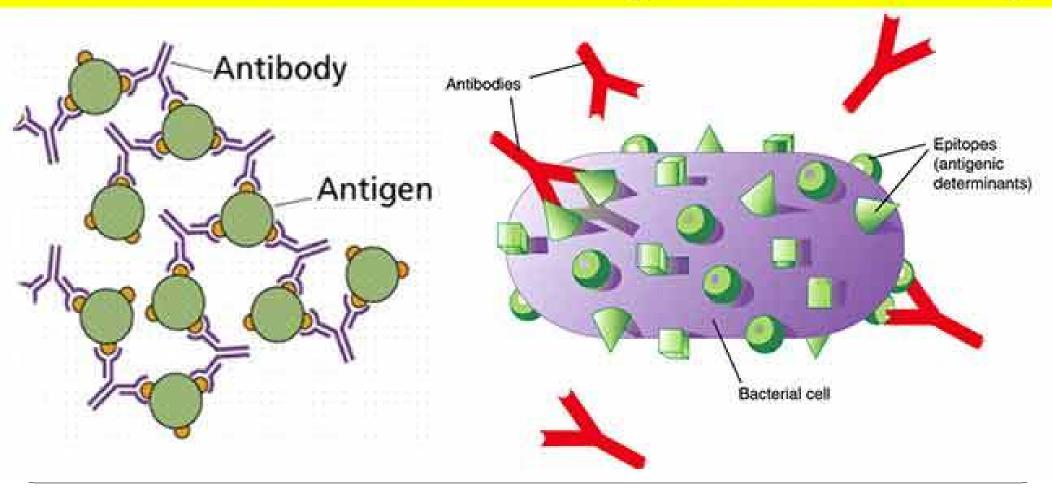
Immunogen vs Antigen

- immunogen induces immune response
- antigen reacts with products of the immune response
- immunogenicity
 - nature of the immunogen
 - ability of immune system to react
 - possible to manipulate

epitope (antigenic determinant)

- recognized by antibody
- recognized by T-cell receptor

Differences Between Antigen and Antibody



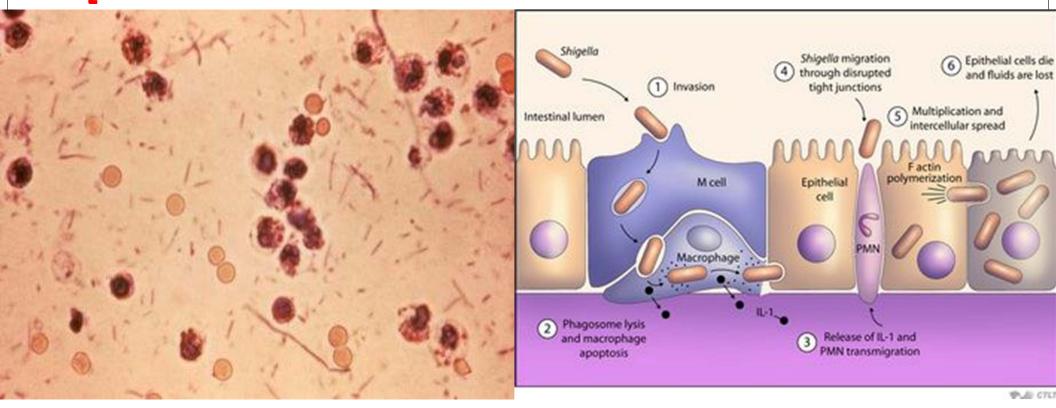
THE MOST IMMUNOGENIC BACTERIA



SHIGELLA

Abbitation manufacture and an analysis of manufacture and and a second and a second

[ONLY 8 TO 10 OF THEM WILL GET YOU SICK.



The Invaders . . .

Bacteria







Viruses



- Fungi
- Prion





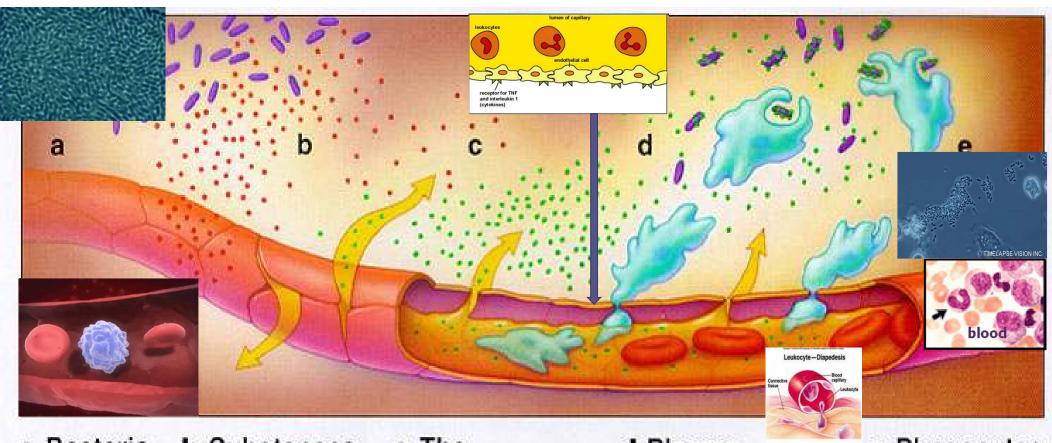
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migrate out of the mouth or nose.

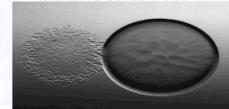




a Bacteria invade.



b Substances accumulate.



c The substances make plasma and proteins escape.

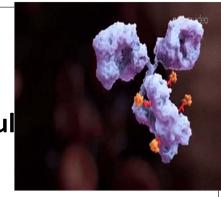
d Plasma proteins attack bacteria, phagocytes, or repair damage. e Phagocytes engulf bacteria.

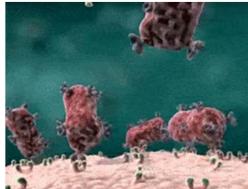
HUMORAL RESPONSE

- The humoral immune response is mediated by antibody molecul secreted by plasma cells.
- BLOOD [BLOOD TESTING, HEMOCULTURE]
- B CELLS, NEUTROPHILS

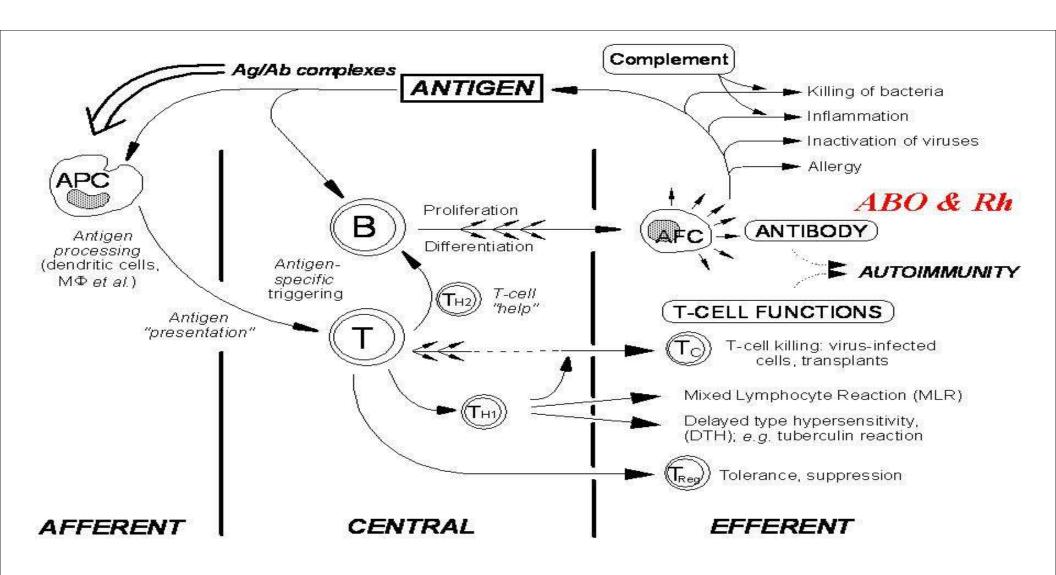


- TISSUE [BIOPSY]
- T CELLS,
- MACROPHAGES









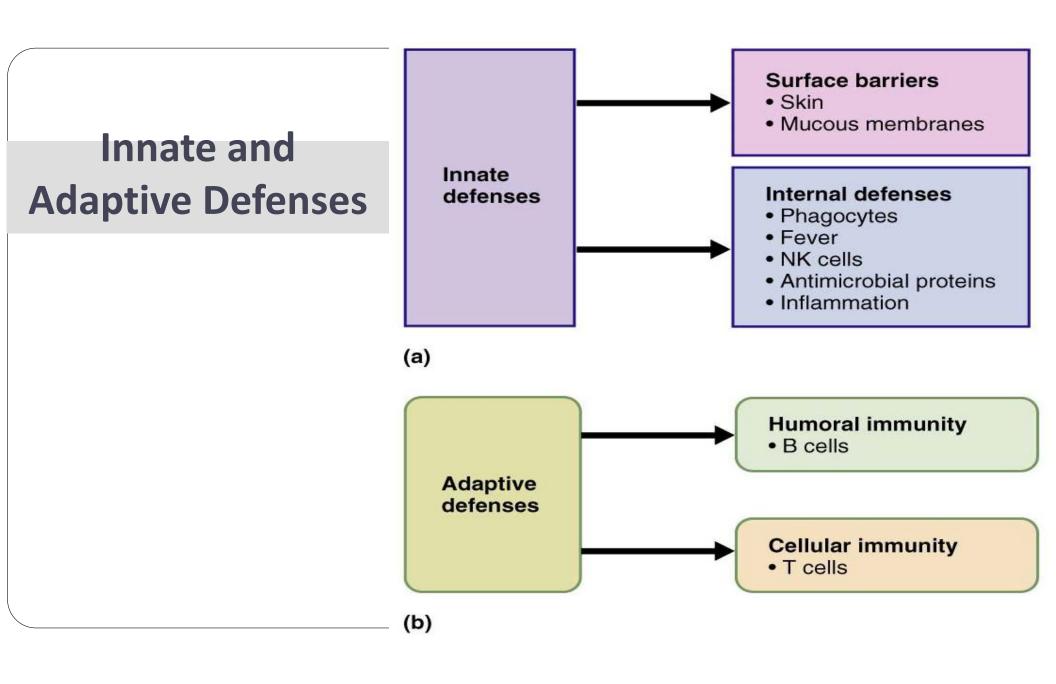
THREE "LIMBS" OF THE IMMUNE RESPONSE

Immunity: Two Intrinsic Defense Systems

- Innate (nonspecific) system responds quickly and consists of:[3 line of defense]
 - <u>First line of defense</u> skin and mucosa prevent entry of microorganisms
 - <u>Second line of defense</u> antimicrobial proteins, phagocytes, and other cells
 - Inhibit spread of invaders throughout the body
 - Inflammation is its most important mechanism
 - Adaptive (specific) defense system
 - •Third line of defense mounts attack against particular foreign substances

 Takes longer to react than the innate system

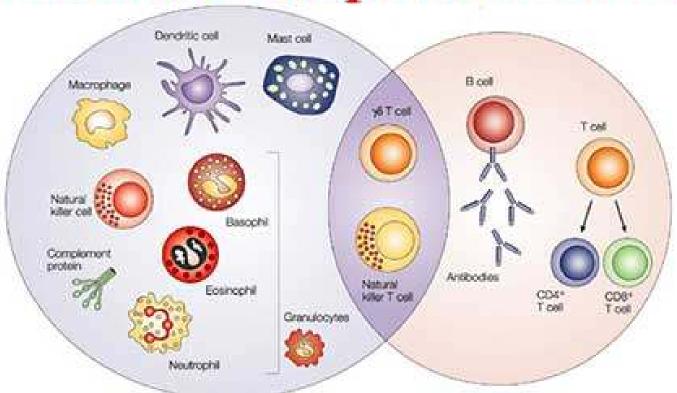
 Works in conjunction with the innate system



Outline of the Immune System			
Innate Immunity	1st Line of Defense	Skin	
		Mucus	
		Secretions	
	2nd Line of Defense	Phagocytic Cells	
		Antimicrobial Proteins	
		Other tissues which participate in inflammatory responses	
Adaptive Immunity	3rd Line of Defense	Lymphocytes	
		Antibodies	
Acquired Immunity	Vaccines / Immunotherapies	Attenuated Viruses	
		Killed Viruses	
		Toxoid Vaccines	
		Component Vaccines	

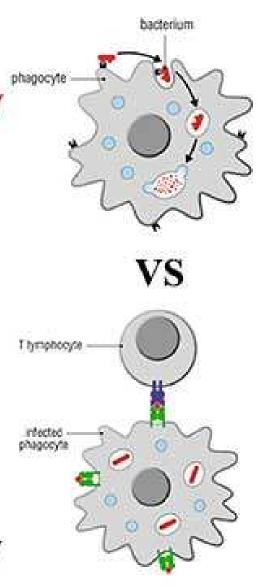
Difference between

Innate and Adaptive Immunity





Nature Reviews | Concer-



Mechanical, Physical and Chemical Barriers

What are the examples of Physiologic and Chemical Barriers at the skin and mucous membranes?

