

Immunology

Course 1: Introduction to Immunology

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What is Immunity?

Immunity:

- Is a biological term that describes a state of having sufficient **biological defenses** to avoid infection, disease, or other unwanted biological invasion.
- In other words, it is nothing but the **capability of the body to resist harmful microbes from entering the body.**

Immunology:

The study of all aspects of the immune system in all organisms.

Definition

- Immunology is defined as the study of the molecules, cells, organs, and systems responsible for the recognition and disposal of foreign material.
- Immunology began as a branch of microbiology. The study of infectious disease and the body's response to them has a major role for the development of immunology.

Immune system

The immune system is a network of cells, tissues, and organs that work together to defend the body against attacks by “foreign” invaders such as *bacteria*, *viruses*, *parasites*, and *fungi*.

Immunity:

Immunity can be defined as the way in which the body can protect itself from invasion by pathogenic microorganism and provide a defense against their harmful effect. Immunity is classified in to two major groups:

Nonspecific immunity (Innate Immunity).

Specific immunity (Acquired Immunity).

Antigen

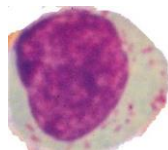
A live (e.g., viruses and bacteria) or inactivated substance capable of producing an immune response .

Antibody

Protein molecules (immunoglobulins) produced by B lymphocytes to help eliminate an antigen.

Characteristics of the immune system

- Broad range:
 - Bacteria
 - Toxins
 - Viruses
 - Parasites
 - Tumor cells
 - Fungi
 - Foreign cells
 - Particulates
- Highly specific
 - Pathogen species and strains
 - Self vs non-self
 - Memory
- Widespread
 - Every organ and system
- Extremely fluid
 - It moves!!!!



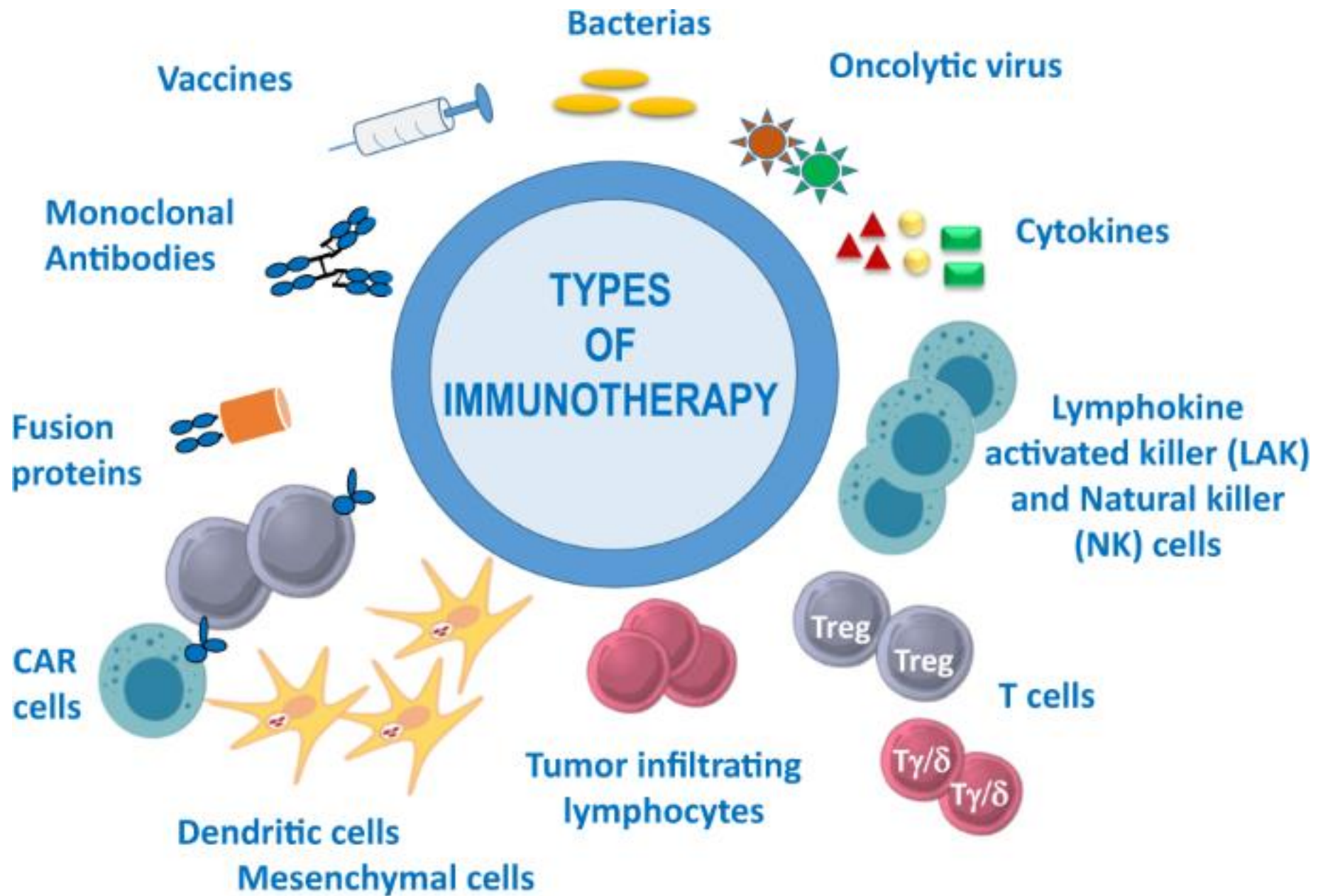
The functional importance of the immune system

Role of the immune system	Implications
Defense against infections	Deficient immunity results in increased susceptibility to infections; exemplified by AIDS Vaccination boosts immune defenses and protects against infections
Defense against tumors	Potential for immunotherapy of cancer
Clearance of dead cells and tissue repair	Deficient immunity can lead to secondary infections after injury, and excessive immune responses can lead to fibrosis and organ dysfunction
The immune system can injure cells and induce pathologic inflammation	Immune responses are the cause of allergic, autoimmune, and other inflammatory diseases
The immune system recognizes and responds to tissue grafts and newly introduced proteins	Immune responses are barriers to transplantation and gene therapy

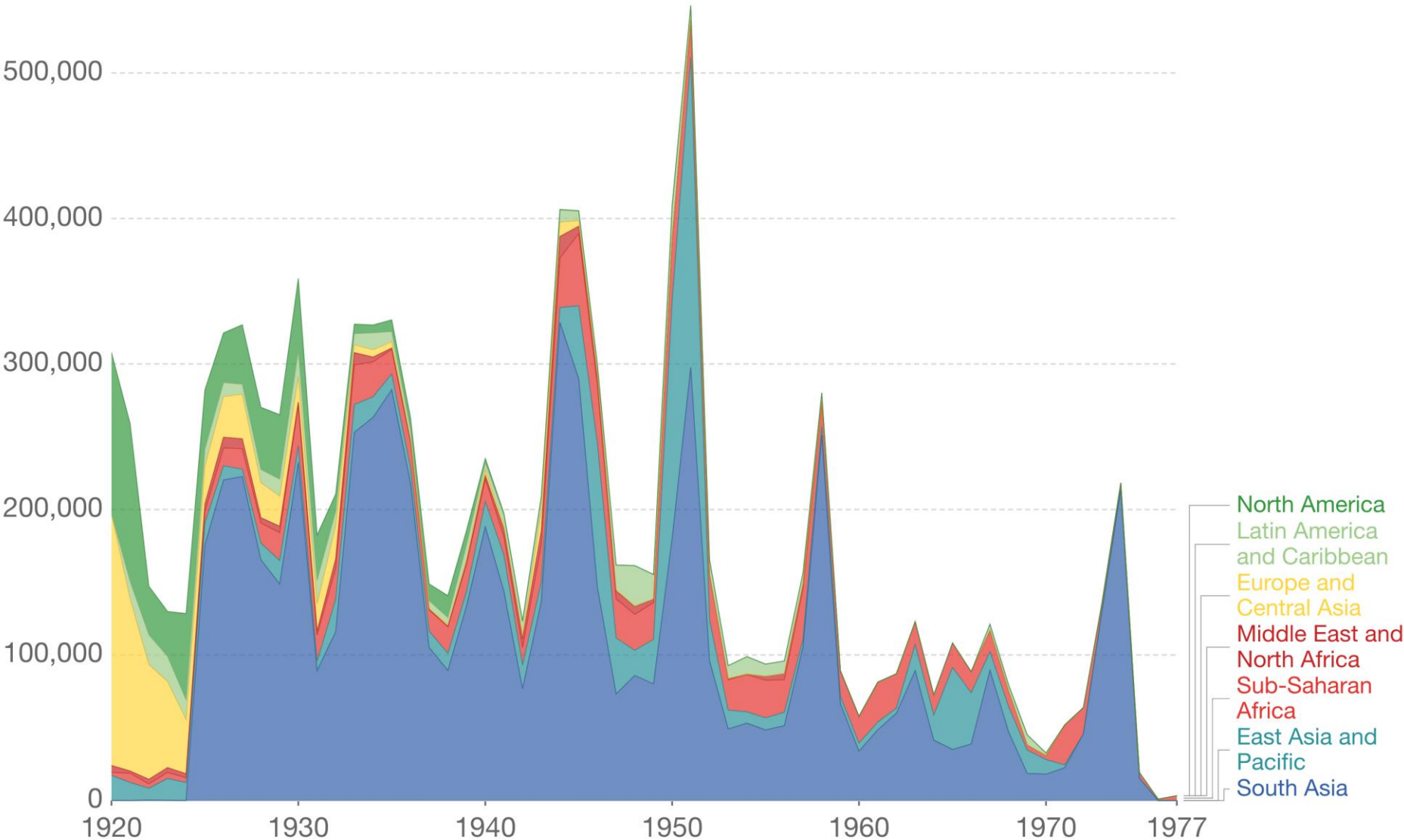
Subjects In Immunology

- Cell mediated host defense functions
- Antibody related defense mechanisms
- Hypersensitivity reactions (Including Allergy)
- Auto Immunity
- Immunodeficiency
- Transplantation



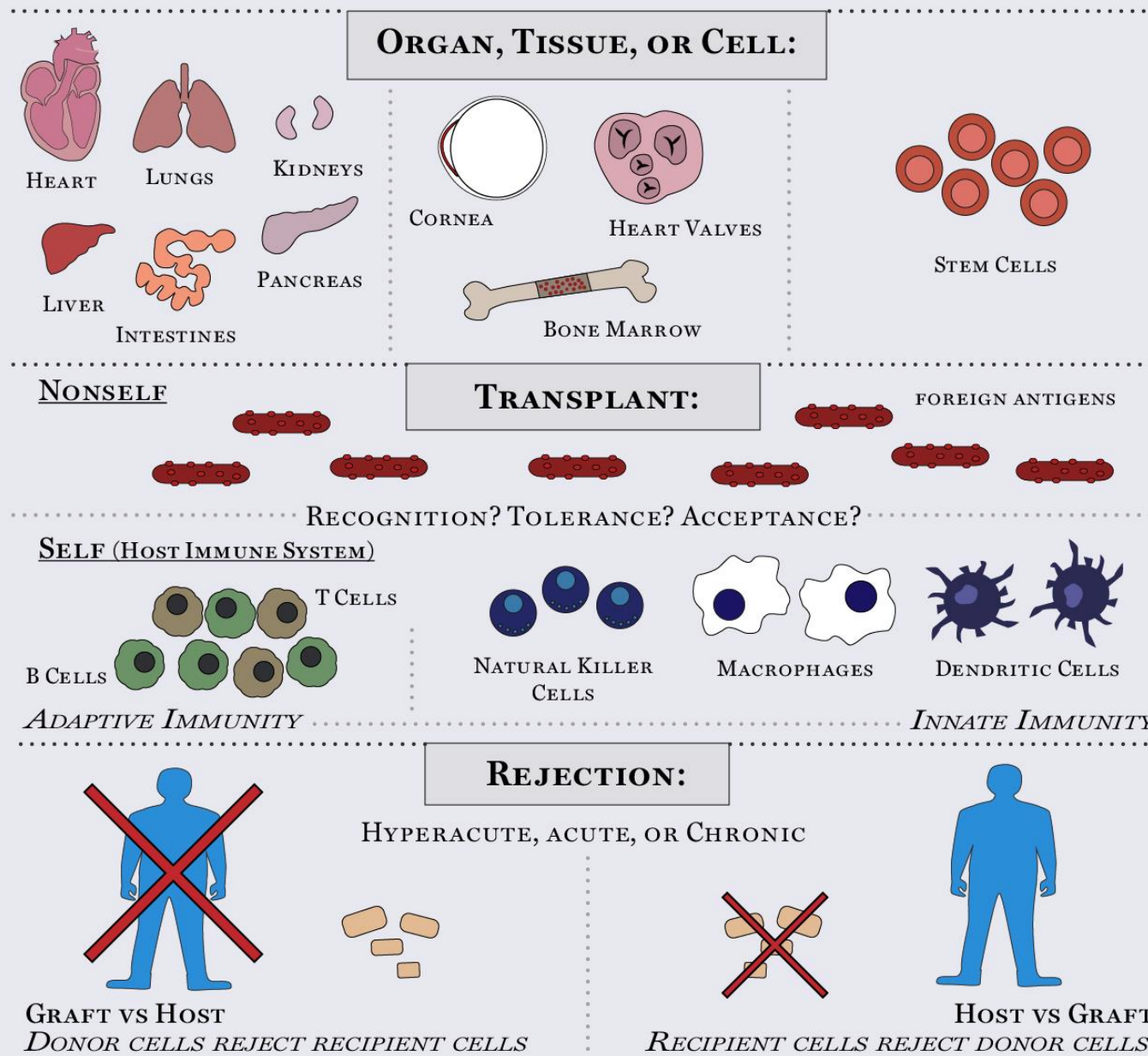


Reported number of smallpox infections by world region, 1920 to 1977



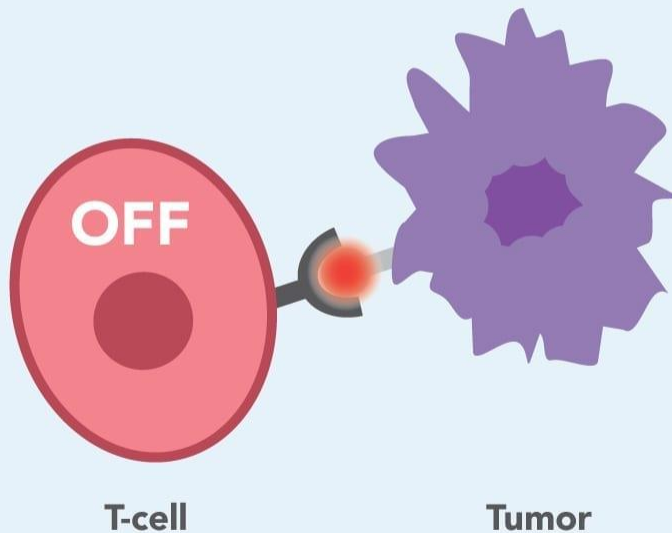
Source: World Health Organization (1969-1988)

THE MANY COMPONENTS OF ORGAN TRANSPLANTATION

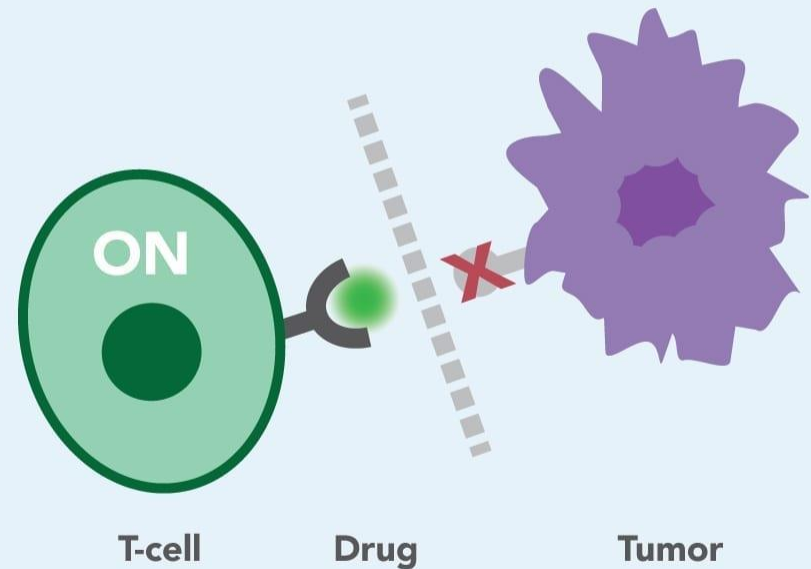


How Does Immunotherapy Work?