- Acid pH -- this also relates to the stomach <u>Hydrolytic enzymes Proteolytic enzymes</u>
- <u>Interferon</u> refers to a group of proteins that can help prevent the spread of viruses. There is one special one called gamma-interferon -- this one is a cytokine produced by T_H cells.
- Complement is a term that refers to a group of serum proteins that are normally found "inactive" in the serum.
- <u>Antibody-antigen reactions</u> and the cell walls of certain microorganisms can "activate" complement. When this happens the active components can destroy cells in the area of complement activation.
- Mucous producing membrane together with cilia help eliminate organisms = mucociliary escalator

Surface Barriers

- Skin, mucous membranes, and their secretions make up the first line of defense
- Keratin in the skin:
 - Presents a physical barrier to most microorganisms
 - Is resistant to weak acids and bases, bacterial enzymes, and toxins
- Mucosae provide similar mechanical barriers

Skin

- Tough, no bacteria can penetrate unaided.
- Dry (most skin infections take place in the wetter areas).
- Acid (approximately pH 5), Low temperature, Skin cells are constantly shedding, high salt content.
- Lysozyme in the pores.
- Resident microflora.
- Skin Associated Lymphoid Tissue

Epithelial Chemical Barriers

- Epithelial membranes produce protective chemicals that destroy microorganisms
 - Skin acidity (pH of 3 to 5) inhibits bacterial growth
 - Sebum contains chemicals toxic to bacteria
 - Stomach mucosae secrete concentrated HCl and protein-digesting enzymes
 - Saliva and lacrimal fluid contain lysozyme
 - **Mucus** traps microorganisms that enter the digestive and respiratory systems

Innate Immunity: Preventing Entry

What positive role is played by nonpathogenic microorganisms on the skin and mucous membranes?

They help prevent the growth of pathogenic organisms.

Mucous Epithelia

- GI
- Respiratory
- Urogenital
- Eyes
- These areas are warm and wet.
- They are sites of **secretion** and/or **absorption** and therefore cannot be thick like the skin.
- mucus contains polysaccharides and proteins which trap organisms.
- Ciliated cells and parastalsis and cough reflex moves trapped organisms out. (ie.: Muco-ciliary escalator in the lungs.)
- Lots of lysozyme and lactoferrin (an enzyme that binds iron and keeps it away from microorganisms).

Respiratory Tract Mucosae

- Mucus-coated hairs in the nose trap inhaled particles
- Mucosa of the upper respiratory tract is ciliated
 - Cilia sweep dust- and bacteria-laden mucus away from lower respiratory passages

Attributes of Selected areas

- Mouth rich resident normal flora -- these help to keep the bad guys out.
- Lungs sterile if not compromised Otherwise this is a vulnerable area. If organisms get down into the alveolar area they
 have easy access to the blood. Mucociliary escalator is very important
- Stomach Low pH is an important barrier
- Small Intestine Paneth cells in the crypts produce lysozyme and defensins (these are small proteins which inhibit bacterial growth).
- Urethra flow of urine important.
- Female Genitalia microflora very important. Mucus plug in the cervix important in preventing movement of microbes into the uterus.

Summary of Nonspecific Body Defenses

CATEGORY/ASSOCIATED

ELEMENTS PROTECTIVE MECHANISM

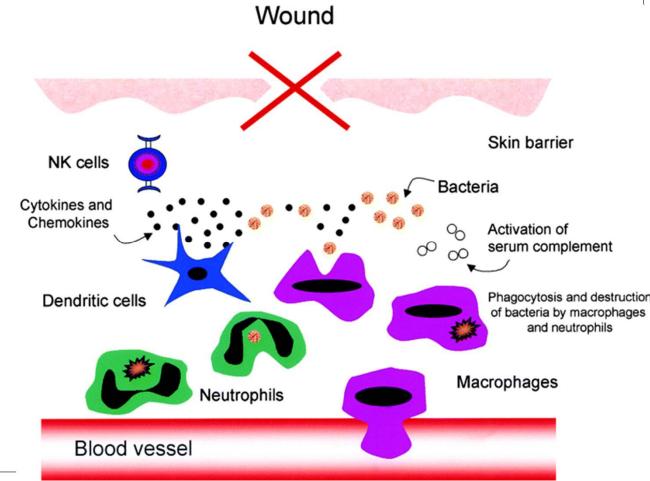
FIRST LINE OF DEFENSE: SURFACE MEMBRANE BARRIERS

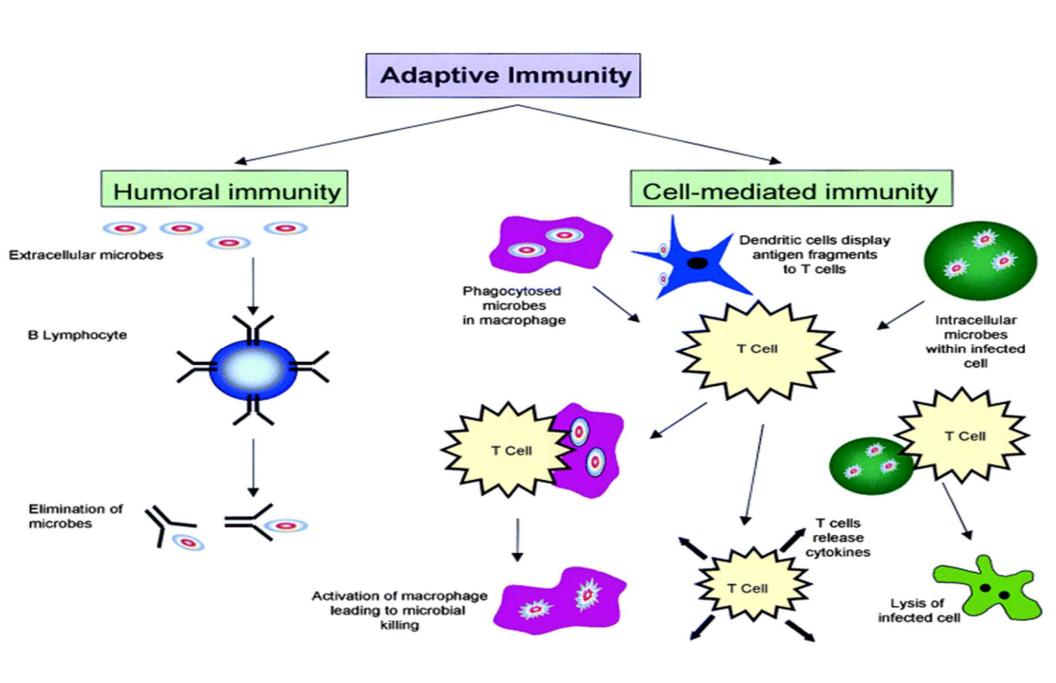
Intact skin epidermis	Forms mechanical barrier that prevents entry of pathogens and other harmful substances into body	
Acid mantle	Skin secretions (perspiration and sebum) make epidermal surface acidic, which inhibits bacterial growth; sebum also contains bactericidal chemicals	
Keratin	Provides resistance against acids, alkalis, and bacterial enzymes	
Intact mucous membranes	Form mechanical barrier that prevents entry of pathogens	
Mucus	Traps microorganisms in respiratory and digestive tracts	
Nasal hairs	Filter and trap microorganisms in nasal passages	
Cilia	Propel debris-laden mucus away from lower respiratory passages	
 Gastric juice 	Contains concentrated hydrochloric acid and protein-digesting enzymes that destroy pathogens in stomach	
 Acid mantle of vagina 	Inhibits growth of most bacteria and fungi in female reproductive tract	
 Lacrimal secretion (tears); saliva 	Continuously lubricate and cleanse eyes (tears) and oral cavity (saliva); contain lysozyme, an enzyme that destroys microorganisms	
Urine	Normally acid pH inhibits bacterial growth; cleanses the lower urinary tract as it flushes from the body	

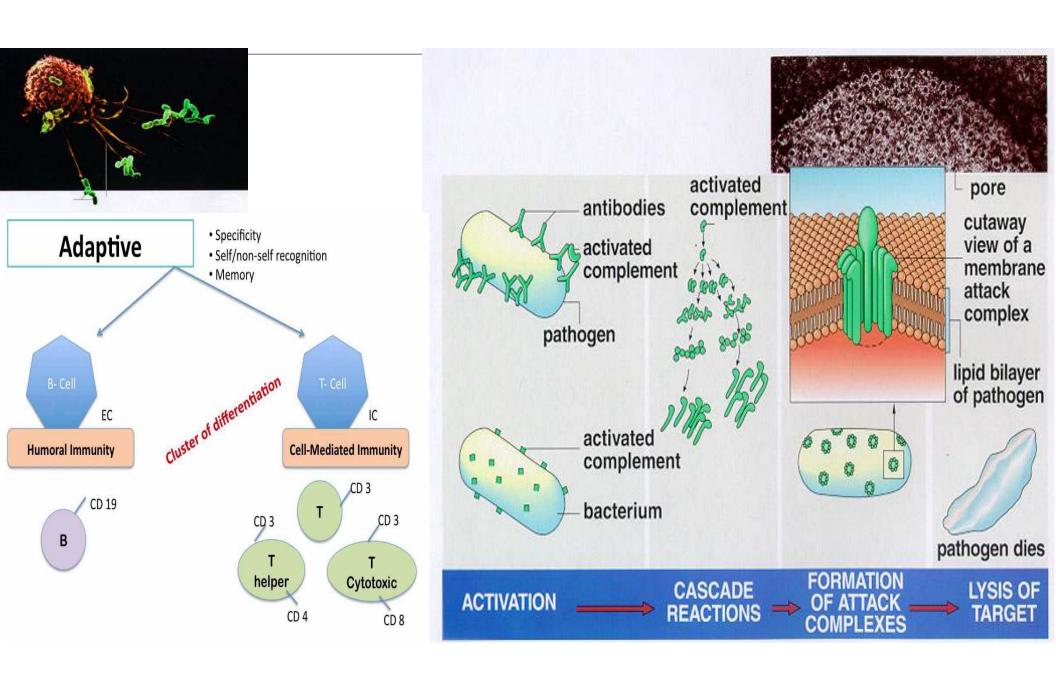
Complex Biological Responses of Innate Immunity

Complex biological responses include:

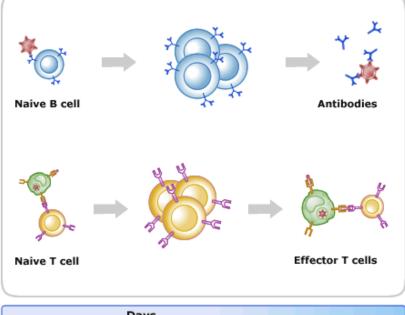
- · Phagocytosis
- Complement Activation
- Inflammation and Fever
- Interferon



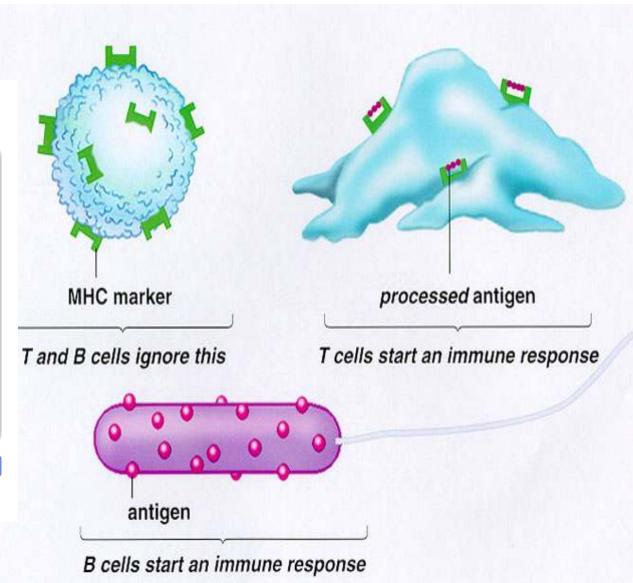




Adaptive Immunity



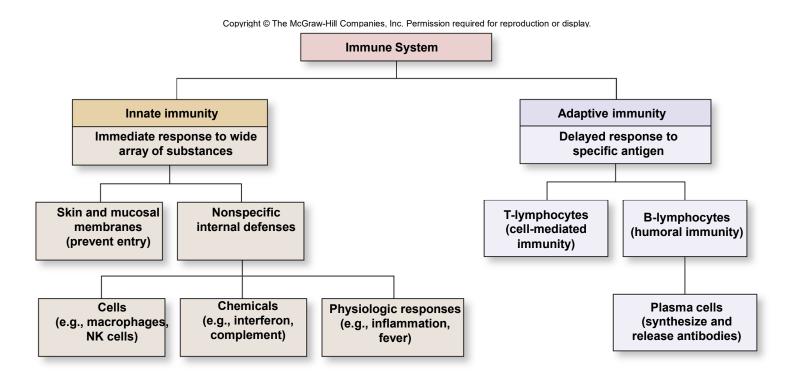




What are the cells of adaptive immunity?

T-lymphocytes and B-lymphocytes

Overview of the Immune System



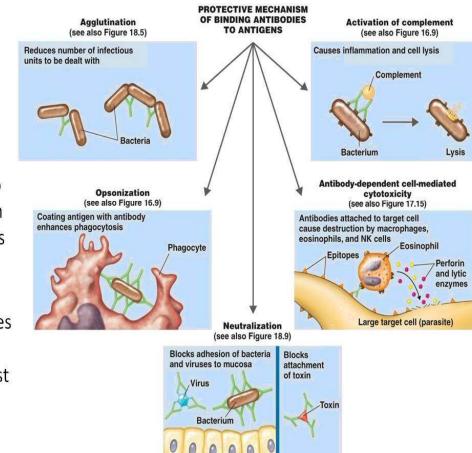
Antigen-Antibody Binding and its Results

- Agglutination –

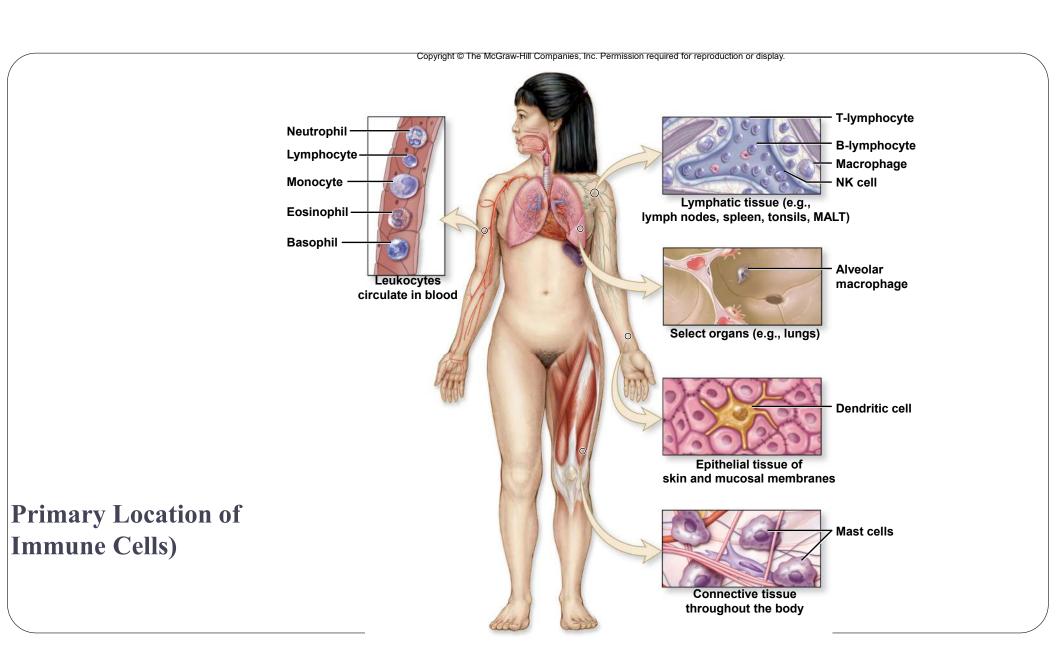
 antibodies cause
 antigens to clump
 together and fall
 out of solution
- Opsonization –
 antigen is coated
 with antibodies to
 enhance digestion
 by phagocytic cells
- Neutralization –
 antibodies
 inactivate microbes
 by blocking their
 attachment to host
 cells

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 Activation of complement







Overview of the Immune System: Immune Cells and Their Locations

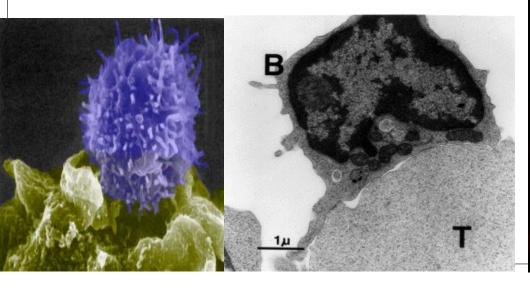
What types of immune cells are housed in lymphatic tissue? What two types of immune cells are located in the skin and mucosal membranes?

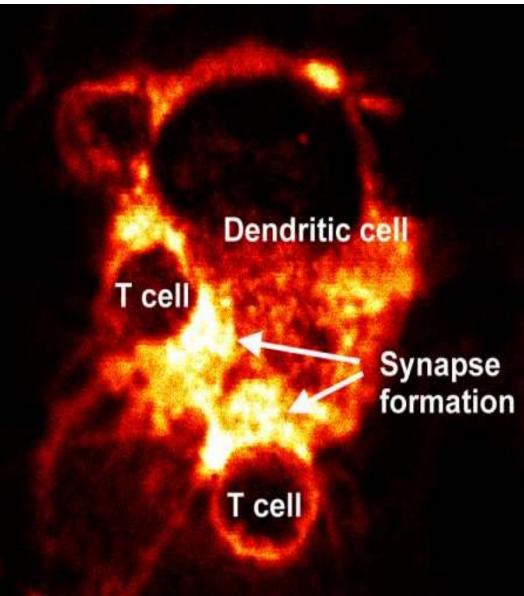
T- and B-lymphocytes, macrophages, NK cells

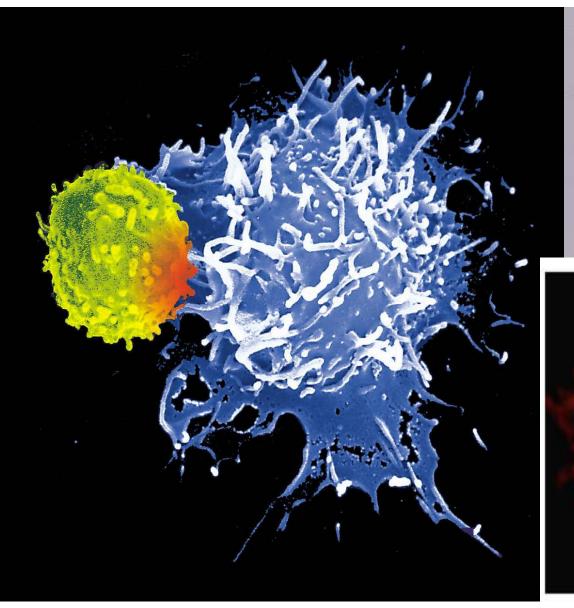
dendritic and mast cells

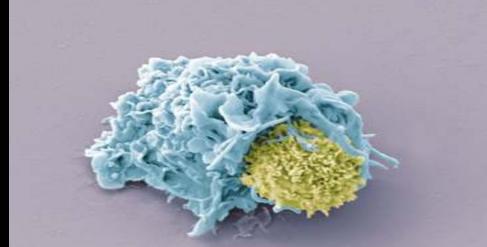
Immunological Synapse

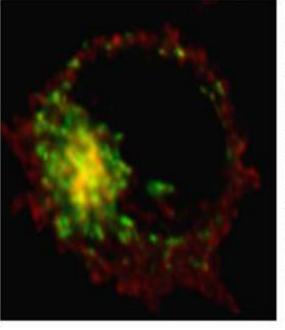
Is the interface between an antigen-presenting cell and a lymphocyte











HIV-1-infected T cell displaying Lck (red) retained in recycling endosomes (marked by the transferrin receptor, green). Yellow color indicates the colocalization of both proteins