Tumor cells bind to T-cells
to deactivate them



Immunotherapy drugs can block
tumor cells from deactivating T-cells

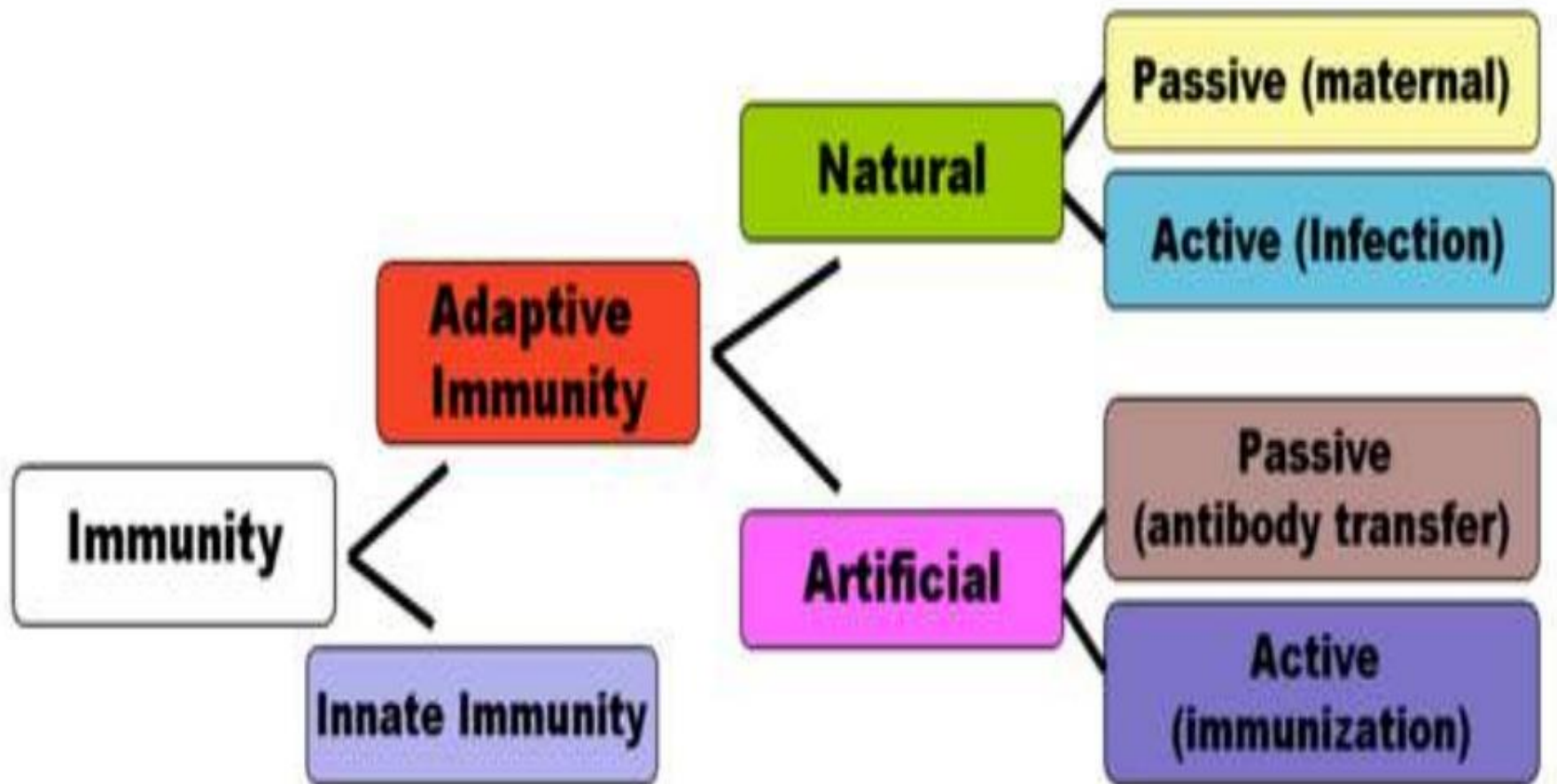


COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY
MEDICAL CENTER

**Immunotherapy - New form of Cancer Treatment
Now available for patients in India**



Basic classification of Immunity



Passive Immunity

Develops after you receive antibodies from someone or somewhere else



Natural

Antibodies received from mother, e.g., through breast milk



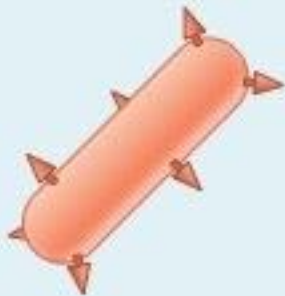
Artificial

Antibodies received from a medicine, e.g., from a gamma globulin injection or infusion



ACTIVE IMMUNITY

Natural



Infection

Artificial



Vaccination

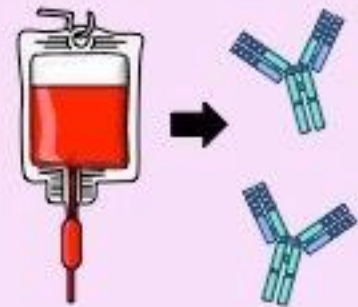
PASSIVE IMMUNITY

Natural



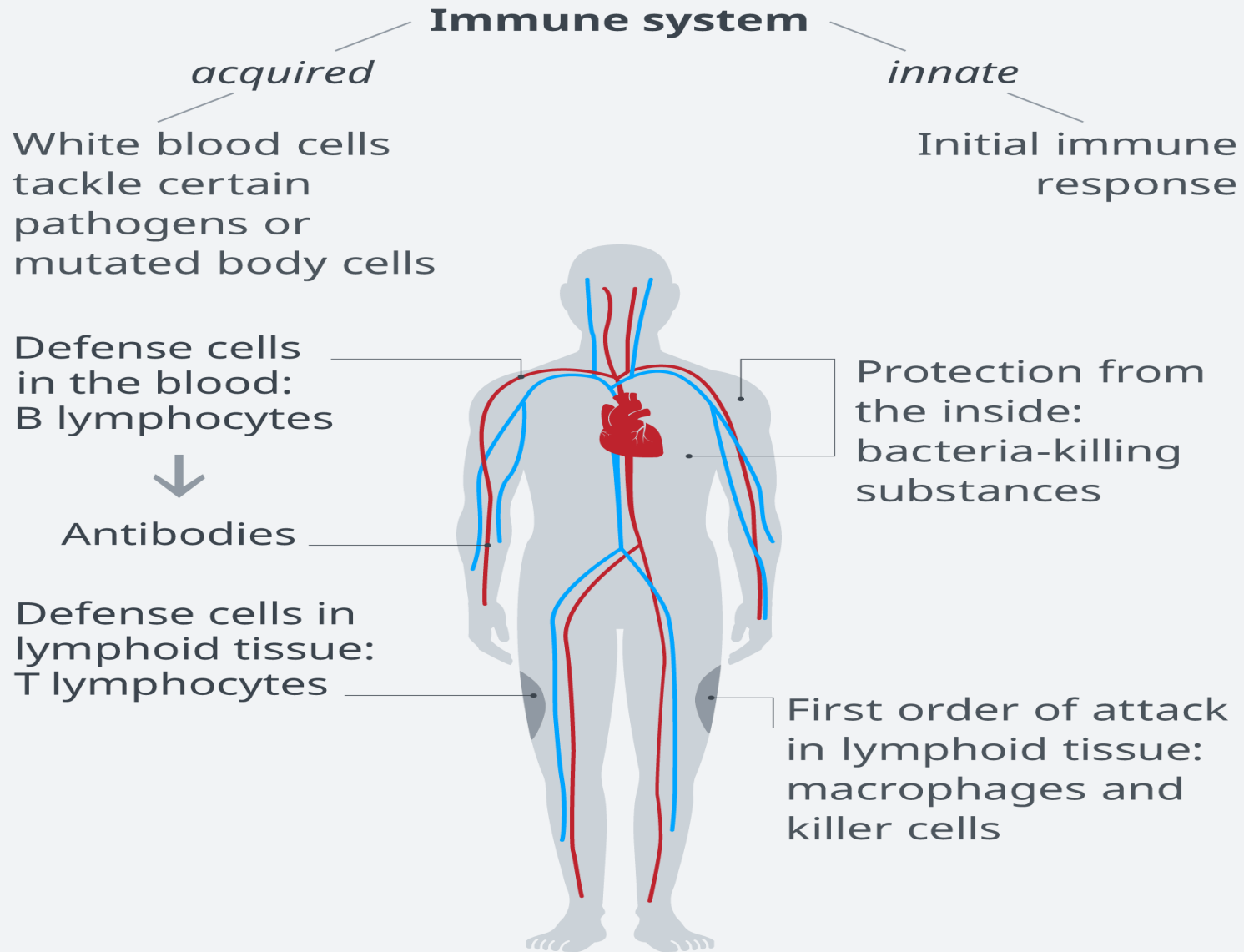
Maternal
antibodies

Artificial



Monoclonal
antibodies

The human immune system

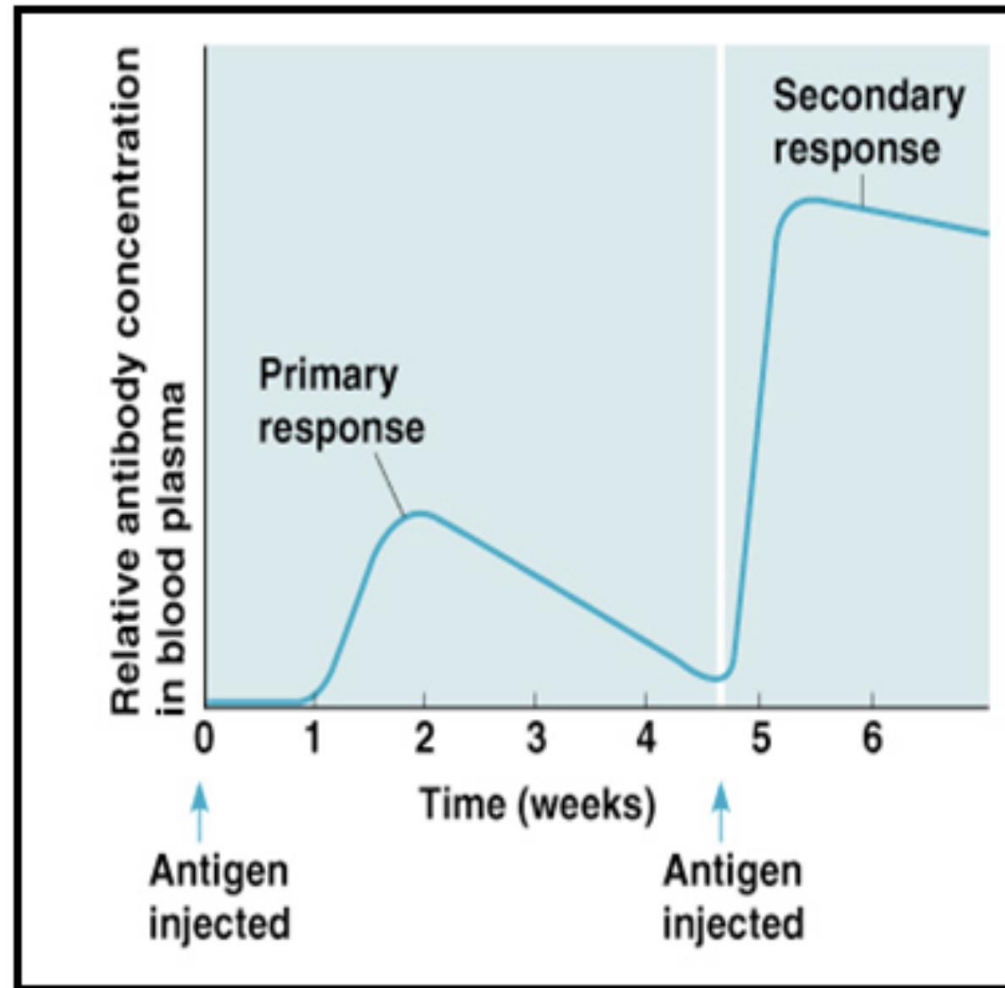


Primary vs. Secondary Immune Response

The initial immune response to a particular antigen is called **Primary Response**,

It takes approximately 10 to 14 days for antibodies to be produced. Primary response result in the production of memory cells

The second immune response to the same antigen is called **Secondary Response**, it is characterized by large quantities of antibodies which take less time to be developed than primary immune response.