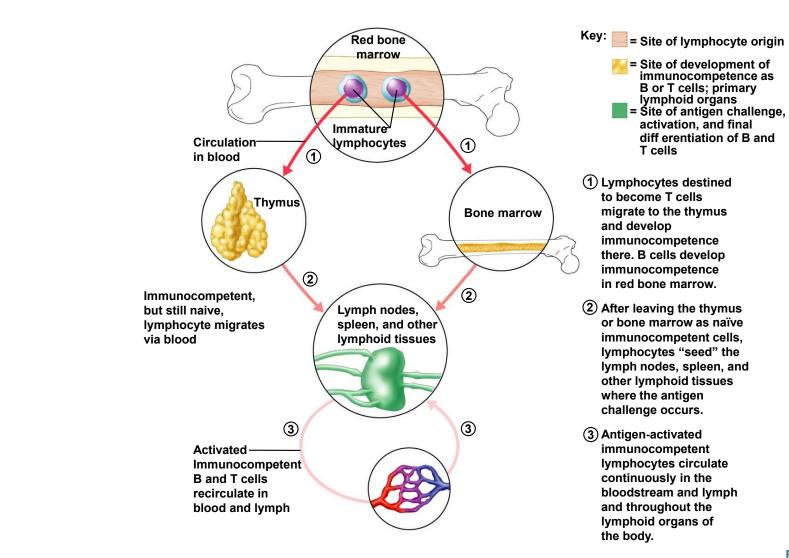


Figure 21.8

Inflammatory Chemicals		
CHEMICAL	SOURCE	PHYSIOLOGICAL EFFECTS
Histamine	Granules of basophils and mast cells; released in response to mechanical injury, presence of certain microorganisms, and chemicals released by neutrophils	Promotes vasodilation of local arterioles; increases permeability of local capillaries, promoting exudate formation
Kinins (bradykinin and others)	A plasma protein, kininogen, is cleaved by the enzyme kallikrein found in plasma, urine, saliva, and in lysosomes of neutrophils and other types of cells; cleavage releases active kinin peptides	Same as for histamine; also induce chemotaxis of leukocytes and prompt neutrophils to release lysosomal enzymes, thereby enhancing generation of more kinins; induce pain
Prostaglandins	Fatty acid molecules produced from arachidonic acid—found in all cell membranes; generated by enzymes of neutrophils, basophils, mast cells, and others	Sensitize blood vessels to effects of other in- flammatory mediators; one of the intermediate steps of prostaglandin generation produces free radicals, which themselves can cause inflam- mation; induce pain
Platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF)	Secreted by platelets and endothelial cells	Stimulates fibroblast activity and repair of damaged tissues
Complement		
Cytokines		

Internal Defenses: Cells and Chemicals

- The body uses nonspecific cellular and chemical devices to protect itself
 - Phagocytes and natural killer (NK) cells
 - Antimicrobial proteins in blood and tissue fluid
 - Inflammatory response enlists macrophages, mast cells, WBCs, and chemicals
- Harmful substances are identified by surface carbohydrates unique to infectious organisms

Cells of the Adaptive Immune System

- Two types of lymphocytes
 - B lymphocytes oversee humoral immunity
 - T lymphocytes non-antibody-producing cells that constitute the cell-mediated arm of immunity
- Antigen-presenting cells (APCs):
 - Do not respond to specific antigens
 - Play essential auxiliary roles in immunity

Lymphocytes

- Immature lymphocytes released from bone marrow are essentially identical
- Whether a lymphocyte matures into a B cell or a T cell depends on where in the body it becomes immunocompetent
 - B cells mature in the bone marrow
 - T cells mature in the thymus

The Cells of the Immune Response

T cells: Lymphocytes that regulate response

- Cytotoxic T cells: destroy specific targeted cells
- Helper T cells: stimulate immune responses
- Suppressor T cells: stop immune response
- Memory T cells: provide future immunity

	Types of Lymphocytes					
Cell Type	Function	Type of Antigen Response				
T-LYMPHOCYTE						
Helper T-lymphocyte	Initiates and oversees the immune response	Responds to a single antigen				
Cytotoxic T-lymphocyte	Directly kills foreign cells; must be activated by a helper T-lymphocyte first	Responds to a single antigen				
Memory T-lymphocyte	A type of cytotoxic T-lymphocyte that has already killed; patrols the body looking for the same antigen again	Responds to a single antigen				
Suppressor T-lymphocyte	Helps "turn off" the immune response once it has been activated	Responds to a single antigen				
B-LYMPHOCYTE						
Plasma cell	Produces and secretes antibodies	Responds to a single antigen				
Memory B-lymphocyte	Remembers an initial antigen attack and mounts a faster, more efficient response should the same antigen type attack again	Responds to a single antigen				
NK (NATURAL KILLER) CE	ELL					
NK (natural killer) cell	Kills a wide variety of infected and cancerous cells	Responds to multiple antigens				

Summary of Nonspecific Body Defenses (continued)

CATEGORY/ASSOCIATED

ELEMENTS PROTECTIVE MECHANISM

SECOND LINE OF DEFENSE: INNATE, CELLULAR AND CHEMICAL DEFENSES

Phagocytes	Engulf and destroy pathogens that breach surface membrane barriers; macrophages also contribute to immune response
Natural killer (NK) cells	Promote apoptosis (cell suicide) by direct cell attack against virus-infected or cancerous body cells; do not require specific antigen recognition; do not exhibit a memory response
Inflammatory response	Prevents spread of injurious agents to adjacent tissues, disposes of pathogens and dead tissue cells, and promotes tissue repair; chemical mediators released attract phagocytes (and immunocompetent cells) to the area
Antimicrobial proteins	
• Interferons (α, β, γ)	Proteins released by virus-infected cells and certain lymphocytes that protect uninfected tissue cells from viral takeover; mobilize immune system
Complement	Lyses microorganisms, enhances phagocytosis by opsonization, and intensifies inflammatory and immune responses
Fever	Systemic response initiated by pyrogens; high body temperature inhibits microbial multiplication and enhances body repair processes

Table 21.2.2

NK Cell: Apoptosis-Initiating Cells

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NK cell: Apoptosis-initiating cells Perforin and granzyme Perforin forms a transmembrane pore Granzymes enter pore, causing apoptosis of cell NK cell Unhealthy or unwanted cell **Apoptosis**

Natural killer cells

Destroy wide variety of unwanted cells virus- and bacteria-infected cells, tumor cells, cells of transplanted tissue

Formed in bone marrow and circulate in blood

Accumulate in secondary lymphatic structures

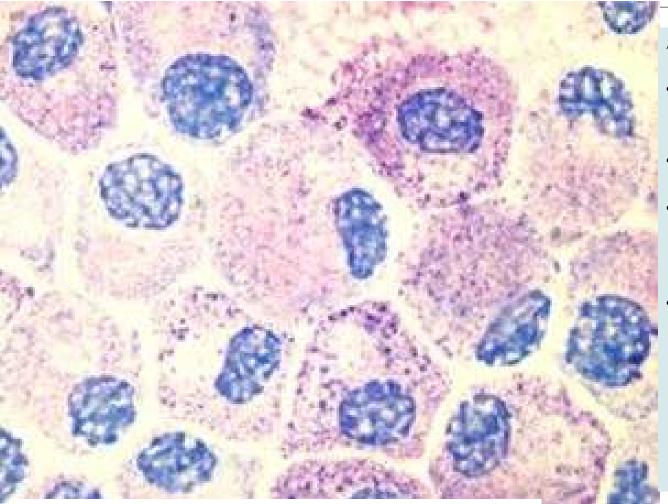
Patrol the body detecting unhealthy cells

termed immune surveillance

Destroy unhealthy cells by releasing cytotoxic chemicals

include perforin, forming transmembrane pore in unwanted cells include granzymes, initiating apoptosis

Apoptosis, form of cellular death



Mast cells can be stimulated to degranulate by direct injury (e.g. physical or chemical), cross-linking of Immunoglobulin E (IgE) receptors, or by activated complement proteins

A mast cell (or mastocyte)

- is a resident cell of several types of tissues and contains many granules rich in histamine and heparin.
- Although best known for their role in <u>allergy</u> and <u>anaphylaxis</u>,
- Mast cells play an important protective role as well, being intimately involved in wound healing and defense against pathogens
- Prominent near the boundaries between the outside world and the internal milieu, such as the
 - skin
 - mucosa of the lungs and digestive tract
 - as well as in the mouth
 - conjunctiva and nose

Basophils / Mast Cells

These cells are filled with mediators of inflammation:

 histamine - causes vasodilation (blood vessels dialate) and bronchoconstriction (because it causes smooth muscles to constrict)

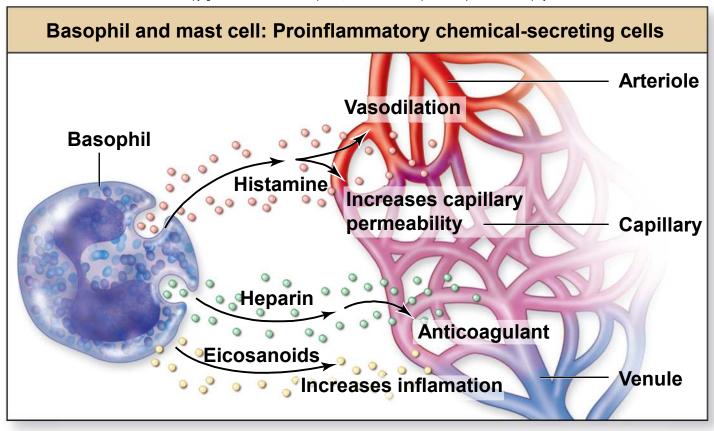
heparin - inhibits blood coagulation

leukotrienes - prolonged constriction of smooth muscles, pain

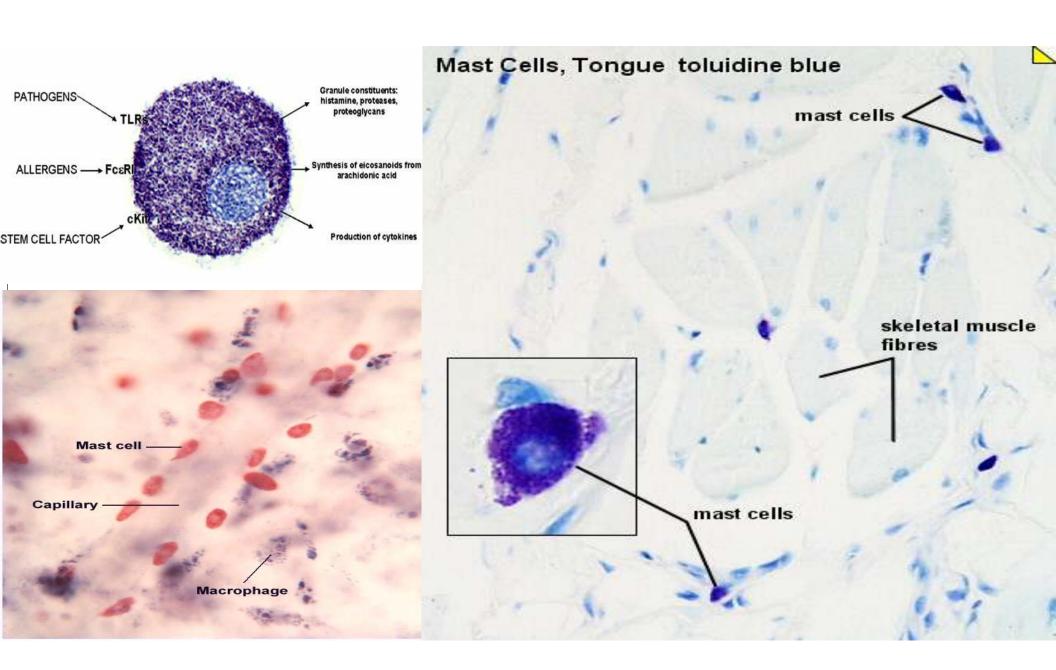
prostaglandins - smooth muscle constriction and vasodilation, pain

Basophil and Mast Cell: Proinflammatory Chemical-Secreting Cells

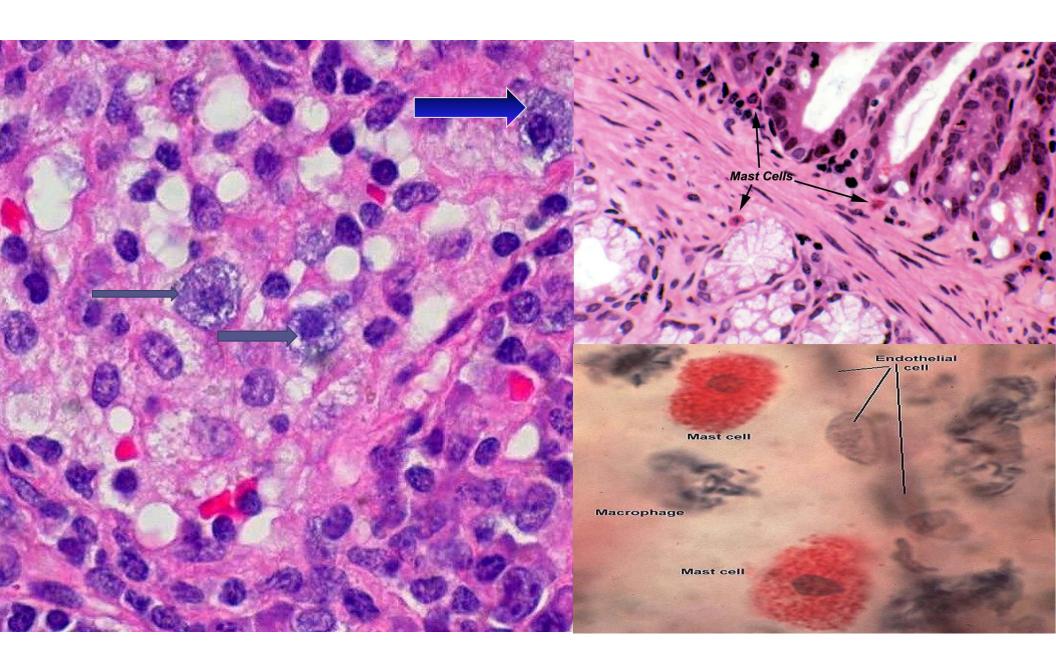
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(b)







Cells of Immune Response

Non hematopoietic cells:

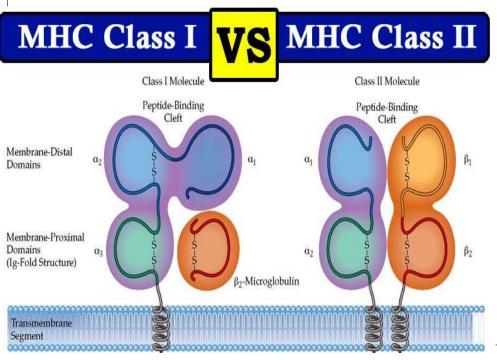
- Dentritic cells
- Astrocytes and
- Endothelial cells

Function: antigen presentation

Self-Antigens: MHC Proteins=Major Histocompatibility Complex

Are coded for by genes of the major histocompatibility complex (MHC) and are unique to an individual

- Our cells are dotted with protein molecules (self-antigens) that are not antigenic to us but are strongly antigenic to others
- One type, MHC proteins, mark a cell as self
- The two classes of MHC proteins are:
 - Class I MHC proteins found on virtually all body cells
 - Class II MHC proteins found on certain cells in the immune response



MHC class I	MHC class II
Comprised of an MHC-encoded a chain and a b2-microglobulin chain	Comprised of MHC-encoded a and b chains
Present on most cells	Present only on antigen-presenting cells
Bind endogenous antigens synthesized in a cell	Binds exogenous antigens
Present antigen to cytotoxic T cell lymphocytes	Present antigen to helper T cell lymphocytes
Bind CD8 adhesion molecules on cytotoxic T cells	Bind CD4 adhesion molecules on helper T cells
Presence of foreign or over- abundant antigens targets cell for destruction	Presence of foreign antigens induces antibody production, and attracts immune cells to area of infection

Class-I vs. Class-II MHC molecule

Feature	Class I MHC	Class II MHC
Polypeptide chains	a (44–47 kD) b ₂ -Microglobulin (12 kD)	a (32–34 kD) b (29–32 kD)
Locations of polymorphic residues	a1 and a2 domains	a1 and b1 domains
Binding site for T cell coreceptor	a3 region binds CD8	b2 region binds CD4
Size of peptide-binding cleft	Accommodates peptides of 8-11 residues	Accommodates peptides of 10-30 residues or more
Nomenclature Human	HLA-A, HLA-B, HLA-C	HLA-DR, HLA-DQ, HLA-DP
Mouse	H-2K, H-2D, H-2L	I-A, I-E

Abbreviations: HLA, human leukocyte antigen; MHC, major histocompatibility complex

HLA

A gene complex encoding the major histocompatibility complex (MHC) proteins in humans

Form of MHC complex that occurs in humans

Class I HLA genes are HLA-A, HLA-B, and HLA-C and class II HLA genes are HLA-D

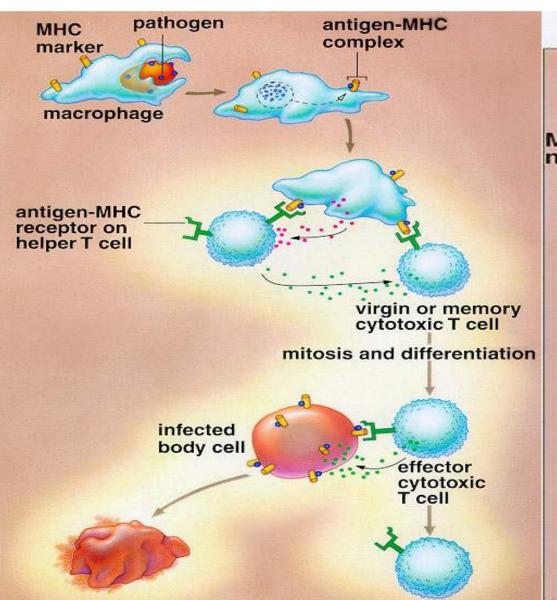
MHC

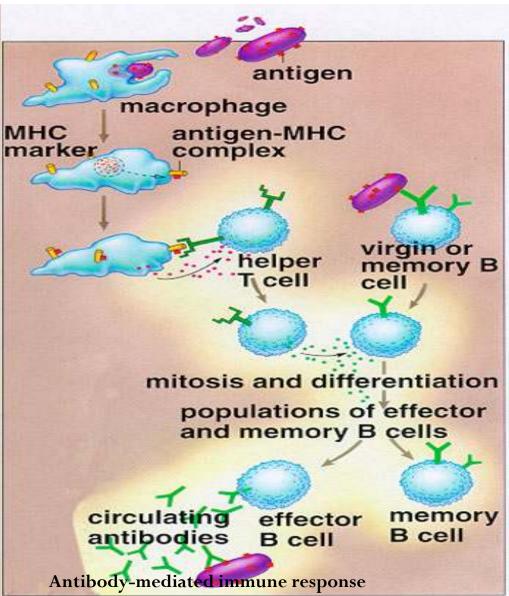
A set of cell surface proteins essential for the acquired immune system to recognize foreign molecules in vertebrates, which in turn determines histocompatibilit

Occurs in all vertebrates

Three classes of MHC complex are Class I, II, and III

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MACROPHAGES

DUST CELLS: LUNG

MICROGLIA: BRAIN

KUPPFLER CELLS: LIVER

RES CELLS: SPLEEN

DENDRITIC CELLS: LYMPH NODES

OSTEOCLASTS: BONE

MESANGIAL CELLS: KIDNEYS

M CELLS: PEYER'S PATCH

LANGHERAN'S CELLS: SKIN

MONOCYTES: BLOOD

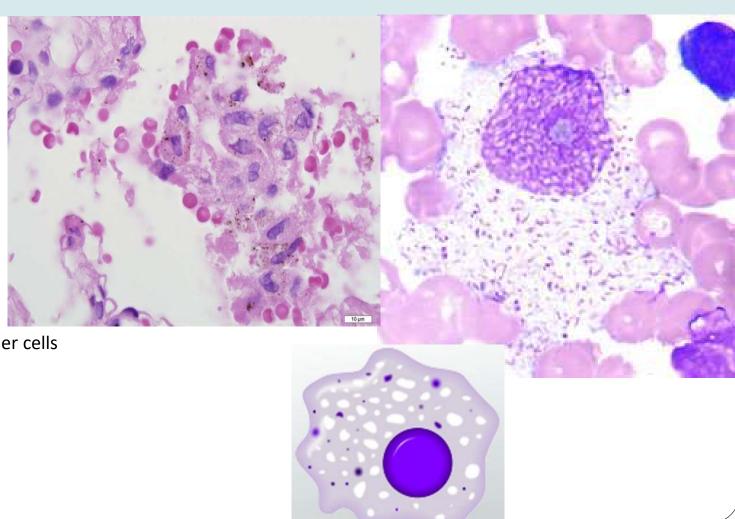
• Placentaon the fetal side : Hofbauer cells

• CONNECTIVE TISSUES:

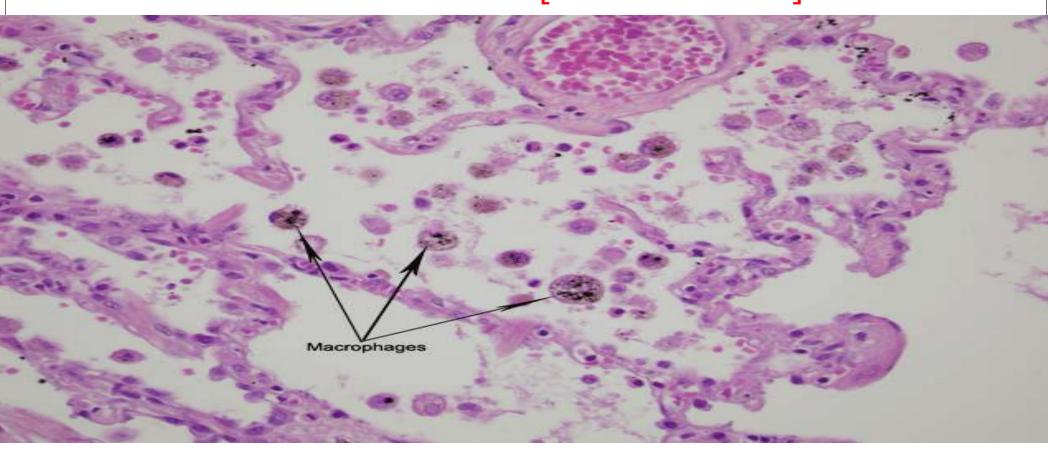
EPITHELIOIDS CELLS

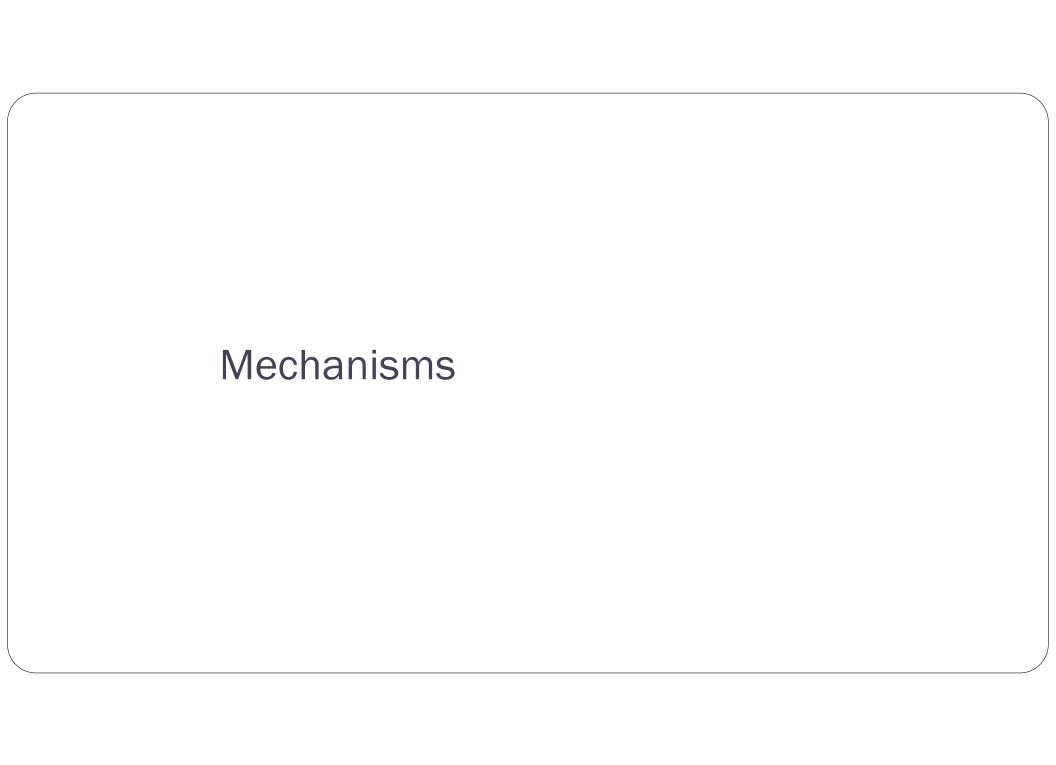
GIANT CELLS

HISTIOCYTES.