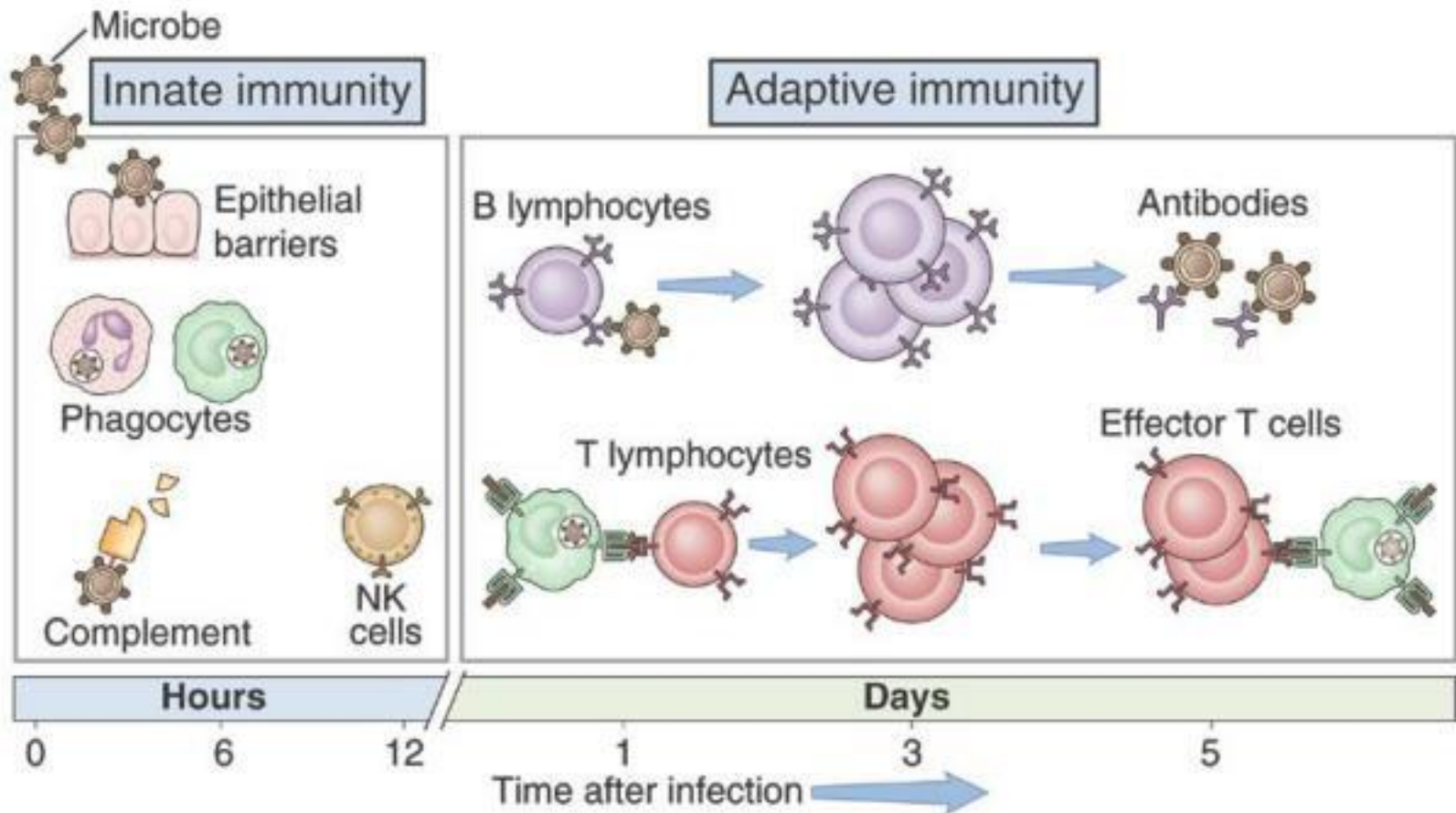


Innate and Adaptive Immunity

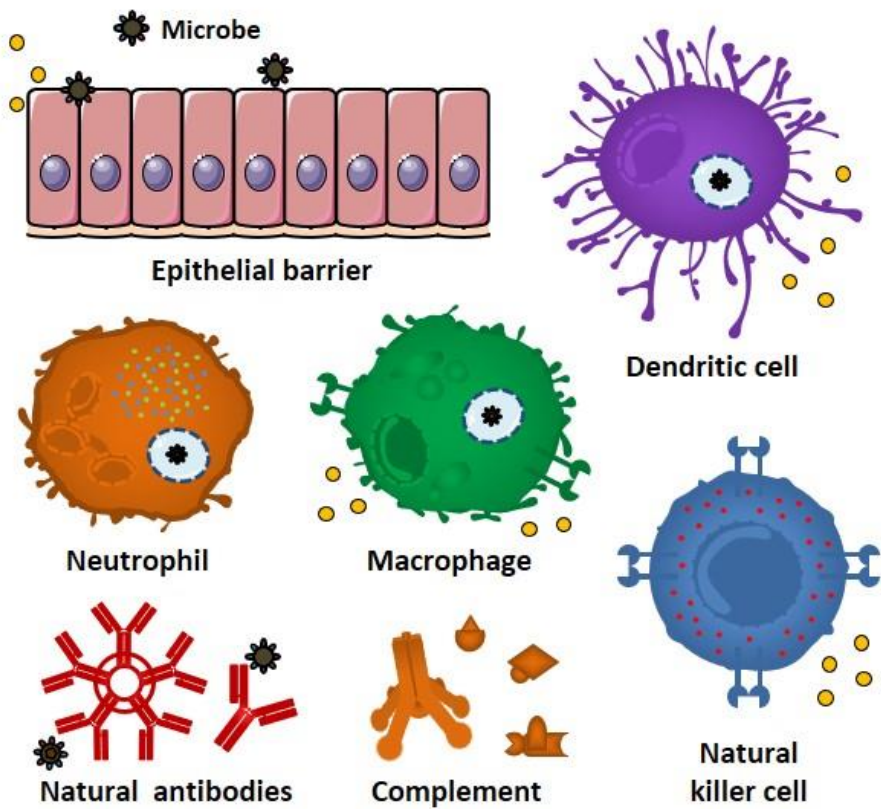
- Innate immunity is the first protective barrier against infections.

- Immune response that comes into play slowly after infection but provides more effective defense against infections is called adaptive immunity.

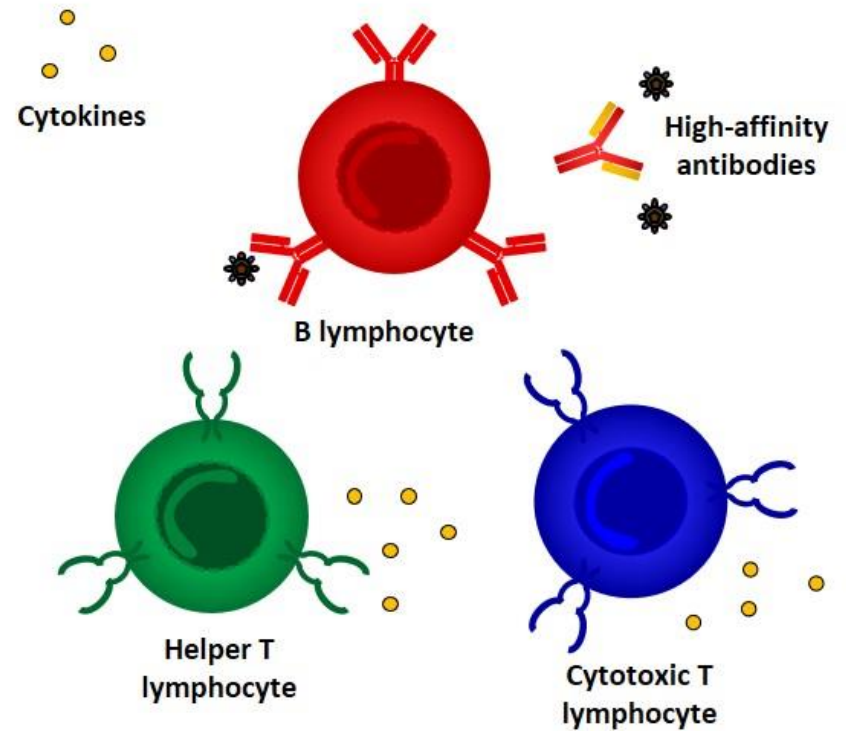
Innate and Adaptive Immunity



Innate Immunity



Adaptive Immunity



Innate and Adaptive Immunity

- **Antibodies capture infectious agents in serum and destroy microorganisms**
- **T lymphocytes neutralize microbes inside the cell**
- The kinetics of natural and acquired immune responses are similar and may vary according to different infections.

Innate Immunity

- The term innate immunity is the host defense that prevents the entry of microbes and destroys the microbes that manage to enter the host tissues.
- This defense is always present in healthy individuals.

Innate Immunity

- The first lines of defense of innate immunity to prevent germs from entrance;
- **Epithelial barrier,**
- **Specialized cells in the epithelium**
- **Natural antibiotics**

Innate Immunity

- If microbes cross the epithelium and enter the circulation, they are attacked by phagocytes, specialized lymphocytes called natural killer (NK) cells and proteins of the complement system

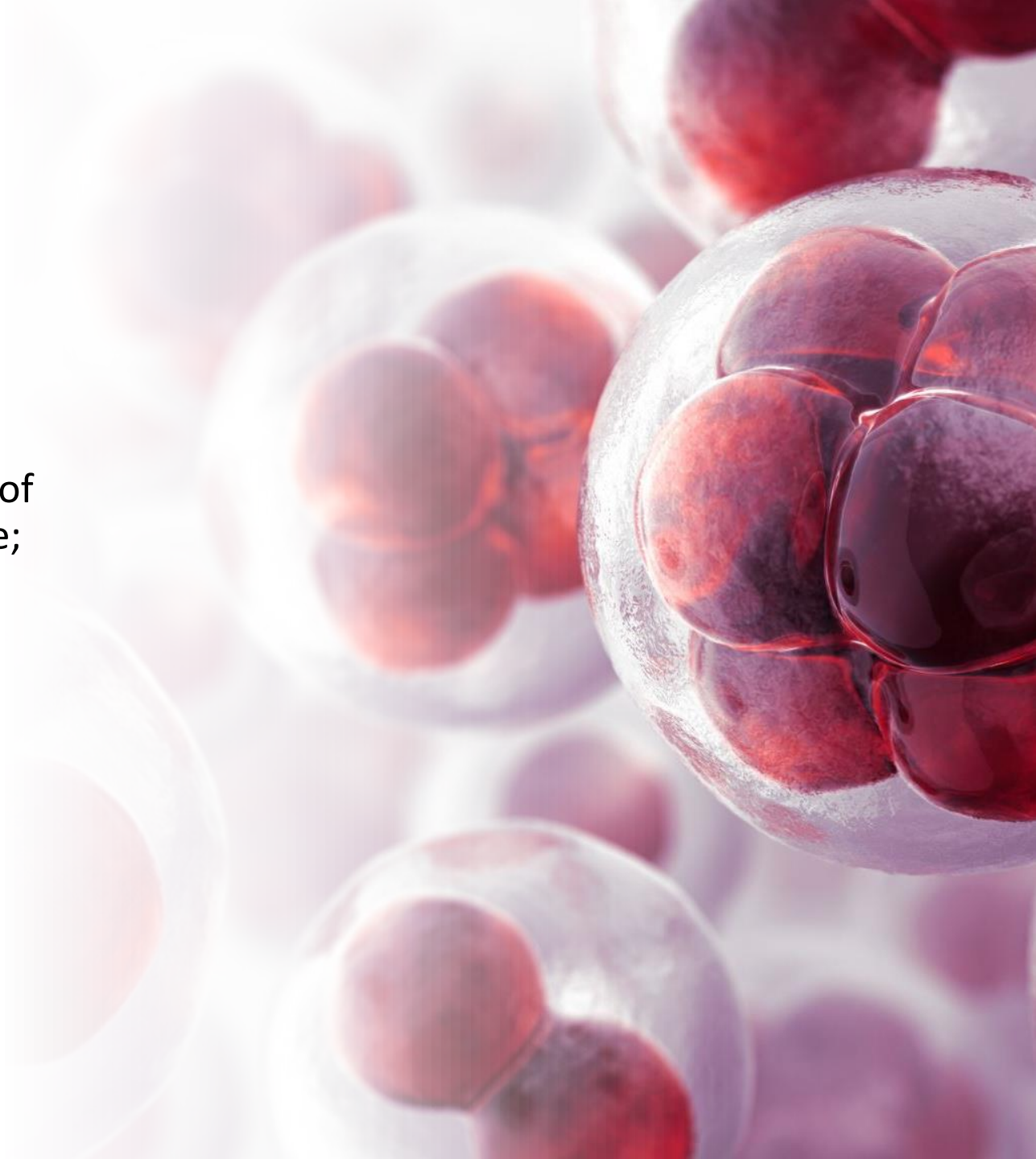
Innate Immunity

- Although innate immunity fights as effectors against many infections, microbes that are pathogenic to humans evolve to resist the innate immune response.
- It is the task of the acquired immune response to defend against infectious substances.
- Therefore, disorders in the acquired immune system result in increased susceptibility to infections.



Innate Immunity

- Major components of innate immunity are;
- Antibodies
- Lymphocytes
- Antigen presenting cells
- Cytokines



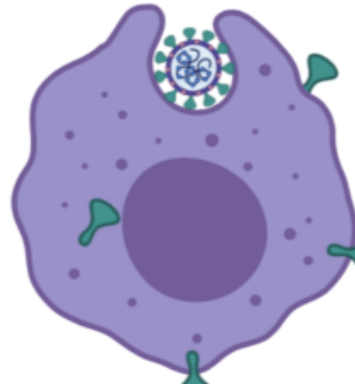
Acquired Immunity

- Acquired immune responses are triggered only if microbes or their antigens cross the epithelial barrier and are transported to lymphoid organs where they are recognized by lymphocytes.
- Acquired immune responses create special mechanisms to combat different types of microbes
- For example, antibodies destroy microbes living outside the cell, T lymphocytes inside the cell.

virus



white blood
cell



viral antigen



B cell

produces
antibodies



T helper cell
signals
stimulate B
cells

T helper cell



T helper cell
signals
stimulate
cytotoxic T
cells

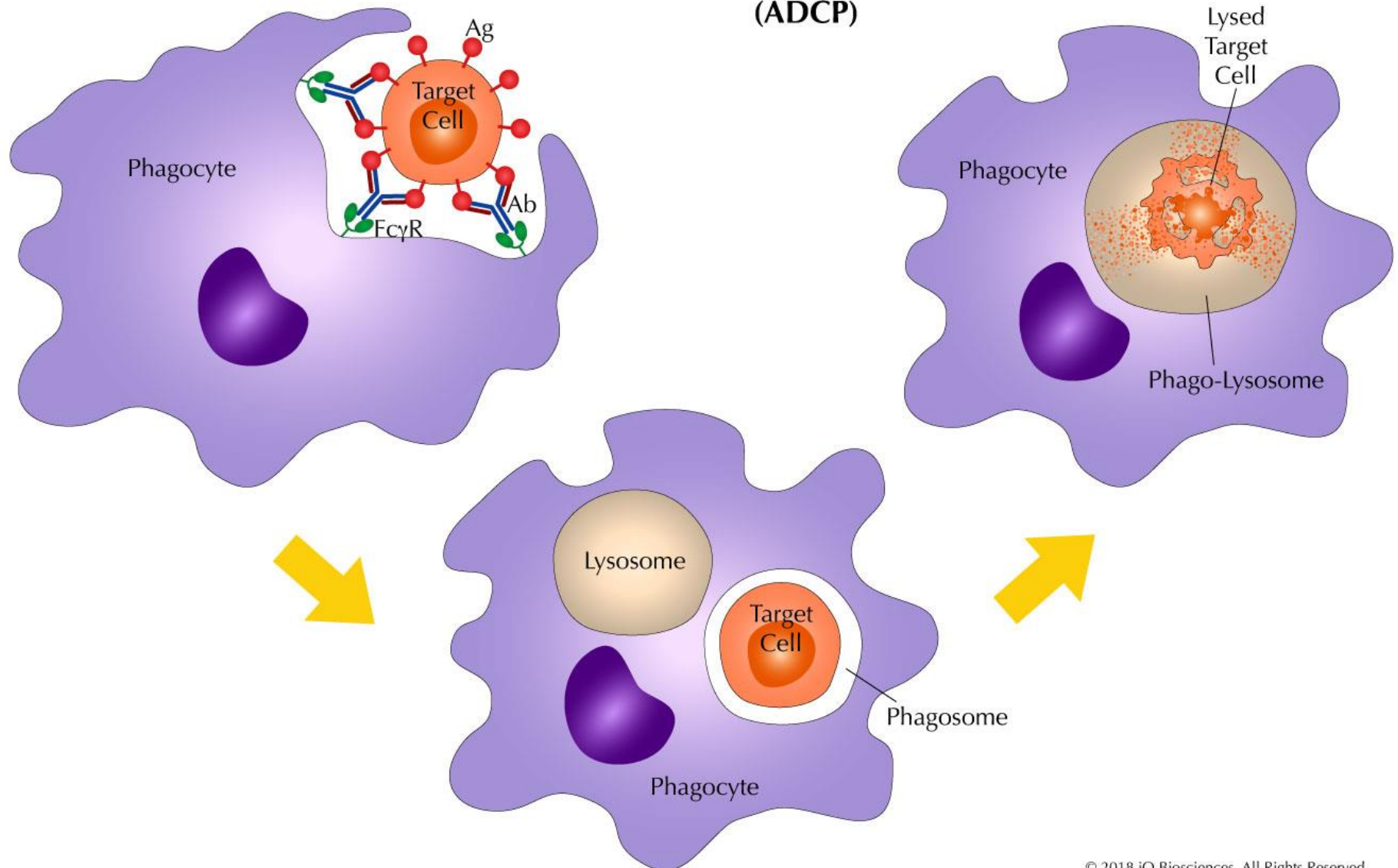
cytotoxic T cell



kills infected
cells

Innate and Adaptive Immunity Interactions

Antibody-Dependent Cellular Phagocytosis (ADCP)



Innate and Adaptive Immunity Interactions

- For example, antibodies (a component of acquired immunity) bind to microbes.
- The microbe coated with antibody binds easily to phagocytes (cell of innate immunity) and activates them so that microbes are digested and destroyed by phagocytes.

Active Adaptive Immunity

- Humoral Immunity
- Cellular Immunity

Humoral Immunity

- Humoral immunity is created by proteins called antibodies produced by **B lymphocytes**.
- Antibodies neutralize microbes and microbial toxins present in the blood, mucous fluids and in the lumens of mucous organs such as the gastrointestinal and respiratory tract.

Humoral Immunity

- One of the important properties of antibodies is to prevent microbes on the mucosal surface and blood from reaching and evading in host cells and related tissues.
- In this way, antibodies prevent infections before they invade.

A microscopic view of cells, showing several large, spherical cells with a reddish-pink interior and a translucent outer membrane. The cells are clustered together, with some showing internal structures like nuclei.

Cellular Immunity

- Antibodies cannot reach the microorganisms that live and divide inside the infected cell.
- Cellular immunity ensures the defense against such intracellular microbes.
- Cellular immunity is generated by T lymphocyte cells

Cellular Immunity

- Some T lymphocytes activate phagocytes to destroy germs.
- Other T lymphocytes kill all host cells that contain infectious microbes in their cytoplasm.
- Antibodies produced by B lymphocytes are specifically designed to recognize **extracellular microbial antigens**, while T lymphocytes recognize antigens produced by **microbes within the cell.**

B versus T Lymphocytes

Characteristic	B Lymphocytes	T Lymphocytes
Ancestral Origin	Bone marrow	Bone marrow
Site of Maturation Processing	Bone marrow	Thymus
Receptors for Antigen	B-cell receptors are antibodies inserted in the plasma membrane; highly specific	T-cell receptors present in the plasma membrane are not the same as antibodies; highly specific
Bind with	Extracellular antigens such as bacteria, free viruses, and other circulating foreign material	Foreign antigen in association with self-antigen, such as virus-infected cells
Types of Active Cells	Plasma cells	Cytotoxic T cells, helper T cells, regulatory T cells
Formation of Memory Cells	Yes	Yes
Type of Immunity	Antibody-mediated immunity	Cell-mediated immunity
Secretory Product	Antibodies	Cytokines
Functions	Help eliminate free foreign invaders by enhancing innate immune responses against them; provide immunity against most bacteria and a few viruses	Lyse virus-infected cells and cancer cells; provide immunity against most viruses and a few bacteria; aid B cells in antibody production; modulate immune responses
Life Span	Short	Long

- Another important difference between T and B lymphocytes is that although most T lymphocytes only recognize microbial protein antigens, antibodies; recognize many different types of microbial molecules including protein, carbohydrate and lipid

Features of Adaptive Immunity

Most important
features:

specificity

memory

Features of Innate and Adaptive immunity

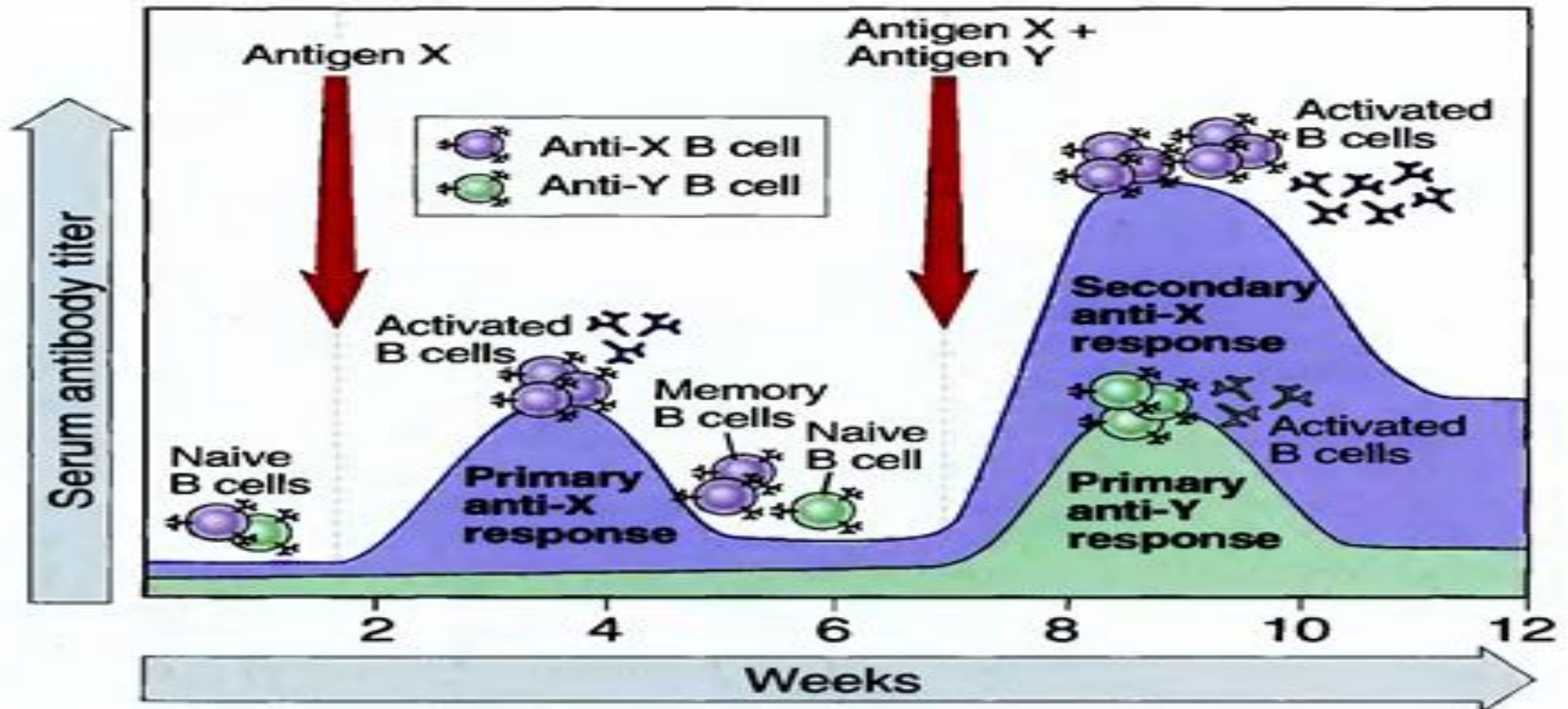
Characteristics	Innate	Adaptive
Specificity	Microbes and products of damaged host cells	Microbial and non microbial antigens
Diversity	Limited; germline encoded	Very large; receptors are produced by somatic recombination of gene segments
Memory	None	yes
Non-reactivity to self	Yes	Yes
Components		
Cellular and chemical barriers	Skin, mucosal epithelia; antimicrobial molecules	Lymphocytes in epithelia; antibodies secreted at epithelial surfaces.
Blood Proteins	Complements, others	Antibodies
Cells	Phagocytes, natural killer cells	Lymphocytes

Properties of adaptive immune responses

Feature	Functional significance
Specificity	Ensures that distinct antigens elicit specific responses
Diversity	Enables immune system to respond to a large variety of antigens
Memory	Leads to enhanced responses to repeated exposures to the same antigens
Clonal expansion	Increases number of antigen-specific lymphocytes to keep pace with microbes
Specialization	Generates responses that are optimal for defense against different types of microbes
Contraction and homeostasis	Allows immune system to respond to newly encountered antigens
Nonreactivity to self	Prevents injury to the host during responses to foreign antigens

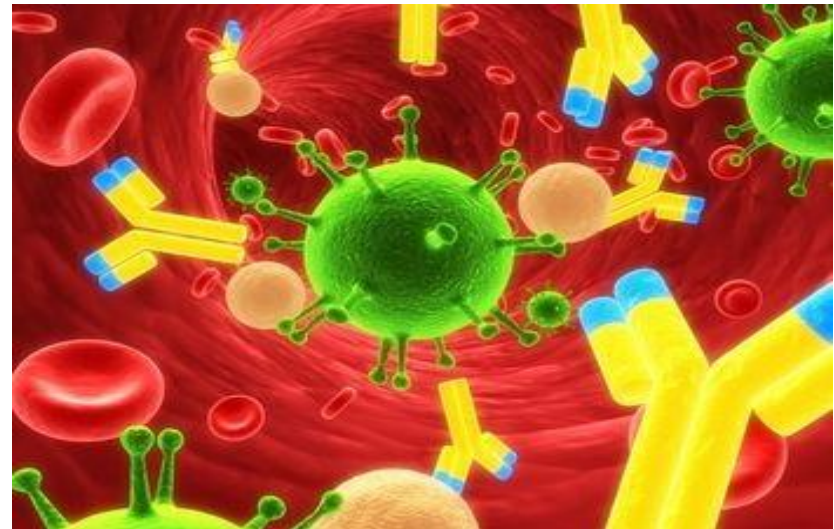
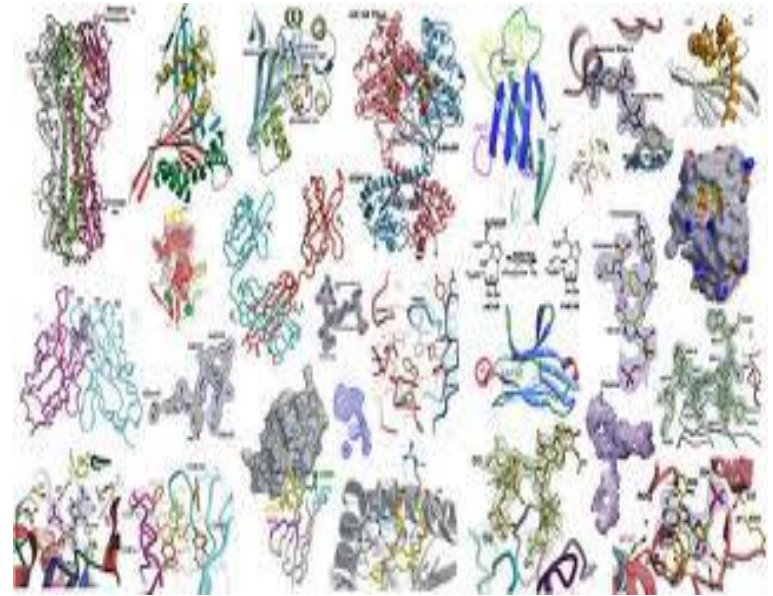
The two features that best distinguish adaptive and innate immunity are specificity and memory

Specificity and Memory in Adaptive Immunity



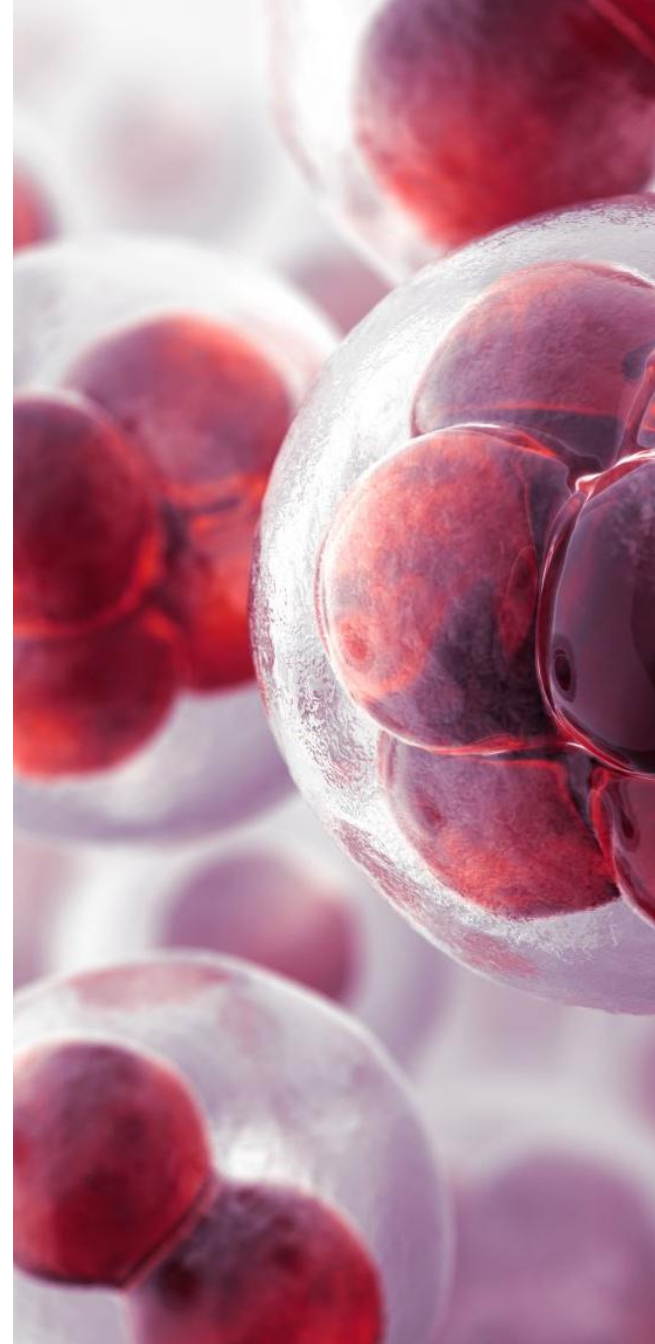
Specificity

- The immune system has the ability to distinguish between at least **one billion different antigens and antigen fragments.**