INTERFERON MEDIATED THE CHANGES OF THE MACROPHAGES [MONOCYTES].



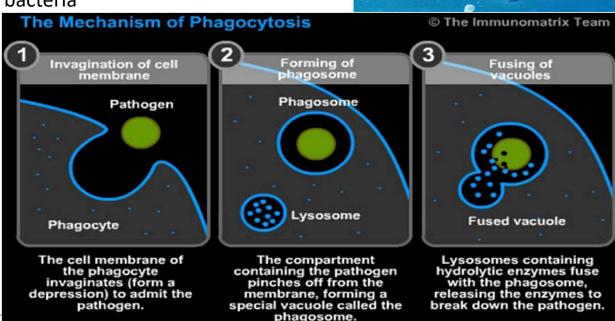


Phagocytes

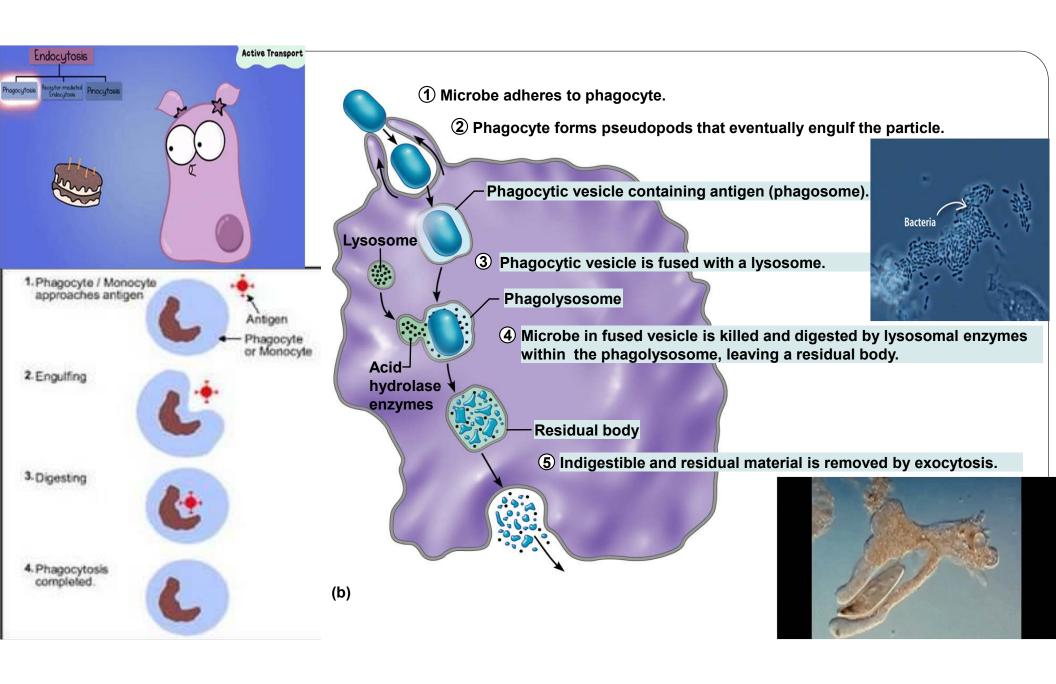
- Macrophages are the chief phagocytic cells
- Free macrophages wander throughout a region in search of cellular debris
- Kupffer cells (liver) and microglia (brain) are fixed macrophages
- Neutrophils become phagocytic when encountering infectious material
- Eosinophils are weakly phagocytic against parasitic worms
- Mast cells bind and ingest a wide range of bacteria

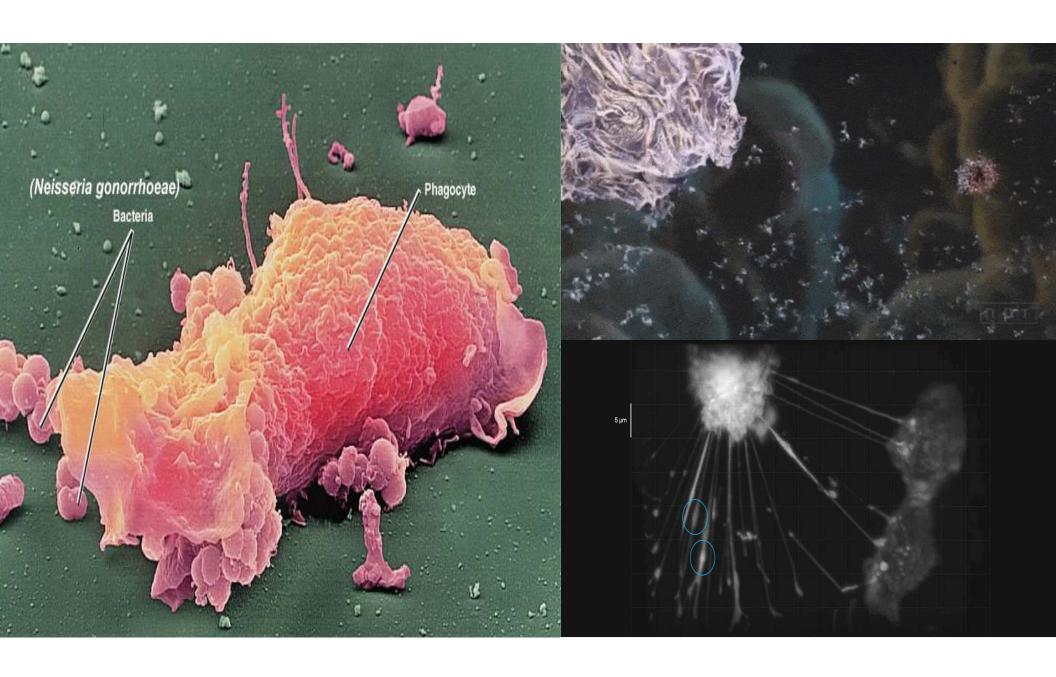
Mechanism of Phagocytosis

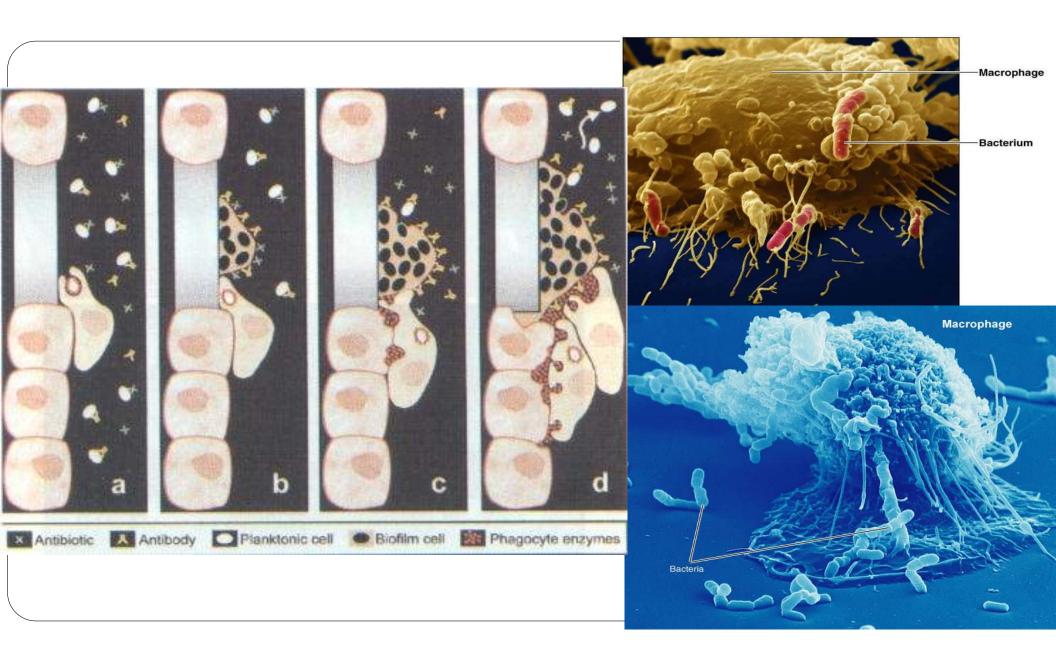
- 1/ Microbes adhere to the phagocyte
- 2/Pseudopods engulf the particle (antigen) into a phagosome
- 3/Phagosomes fuse with a lysosome to form a phagolysosome
- 4/Invaders in the phagolysosome are digested by proteolytic enzymes
- 5/Indigestible and residual material is removed by exocytosis



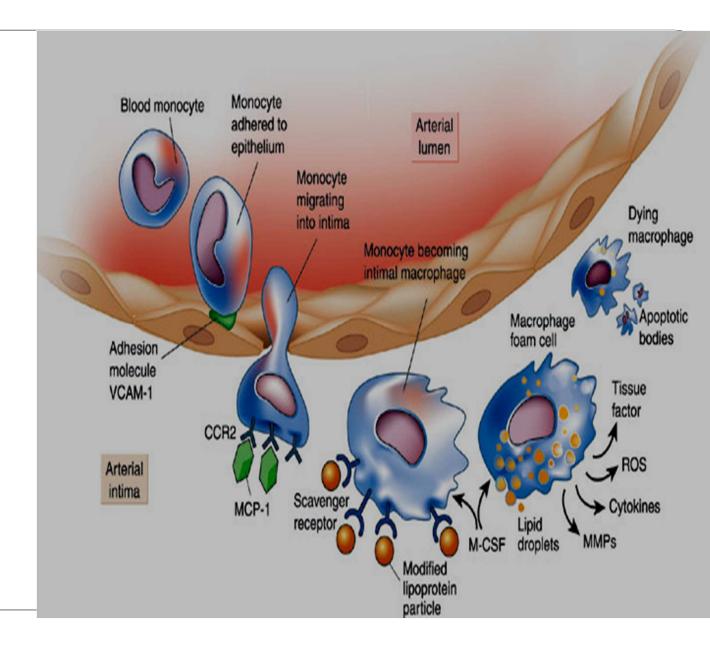
Innate defenses -> Internal defenses







- •injury & infection
- macrophages slip between cells [extravasation] to arrive
- •cytokine chemicals attract other "troops" [chemotaxis]
- •histamine chemicals dilate blood vessels for easier access to injury [vasodilation]