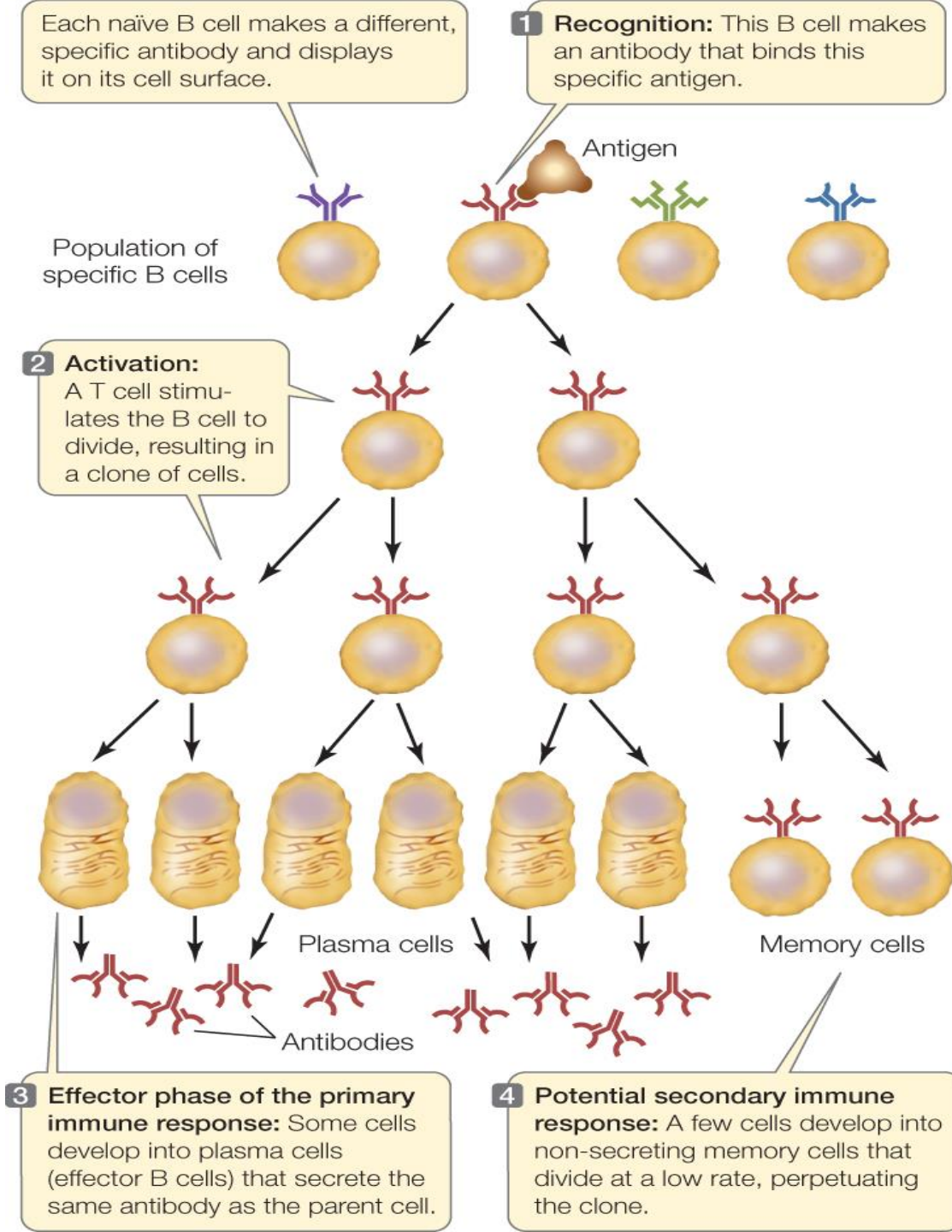


Causes of specificity and diversity

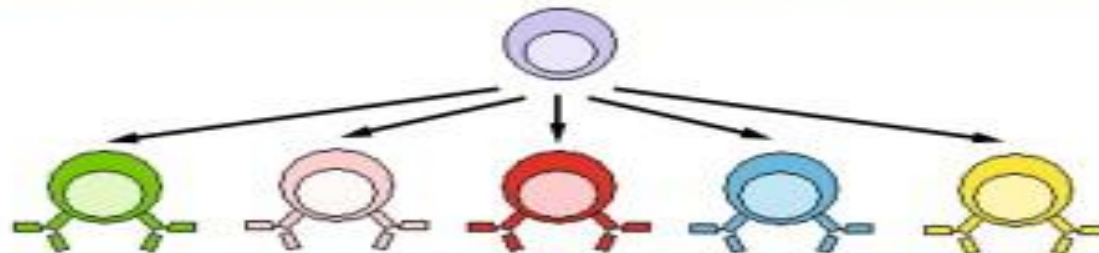
- **Lymphocytes made up of many different clones**
- Each clone has a different antigen receptor distribution from the lymphocytes in the other clone.



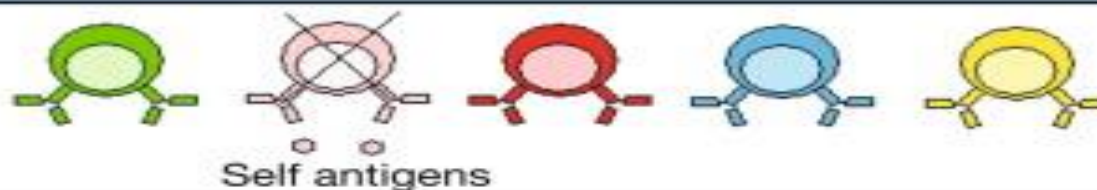
Clonal Selection Theory



Lymphoid progenitor cell gives rise to a large number of lymphocytes, each bearing a distinct antigen receptor



Elimination of self-responsive immature lymphocytes by clonal deletion



The repertoire of mature lymphocytes of an individual



Clonal expansion of antigen-specific activated lymphocyte and differentiation into effector cells with same specificity



Memory

- When the immune system encounters the same antigen over and over again, it creates a greater and more effective response.
- In the first encounter with the antigen, the immune response is generated by naive lymphocytes and this is called the primary (primary) immune response.

Naive Lymphocytes

- The term naive lymphocyte refers to
 1. they are immunologically inexperienced,
 2. they have not encountered antigens before
 3. they do not produce an immune response

Stages of lymphocyte activation

- **Naïve lymphocytes**

- Mature lymphocytes that have not previously encountered antigen; function -- antigen recognition
- Preferential migration to peripheral lymphoid organs (lymph nodes), the sites where immune responses start

- **Effector lymphocytes**

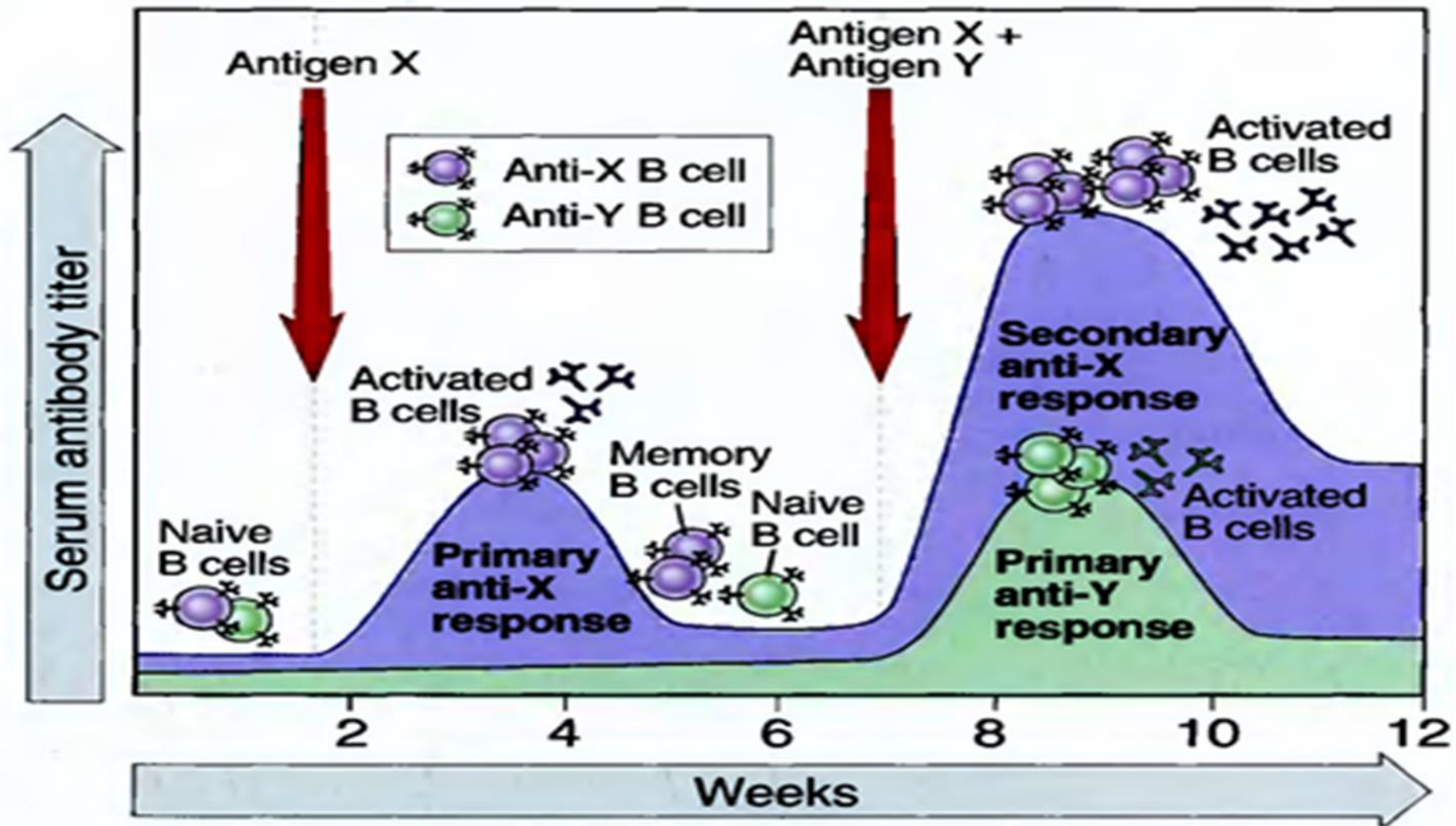
- Activated lymphocytes capable of performing the functions required to eliminate microbes ('effector functions')
- Effector T lymphocytes: cytokine secretion (helper cells), killing of infected cells (CTLs)
- B lymphocytes: antibody-secreting cells (e.g. plasma cells)

- **Memory lymphocytes**

- Long-lived, functionally silent cells; mount rapid responses to antigen challenge (recall, or secondary, responses)

Secondary Immune Response

- When the same antigen is encountered again, it creates an immune response that is faster, larger and better able to eliminate the antigen than the primary response called secondary immune response.

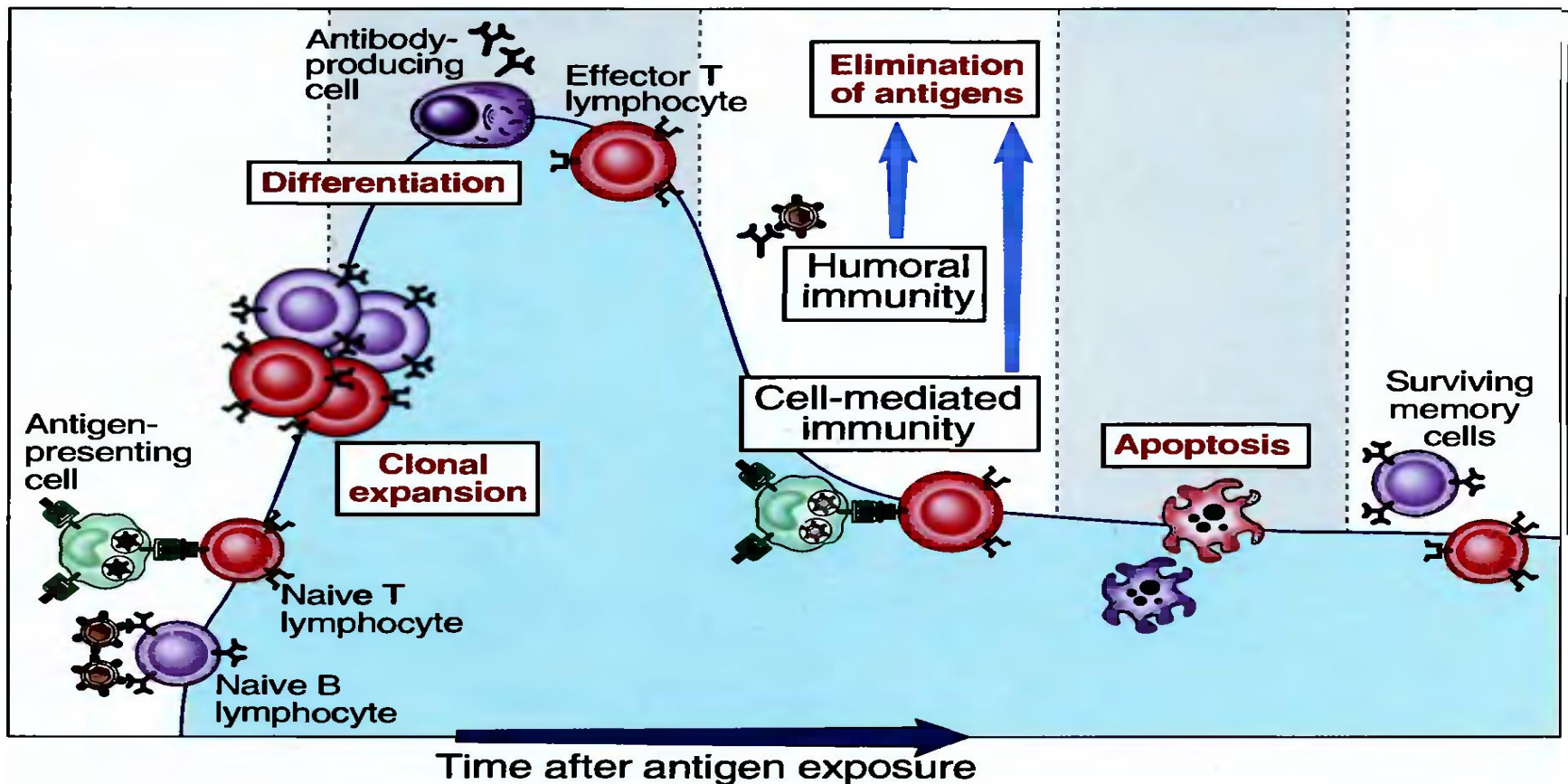


Secondary response occurs as a result of the transformation of long-lasting memory lymphocytes into effector lymphocytes

Phases of Immune Responses

1. Antigen recognition,
2. Lymphocyte activation,
3. Elimination of antigens,
4. Termination of the immune response,
5. Memory

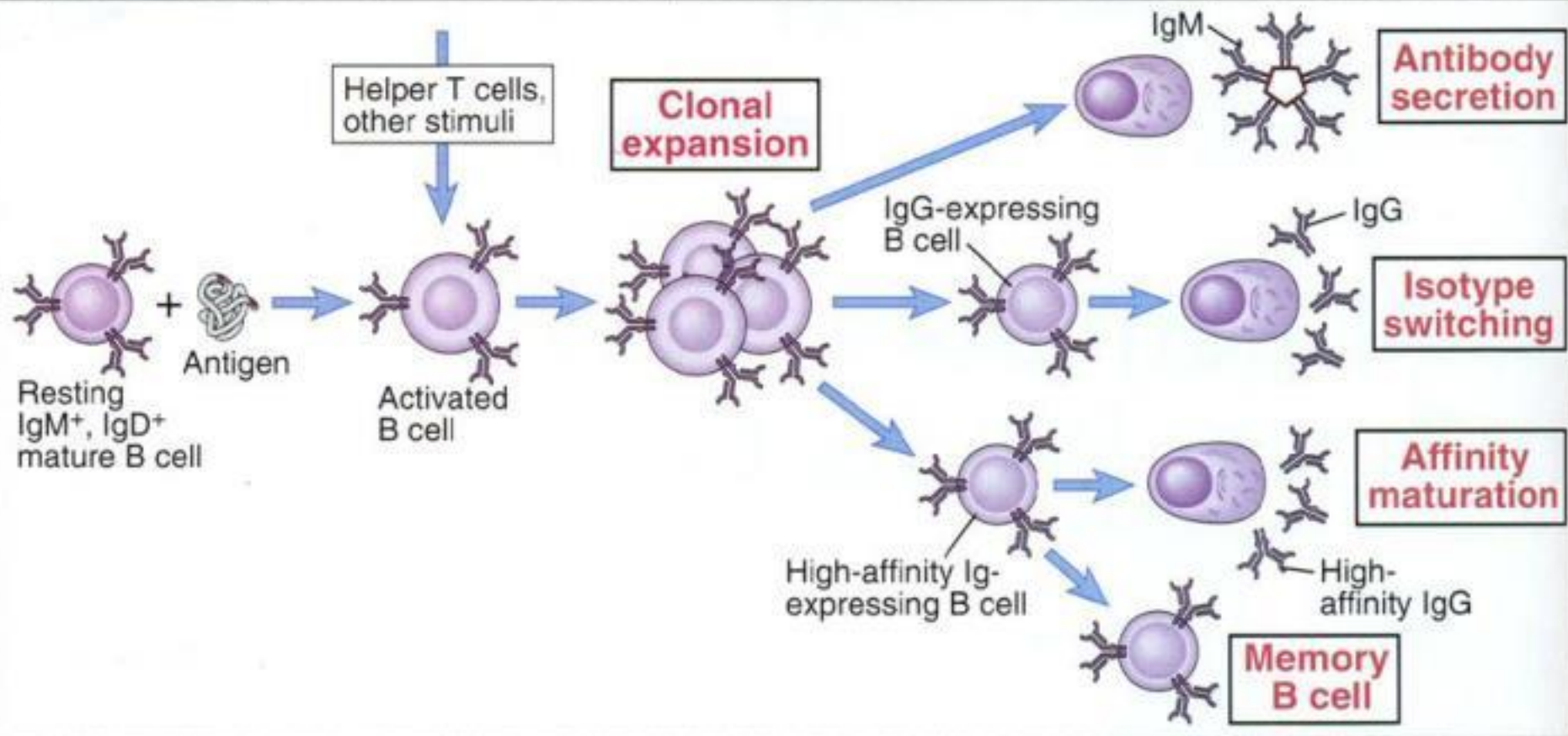
Phases of Adaptive Immunity



Phases of the humoral immune response

Recognition phase

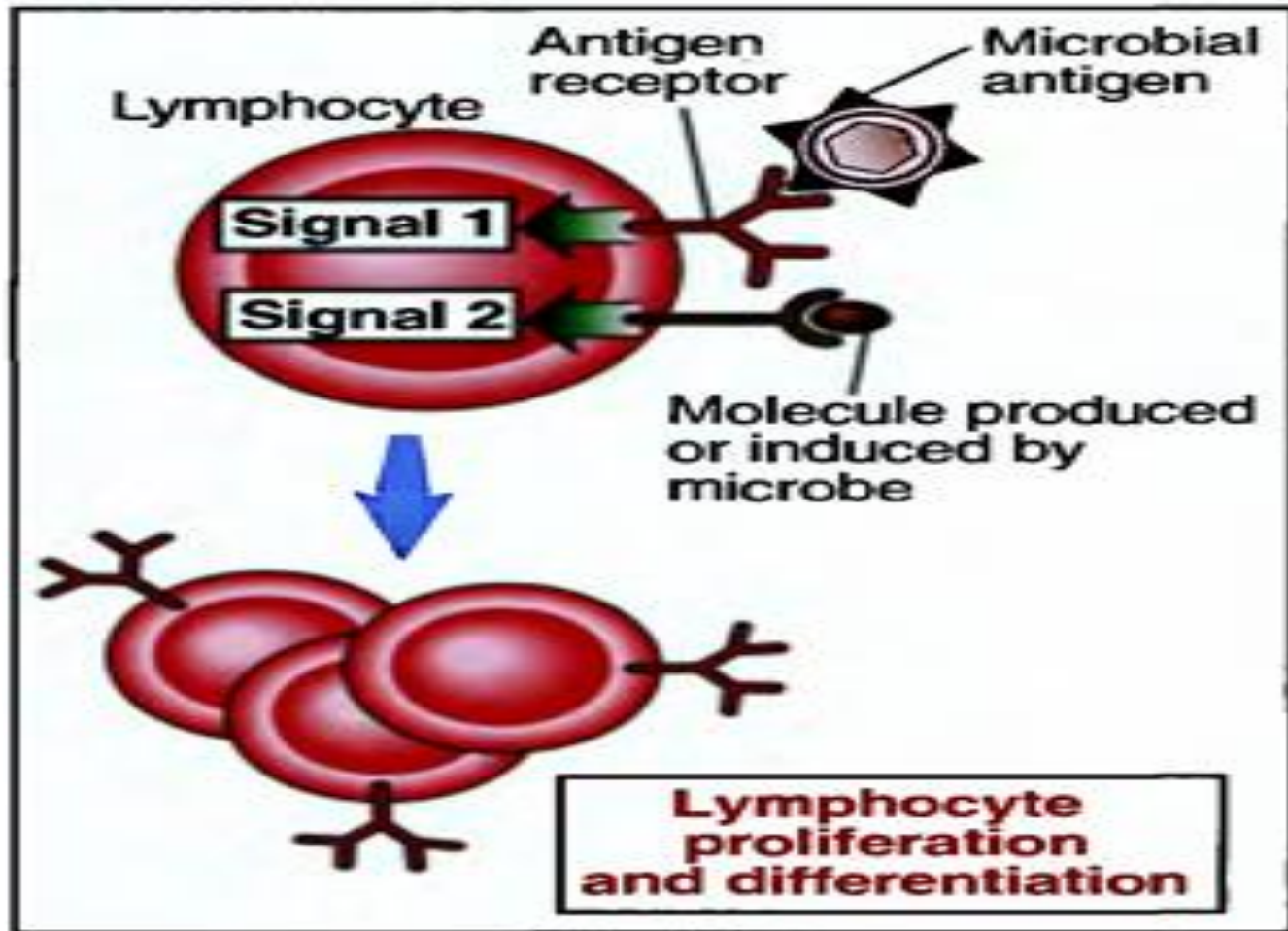
Activation phase: B cell proliferation and differentiation



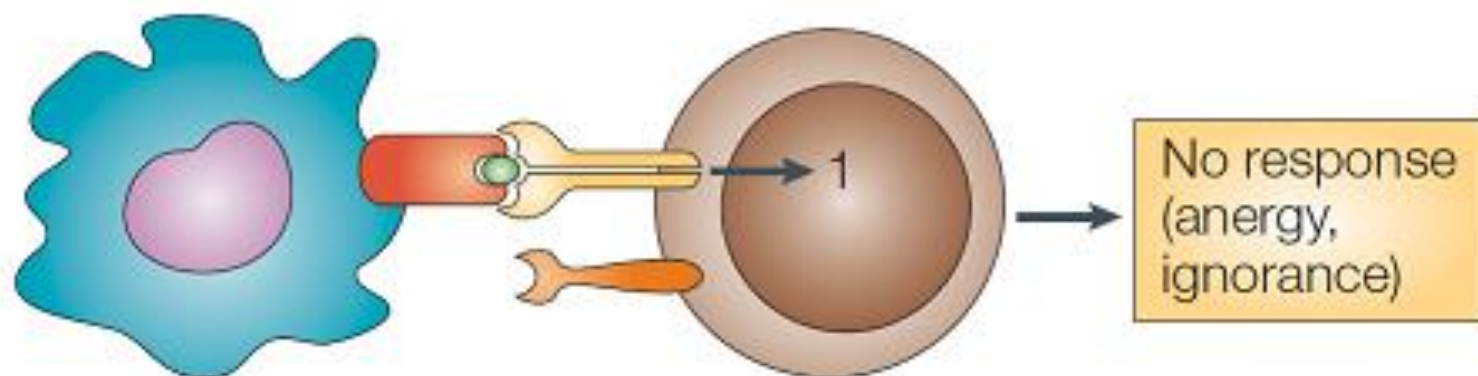
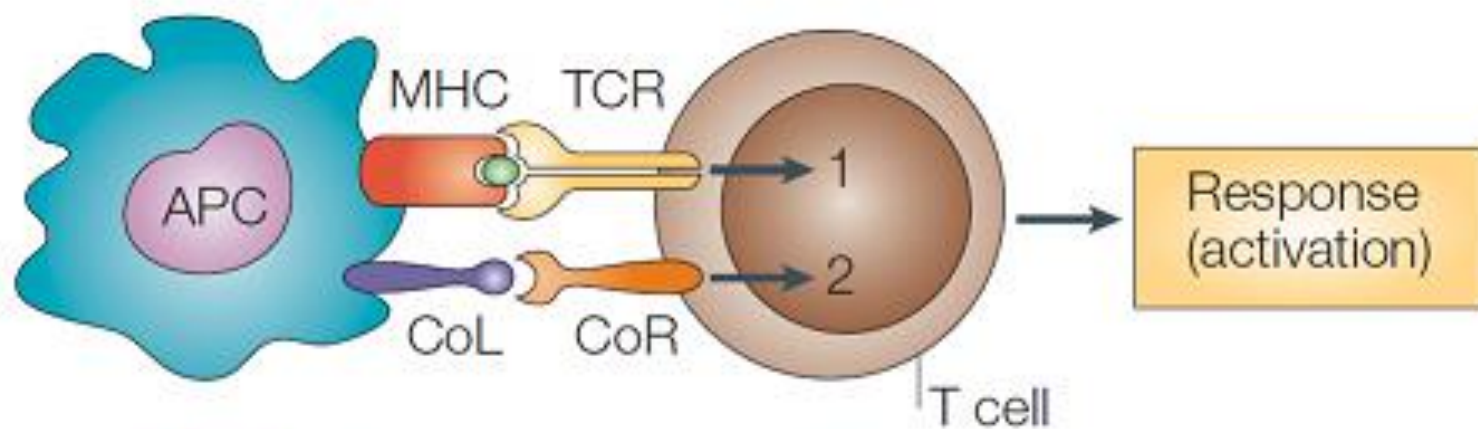
Co-stimulation

- At least two kinds of signals are required for activation of lymphocytes:
 1. Binding of antigens to the receptors of lymphocytes
(signal 1)
 2. Binding of products produced by during the immune response against the microbe to lymphocytes (signal 2)

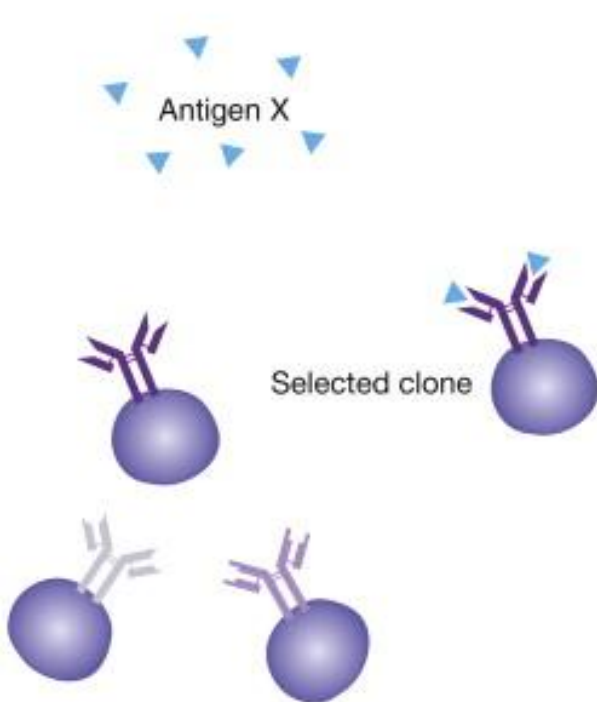
Lymphocyte activation



- The second signals are also called '**co-stimulatory molecules**'. Because they work together with antigens to activate cells.
- This need for second signals ensures that the acquired immune response is generated only against microbes and not against other harmless non-infectious antigens.