The major histocompatibility complex =MHC

Receptor Type	Present On	Interacts With
CD4	Lymphocytes	MHC II
CD8	Lymphocytes	MHC I
MHC I	General Body Cells	CD8
MHC II	Phagocytes	CD4

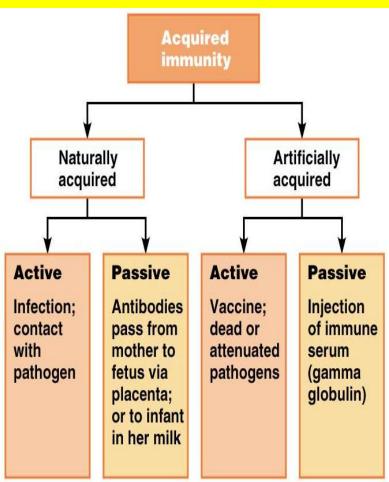
HIV infects primarily vital cells in the human immune system such as helper T cells (to be specific, CD4⁺ T cells), macrophages, and dendritic cells

Acquired (Adaptive) Immunity

Defensive mechanisms include:

- 1) Innate immunity (Natural or Non specific)
- 2) Acquired immunity (Adaptive or Specific)

Cell-mediated immunity Humoral immunity



Aquired (specific) immunity

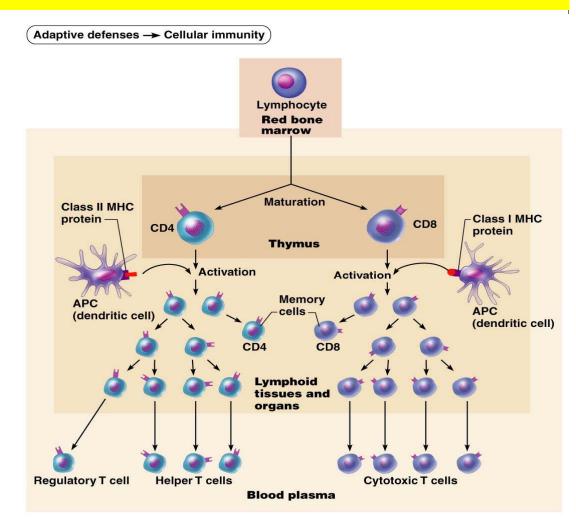
Two mechanisms

1) <u>Humoral immune response</u>:

- Antibodies are produced by B-lymphocytes
- These have the ability to recognize and bind specifically to antigen that induced their formation

2) The cell mediated immune response (CMI)

- It is mediated by certain types of **T-lymphocytes**
- T-lymphocytes recognize foreign material by means of surface receptors
- T-lymphocytes attack and destroy foreign material directly or through release of soluble mediators i.e. cytokines



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Acquired Or Adaptive Immunity

I- Passive acquired immunity

a-Naturally passive acquired immunity

Antibodies are passed through placenta to the fetus

b- Artificially passive acquired immunity

The injection of alredy prepared antibodies, such as gamma globulin (short-term immunization)

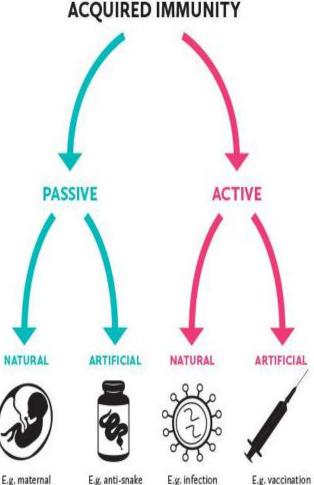




antibodies

venom serum

with a virus



II- Active acquired immunity

a-Natural active acquired immunity:

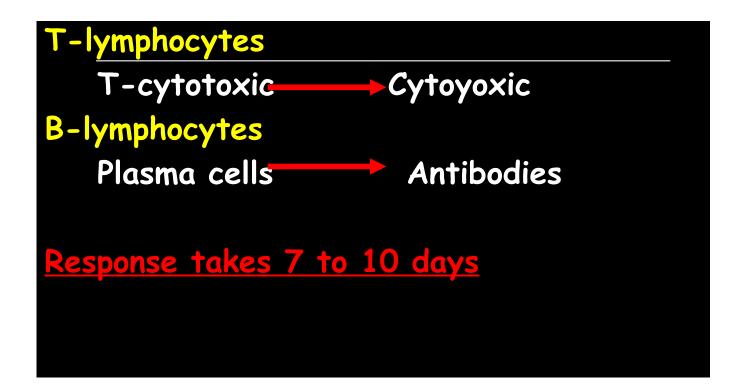
- Following clinical or subclinical infections
- measles or mumps, in which immunity is long lasting

b- Artificial active acquired immunity:

 Following vaccination with live or killed infectious agents or their products

Immune System Acquired/adaptive/specific Innate/Inborn/non-specific defence defence mechanism mechanism Third Line of defence Internal defence External defence Active immunity Passive immunity Second line of defence First line of defence 1.Physical barriers: 1.Phagocytes: Skin, Mucus, Nasal hair, Macrophages Antibodies In contact with Antigen Cilia artificially 1)T cells: Cytotoxic T & WBCs (neutrophils 2.Chemical barriers: oil produced cells+ helper T cells+ and monocytes) and sweat by outside suppressor T cells+ 2. Inflammatory sebaceous glands, directly memory T cells reactions stomach acid or Low pH injected to 2) B cells: plasma cells+ (gastric juice), Cerumen 3. Fever the body memory B cells (earwax), lysozyme in 4. Interferons No contact 3) Antigen presenting tears and tissue fluids, with 5. Complement cells=Macrophages, B vaginal bacteria pathogen system producing lactic acid cells and dendritic cells (low pH) 6. Natural killer cells (NK cells) www.biologyexams4u.com

ADAPTIVE IMMUNE SYSTEM



Adaptive Immune System

- T and B Lymphocytes
- Highly specific for pathogen
- Response improves with repeated exposure
- Memory
- Life-long immunity

Mechanism of Humoral immunity

* Antibodies induce resistance through:

1) Antitoxin neutralize bacterial toxins (diphtheria,tetanus)

Antitoxin are developed actively as a result of:

- a- Previous infection
- b- Artificial immunization
- c- Transferred passively as antiserum
- * Neutralization of toxin with antitoxin prevents a combination with tissue cells

2) Antibodies attach to the surface of bacteria and

a- act as opsonins and enhance phagocytosis

b- prevent the adherence of microorganisms to their target cells, e.g. IgA in the gut

c- Activate the complement and lead to bacterial lysis

d- Clump bacteria (agglutination) leading to phagocytosis

Cell Mediated Immunity (CMI)

- * Host defenses against extracellular infection are
 - mediated by: Antibody
 - Complement
 - Macrophages
- * Intercellular infections are mediates by CMI
- * CMI are responsible for:
 - Resistance to intracellular pathogens
 - Resistance to fungal and protozoal infections
 - Resistance to tumors

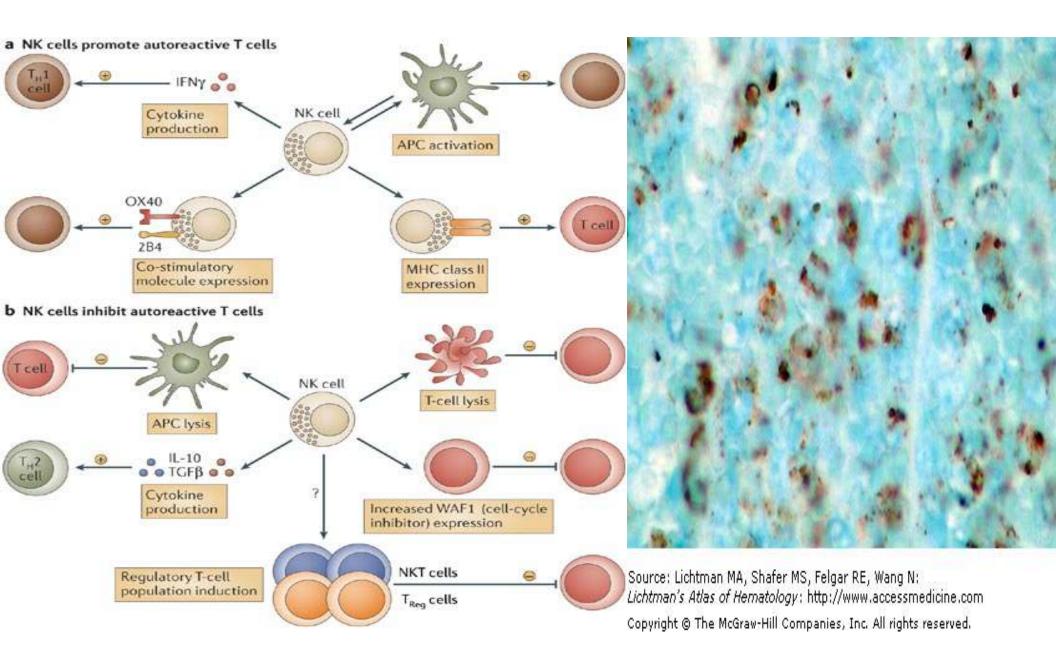
- * CMI may play a role in some harmful conditions:
 - Hypersensitivity reactions type IV (contact dermatitis)
 - Graft rejection
 - Autoimmune diseases
- * Cell mediated cytotoxicity mediated by:
 - T-cytotoxic cells cells
 - Natural killer cells
 - Activated macrophages

T-lymphocytes:

- Antigen specific cells carrying CD3 complex, CD4, CD8
- Dominant blood lymphocytes (70%)
- Produce cytokines
- Activation of other cells (Th CD4)
- Suppressors for others (Ts CD8)

B-lymphocytes:

- Antigen specific cells with surface receptor
- Less common lymphocytes (20%)
- Responsible for antibody production
- * NK, K cells:
 - Not antigen specific
 - Carry Fc receptors , NK-target cell receptor



Natural Killer (NK) Cells

- Can lyse and kill cancer cells and virus-infected cells
- Are a small, distinct group of large granular lymphocytes
- React nonspecifically and eliminate cancerous and virus-infected cells
- Kill their target cells by releasing perforins and other cytolytic chemicals
- Secrete potent chemicals that enhance the inflammatory response

Cells and Molecules of the Adaptive Immune Response

ELEMENT	FUNCTION IN IMMUNE RESPONSE		
CELLS			
B cell	Lymphocyte that matures in bone marrow. Induced to replicate by antigen binding, usually followed by helper T cell interactions in lymphoid tissues. Its progeny (clone members) form memory cells and plasma cells		
Plasma cell	Antibody-producing "machine"; produces huge numbers of antibodies (immunoglobulins) with the same antigen specificity. Specialized B cell clone descendant		
Helper T cell (T _H)	A CD4 T cell that is central to both humoral and cellular immunity. After binding with a specific antigen presented by an APC, it stimulates production of cytotoxic T cells and B cells to help fight invader, activates macrophages, and acts both directly and indirectly by releasing cytokines		
Cytotoxic T cell (T _C)	A CD8 cell; also called a cytolytic (CTL) T cell. Activated by antigen presented by an antigen- presenting cell, often with helper T cell involvement. Its specialty is killing virus-invaded body cells and cancer cells; also involved in rejection of foreign tissue grafts		
Regulatory T cell (T_{Reg})	Formerly called suppressor T cell; slows or stops activity of immune system. Thought to be important in controlling autoimmune diseases; likely several different populations exist		
Memory cell	Descendant of activated B cell or any class of T cell; generated during initial immune response (primary response); may exist in body for years after, enabling it to respond quickly and efficiently to subsequent infections or meetings with same antigen		
Antigen-presenting cell (APC)	Any of several cell types (dendritic cell, macrophage, B cell) that engulfs and digests antigens that it encounters, presenting parts of them on its plasma membrane (bound to an MHC protein) for recognition by T cells bearing receptors for same antigen. This function, antigen presentation, is essential for normal cell-mediated responses. Macrophages also release chemicals (cytokines) that activate T cells		