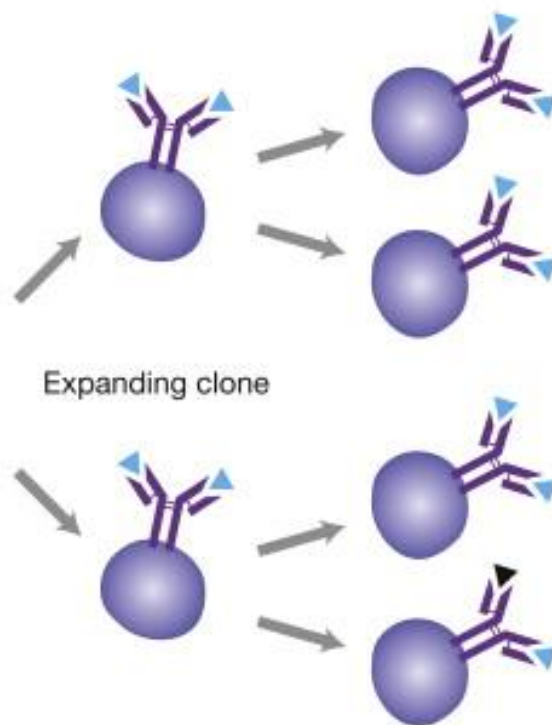


CLONAL SELECTION



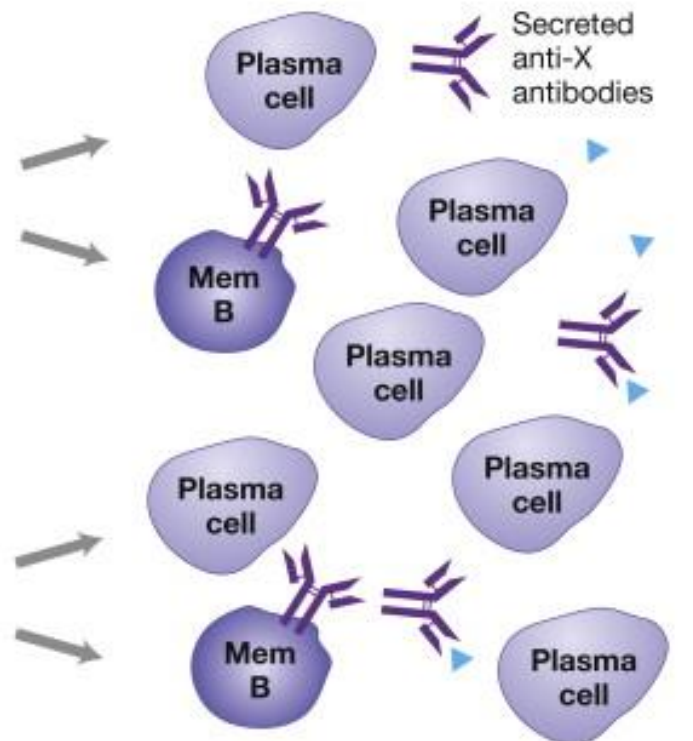
Circulating B lymphocyte pool

CLONAL EXPANSION



Daughter cells

DIFFERENTIATION



Memory and effector cells specific for antigen X

B cells that
differ in
antigen
specificity

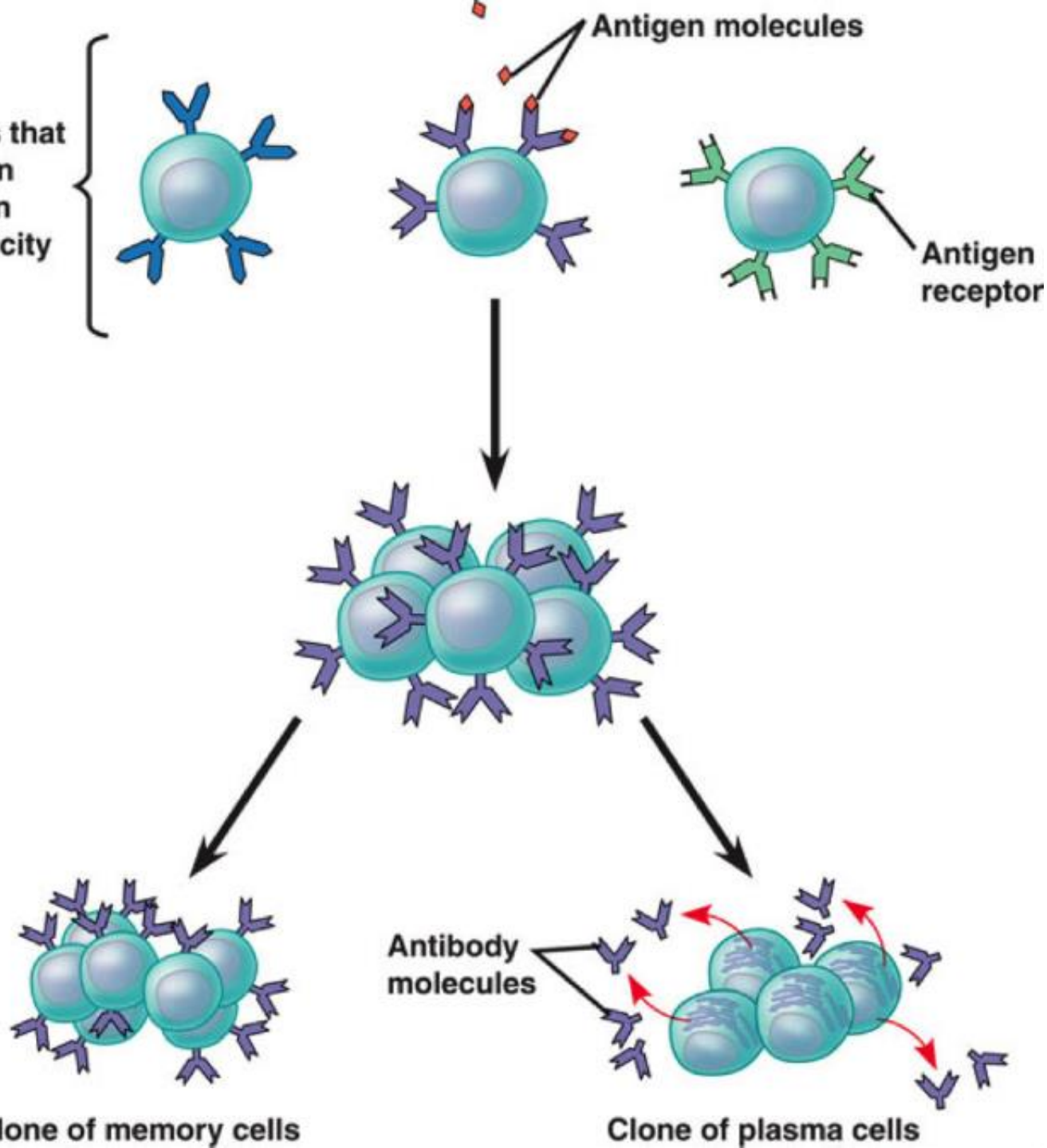
Antigen molecules

Antigen
receptor

Antibody
molecules

Clone of memory cells

Clone of plasma cells

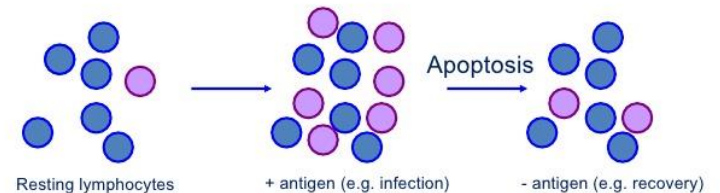


Apoptosis

- After the infection is cleared, the stimulation that leads to lymphocyte activation ends
- As a result, most of the cells activated by antigens are eliminated by apoptosis.
- Dead cells are cleared by phagocytes before they initiate a harmful reaction

Apoptosis: importance in adults

Tissue remodeling (eliminates cells no longer needed):





LYMPHOID ORGANS

Primary lymphoid organs:

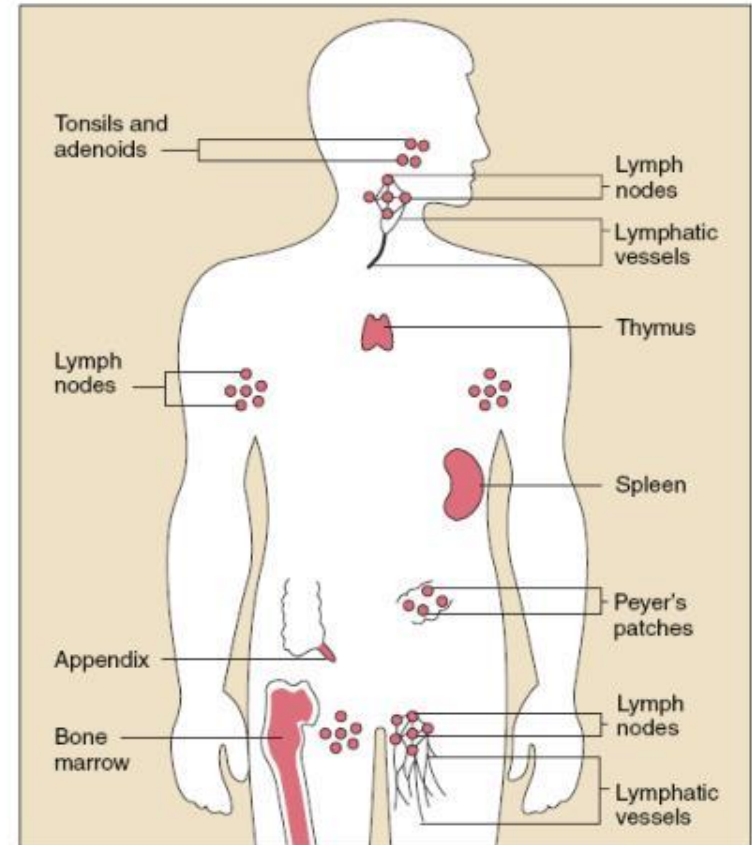
- Bone marrow
- Thymus

the cells of the immune system originate in and mature here

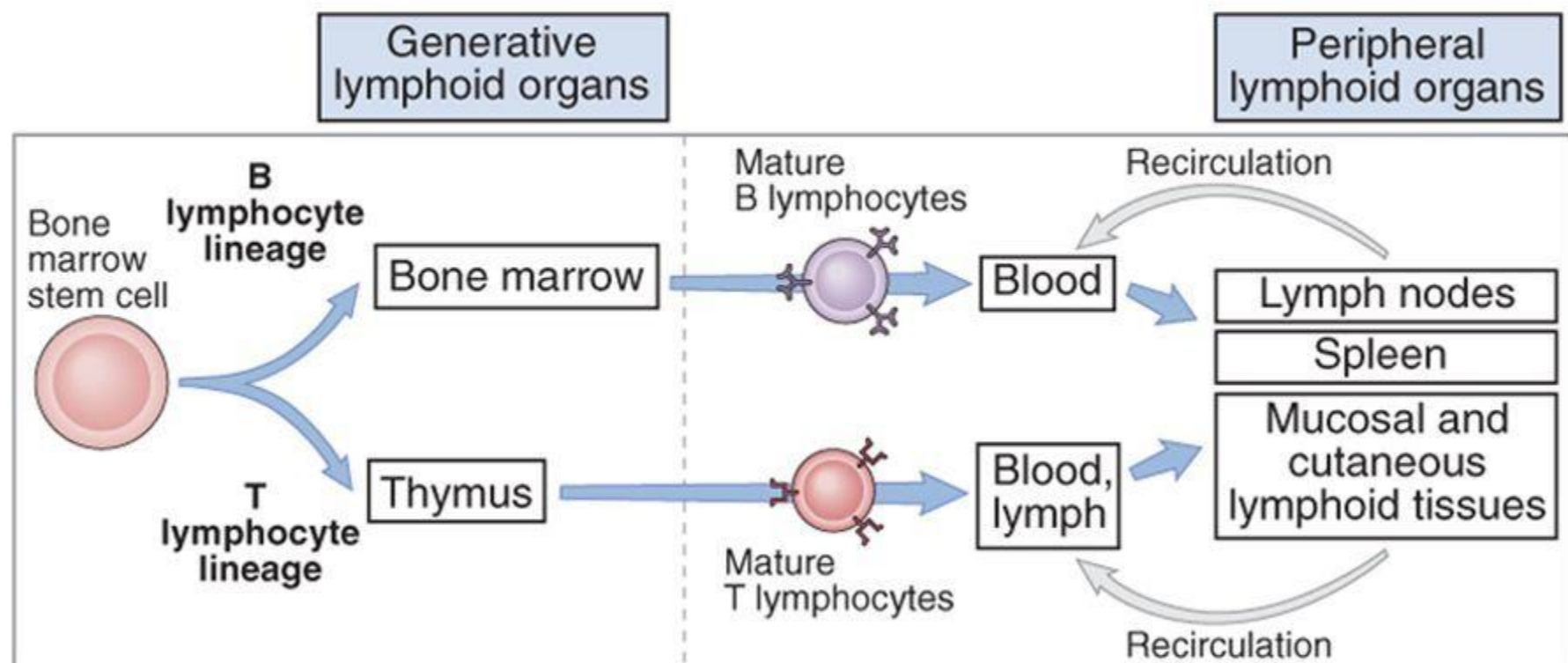
Secondary lymphoid organs:

- Spleen
- Lymphatic vessels
- Lymph nodes
- Adenoids and tonsils
- MALT (Mucosal Associated Lymphoid Tissue)
 - GALT (Gut Associated Lymphoid Tissue)
 - BALT (Bronchus Associated Lymphoid Tissue)
 - SALT (Skin Associated Lymphoid Tissue)
 - NALT (Nasal Associated Lymphoid Tissue)

not for cell development. (final differentiation, activation may be performed) The cells of the adaptive immune system recognize here the pathogens



Lymphocyte maturation



Primary lymphoid organs:

1- Thymus:

- T Lymphocytes develop within this lymphoid organ.

- Function:** The clonal selection of T lymphocytes.

(Lymphocyte educational Center)

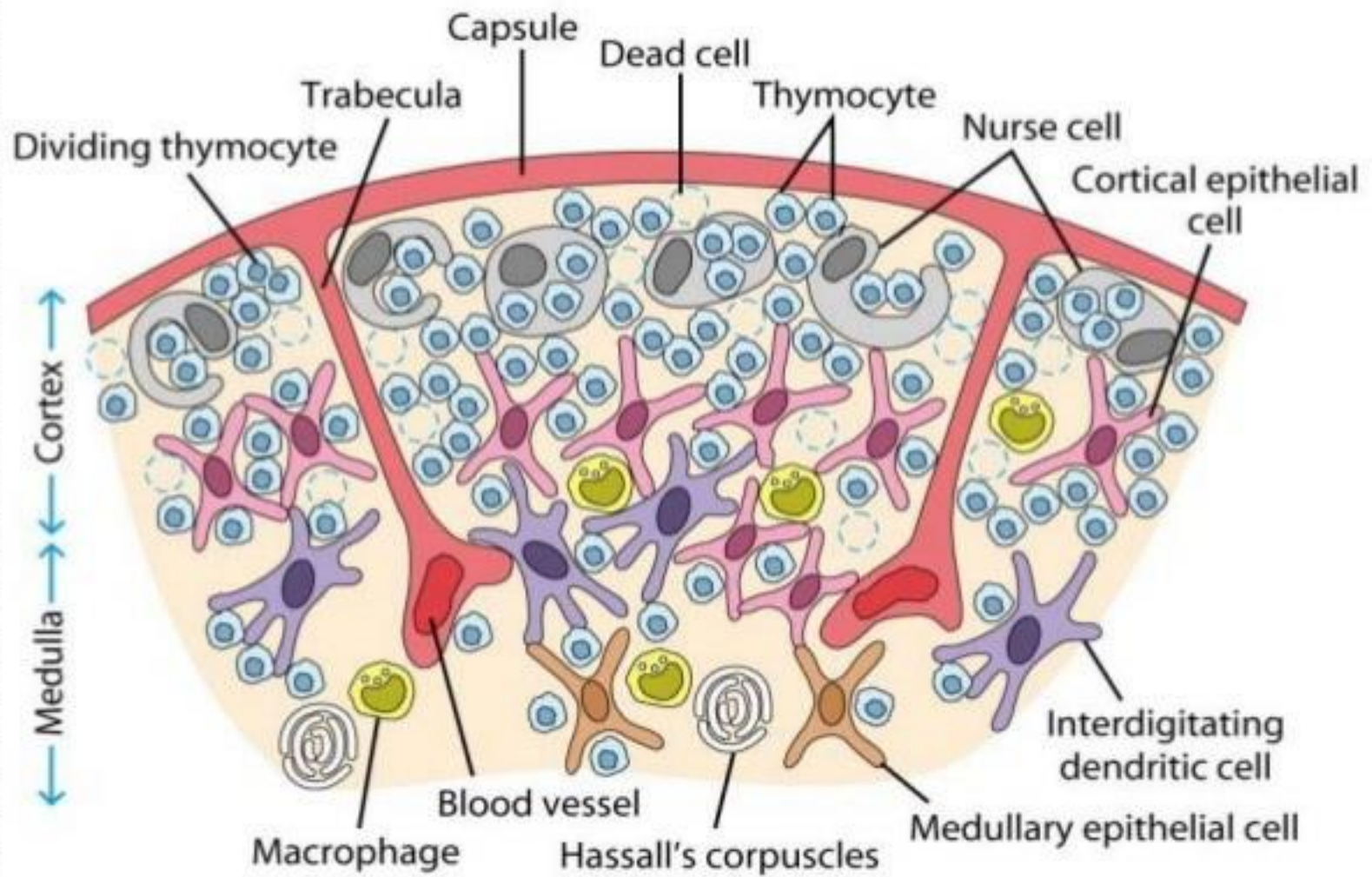
- It increases in size during fetal and neonatal life.

- It is progressively inactivated (curved spirally) following puberty.

- Two important parts:

 - 1-Thymic Cortex.

 - 2-Thymic Medulla.



2-Bone marrow:

-B lymphocytes are “home schooled” within this organs.

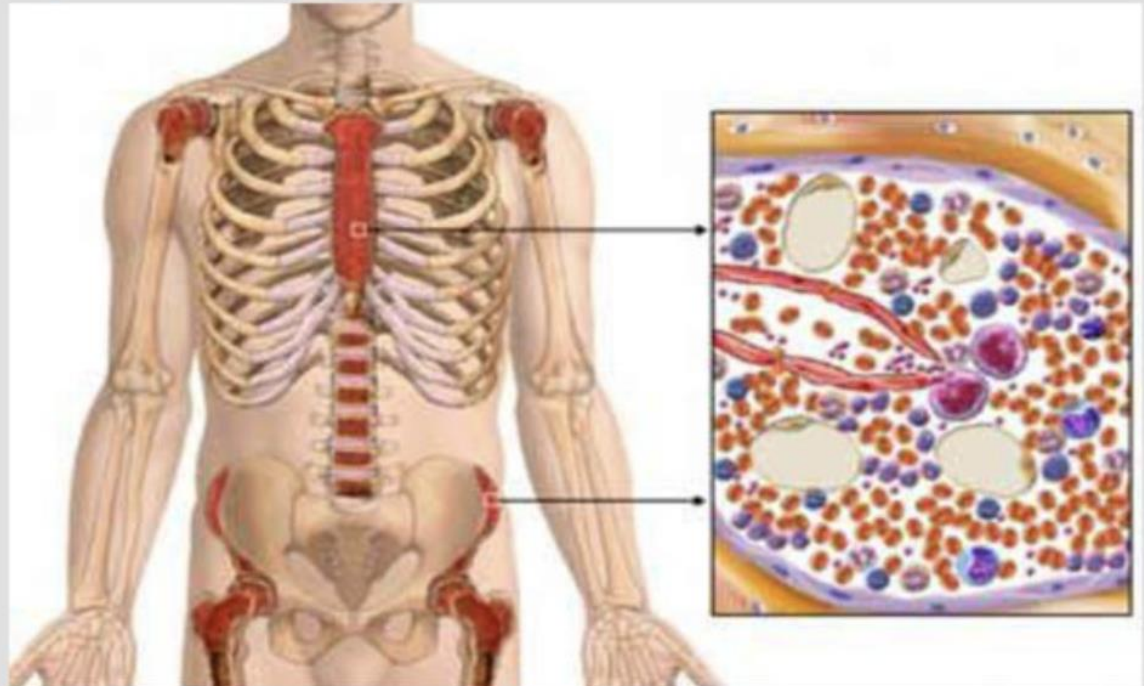
-Function:

Primary **differentiation** of **B** lymphocytes.

B lymphocytes begin to display **IgM** on their surfaces.

-The **primary site** for **cytokines-Immune cell interactions**.

-Bone marrow
removes the **B cells**
that show **self-reactivity** by
apoptosis.



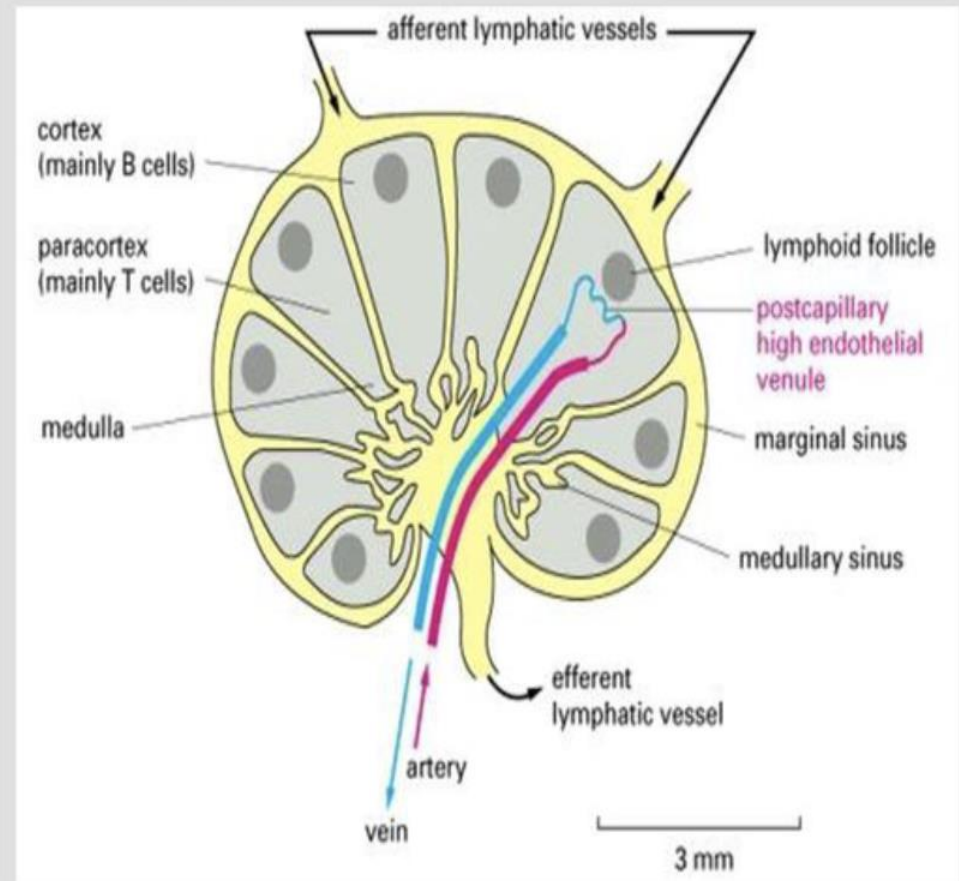
Secondary Lymphoid Organs:

1-Lymph nodes:

- It acts as filters to purify lymph.
- Divided into the cortex and medulla.

-The **superficial cortex** contains lymphocyte-rich **nodules (follicles)** (mainly B cells).

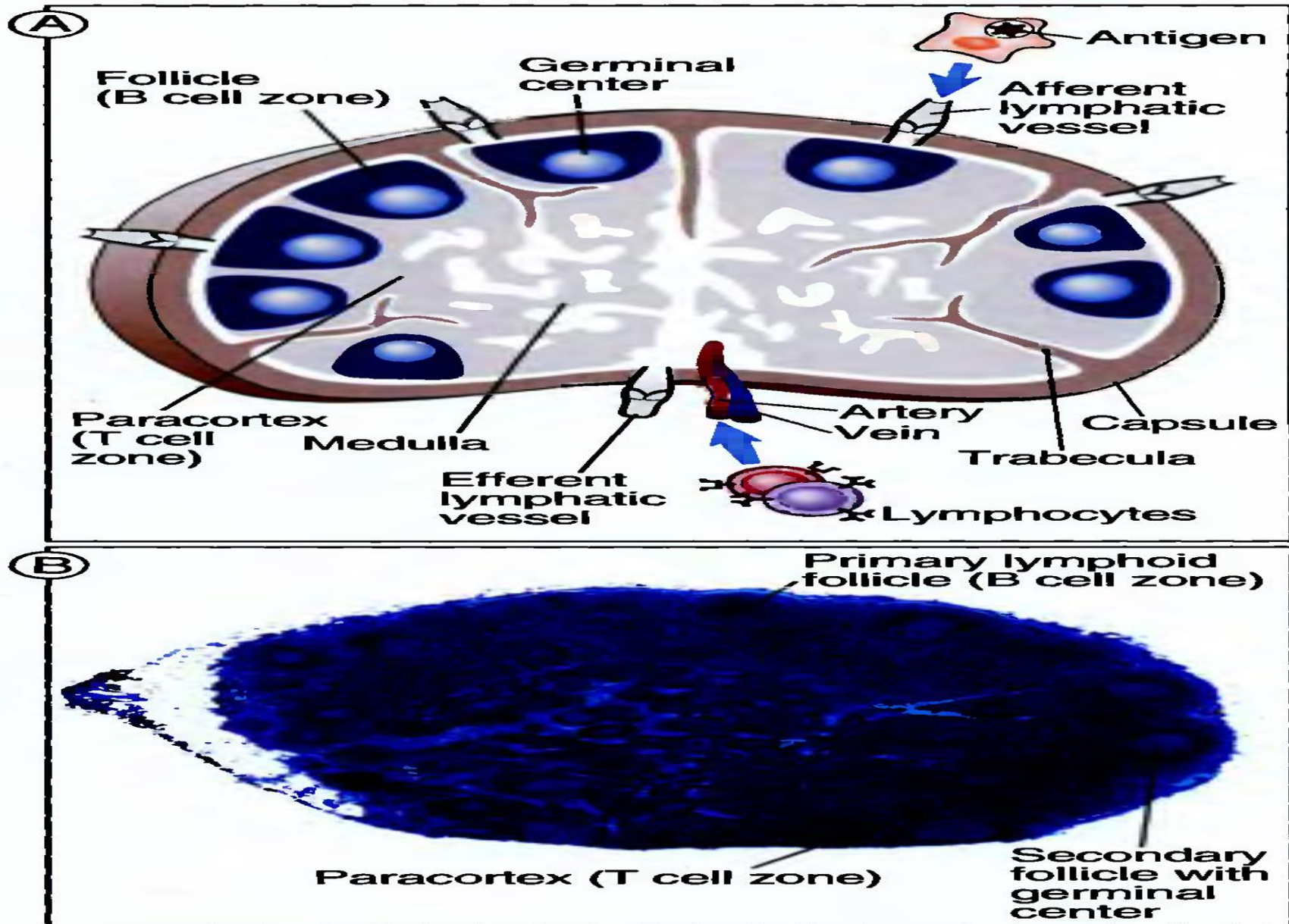
-The **deep cortex** is the T-cell-rich area.



Lymph nodes

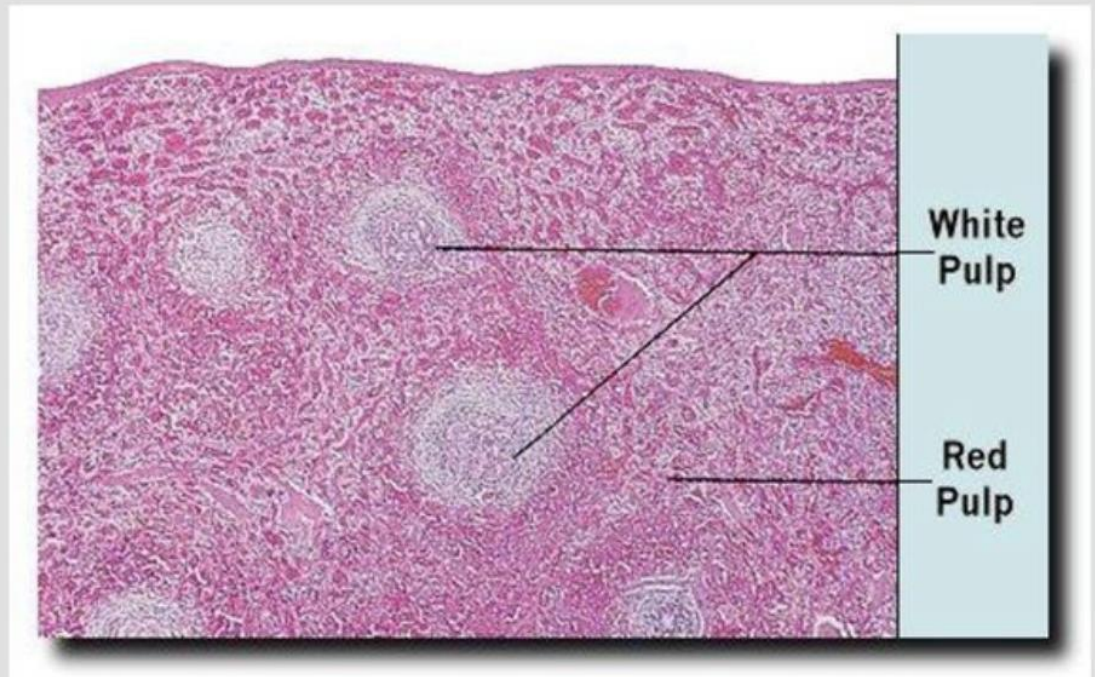
- Lymph nodes are nodular structures that are formed by the gathering of lymphoid tissues located around lymphatic ducts that spread throughout the body.
- Fluids from all epithelium, connective tissue and most parenchymal organs are drained by lymphatics.
- This fluid that is drained from the tissues to the lymph node is called lymph.

Lymph node morphology

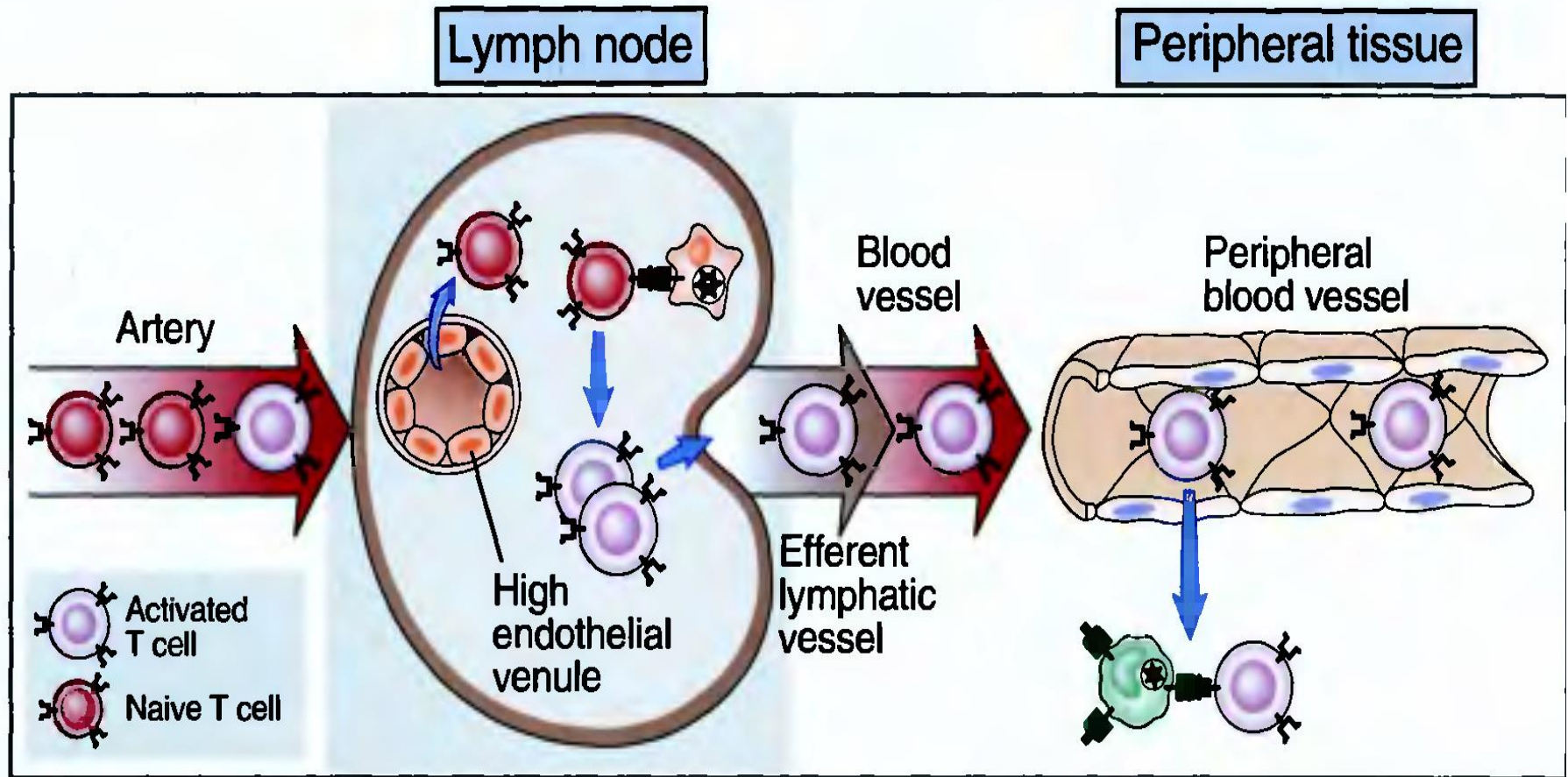


2-The Spleen:

- The largest lymphoid organ.
- Concentrates blood-borne antigens and microbes.
- Contains T cells, B cells, and Large numbers of **plasma** cells (secreting immunoglobulins into the circulation).
- Divided into:**
 - 1-Lymphocyte-rich **white pulp**.
 - 2-Erythrocyte-rich **red pulp** (also contains **macrophages**).



Circulation of T lymphocytes



- Blood is mostly associated with T lymphocytes, as effector T cells locate and destroy the microbe at any infection site.
- In contrast, B lymphocytes remain in lymphoid organs and do not need to migrate to the site of infection.
- Instead, B lymphocytes produce antibodies and these antibodies enter the bloodstream to find microbes and microbial toxins in the circulation or in distant areas