Cytokines

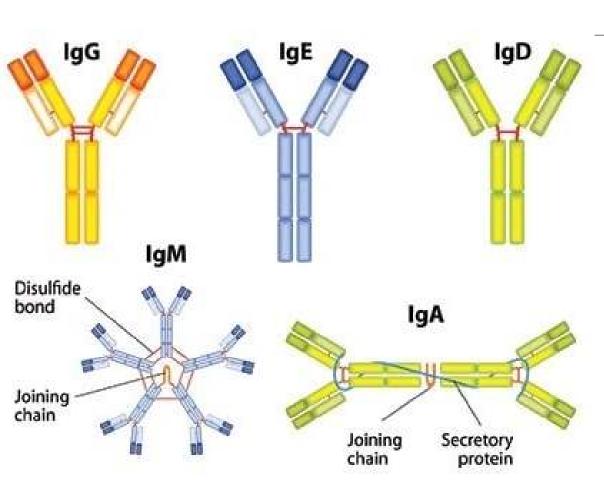
- Cytokine characteristics
 - Small soluble proteins
 - Produced by cells of both innate and adaptive immune system
 - Released from one cell and bind specific receptor of target cell
 - action similar to that of a hormone
 - can act on cell that released it (autocrine)
 - can act on local cells (paracrine)
 - can circulate in the blood to act systemically (endocrine)
 - Have short half-life

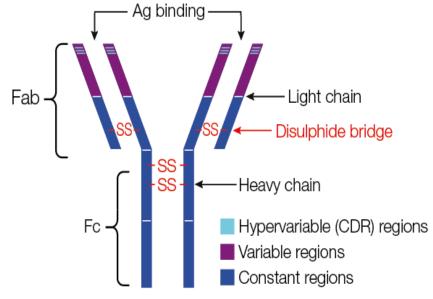
• Cytokine functions

- Regulate and facilitate immune system activity
- Means of communication between cells
- Control behavior of effector cells of immunity
- Regulate inflammatory response
- Serve as weapons to destroy cells
- Influence non-immune cells, e.g., nervous system

Cytokine categories

- Interleukin (IL)
 - e.g., IL-2
- Tumor necrosis factor (TNF)
 - e.g., TNF-α
- Colony-stimulating factor (CSF)
 - e.g., granulocyte CSF
- Interferon (IFN)
 - e.g., INF-α



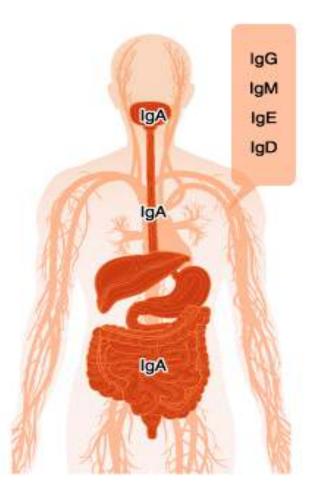


Immunoglobulins

Types and characteristics of antibodies

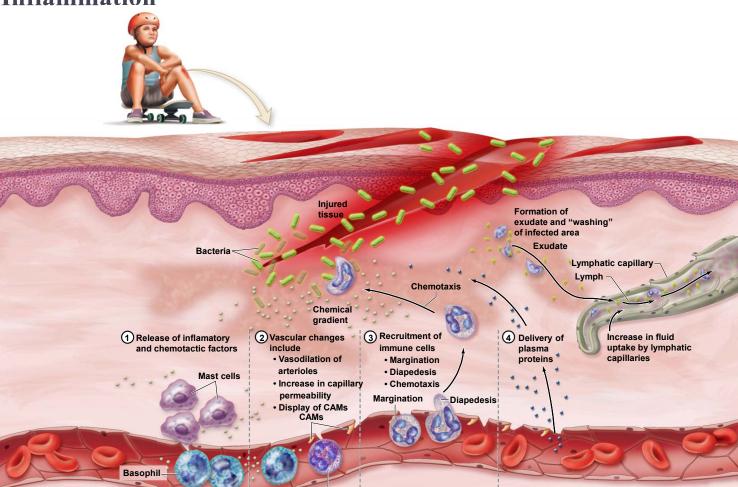
Distribution in the body

IgG 🌱		 Highest opsonization and neutralization activities. Classified into four subclasses (IgG1, IgG2, IgG3, and IgG4). 		
IgM		 Produced first upon antigen invasion. Increases transiently. 		
IgA	or or	Expressed in mucosal tissues. Forms dimers after secretion.		
lgD	7	Unknown function.		
lgE		Involved in allergy.		



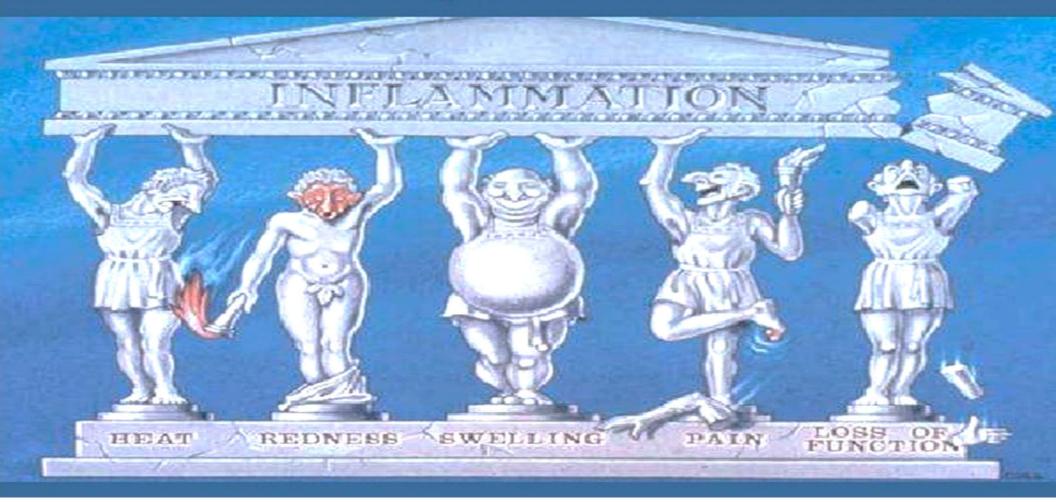
The Five Immunoglobulin (Ig) Classes					
Properties	lgG monomer	lgM pentamer	Secretory IgA dimer	lgD monomer	lgE monomer
Structure			Secretory component		
Heavy chains	γ	μ	α	δ	ε
Number of antigen-binding sites	2	10	4	2	2
Molecular weight (Daltons)	150,000	900,000	385,000	180,000	200,000
Percentage of total antibody in serum	80%	6%	13% (monomer)	<1%	<1%
Crosses placenta	yes	no	no	no	no
Fixes complement	yes	yes	no	no	no
Fc binds to	phagocytes				mast cells and basophils
Function	Neutralization, agglutination, complement activation, opsonization, and antibodydependent cell-mediated cyotoxicity.	Neutralization, agglutination, and complement activation. The monomer form serves as the B-cell receptor.	Neutralization and trapping of pathogens in mucus.	B-cell receptor.	Activation of basophils and mast cells against parasites and allergens.



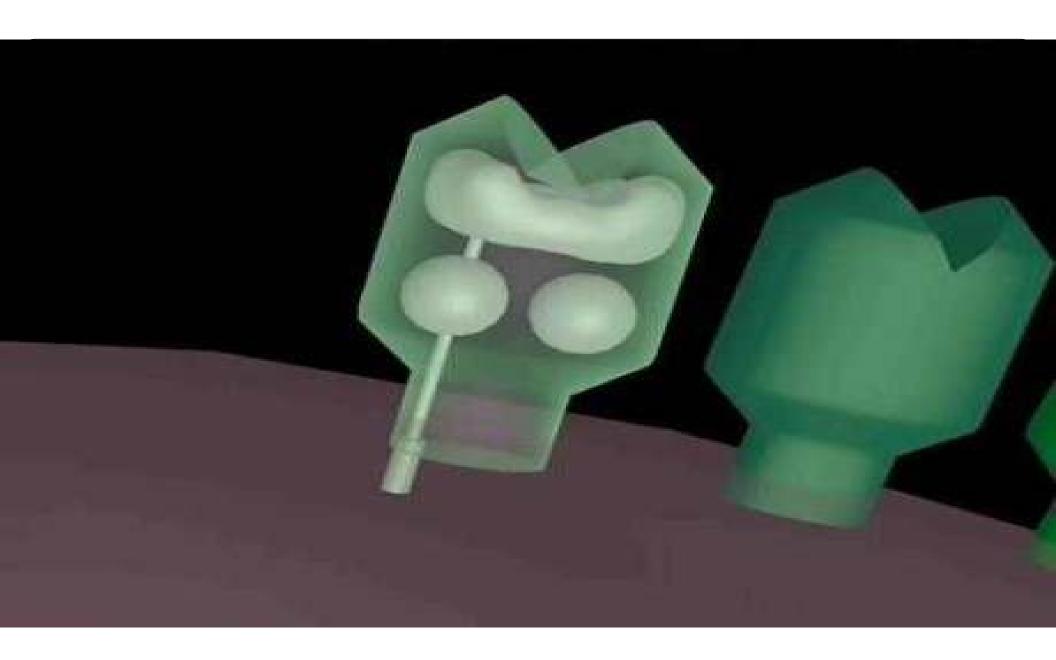


Neutrophil

The Cardinal Signs of Inflammation



	Hypersensitivity Types and Their Mechanisms			
	Type I	Type II	Type III	Type IV
lmmune reactant	lgE	IgG or IgM	IgG and IgM	T cells
Antigen form	Soluble antigen	Cell-bound antigen	Soluble antigen	Soluble or cell-bound antigen
Mechanism of activation	Allergen-specific IgE antibodies bind to mast cells via their Fc receptor. When the specific allergen binds to the IgE, cross-linking of IgE induces degranulation of mast cells.	IgG or IgM antibody binds to cellular antigen, leading to complement activation and cell lysis. IgG can also mediate ADCC with cytotoxic T cells, natural killer cells, macrophages, and neutrophils.	Antigen-antibody complexes are deposited in tissues. Complement activation provides inflammatory mediators and recruits neutrophils. Enzymes released from neutrophils damage tissue.	T _H 1 cells secrete cytokines, which activate macrophages and cytotoxic T cells.
Examples of hypersensitivity reactions	Local and systemic anaphylaxis, seasonal hay fever, food allergies, and drug allergies	Red blood cell destruction after transfusion with mismatched blood types or during hemolytic disease of the newborn.	Post-streptococcal glomerulonephritis, rheumatoid arthritis, and systemic lupus erythematosus	Contact dermatitis, type I diabetes mellitus, and multiple sclerosis



The end

• Stop complaining, it has been resumed



It can be worst

