Definitions & Basic Concepts

- Immunology: The study of the immune system
- and host defense mechanisms against infection. Immunity: Resistance to infectious diseases.
- Immune System: A collection of tissues, cells, and molecules that provide resistance to infections.
- Immune Response: The body's coordinated reaction to foreign invaders. Historical Perspective: Immunity observed since the Athens plague (430 BC), where

Types of Individuals in Immunity

Immune Individual: Has encountered a microbe, responded actively, and developed resistance.

recovered individuals resisted reinfection.

Naïve Individual: Has not been exposed to microbe.

Defense: Protects against infections.

Functions of the Immune System

- Homeostasis: Maintains immune balance. Surveillance: Identifies and removes abnormal

Hyperfunction: Causes allergies and autoimmune

Immune System Dysfunctions

- Hypofunction: Leads to immunodeficiency and increased susceptibility to infections.
- Organs of the Immune System

Primary (Central) Lymphoid Organs: Bone Marrow: Produces blood cells, including B and

T lymphocytes. Thymus: Matures T cells.

Secondary (Peripheral) Lymphoid Organs:

Lymph nodes, spleen, mucosal-associated lymphoid tissues (MALTs), gut-associated lymphoid tissues (GALTs)

Cells of the Immune System

- 1. Specific Immunity (Adaptive Immunity): B cells: Produce antibodies.
- T cells: Recognize and remove infected cells.
- 2. Non-Specific Immunity (Innate Immunity):

basophils (allergy response), and eosinophils

Natural Killer Cells (NK cells): Attack virus-infected and cancer cells. Granulocytes: Includes neutrophils (phagocytes),

(parasite response). Monocytes/Macrophages: Engulf pathogens and aid in immune response.

Dendritic Cells: Present antigens to activate T cells.

Secretory Products of Immune Cells

- Non-Specific Immunity: Cytokines, CRP, hydrogen peroxide, complement proteins, allergic mediators, etc.
- Specific Immunity: Lymphokines (e.g., IL-2, IL-4) and antibodies.

Types of Immunity

- 1. Innate Immunity: First-line defense, immediate response 2. Adaptive Immunity: Develops over time and
- provides long-lasting protection. **Features of Adaptive Immunity**

- Self-Recognition: Distinguishes between self and Specificity: Recognizes and targets specific
- pathogens. Diversity: Can recognize millions of antigens. Memory: Remembers past infections for a faster
- secondary response. Self-Elimination: Immune response declines after

Phases of Immune Response

antigen removal.

- **Activation of Lymphocytes**
- **Elimination of Antigen (Effector Phase)**

Recognition of Antigen

- Memory Formation

Characteristics:

- specific, no memory. Destroys most microbes within minutes or hours.
- Recognizes shared microbial structures via

Present before exposure to microbes, non-

Pattern Recognition Receptors (PRRs), like Toll-like receptors (TLRs).

• Components: o First Line of Defense:

- Physical barriers: Skin, mucus membranes, nasal hairs, coughing/sneezing reflex, blinking, tears.
- Chemical barriers: Acidic secretions, stomach HCl, lysozyme in saliva/tears, vaginal acidity.
- Biological barriers: Normal flora that compete with pathogens.

Second Line of Defense:

Cells:

- Neutrophils: Phagocytosis and inflammation. Macrophages: Phagocytosis and antigen
- Natural Killer (NK) cells: Destroy virus-infected and tumor cells via perforin and granzyme.
- Eosinophils: Combat parasites and inflammation. ♣ Basophils/Mast cells: Involved in allergic
- responses.

Acute phase proteins (C-reactive protein, fibrin).

Soluble Factors:

- Complement system (enhances pathogen
- destruction). Cytokines (TNF-a, IL-1, IL-6, IFNs).
- **Inflammatory Response:**
- √ Triggered by tissue damage/pathogens.
- Chemical mediators (histamine, cytokines) cause vasodilation, fluid influx, and phagocyte migration.

3. Phagocytosis (Microbe Engulfment and **Destruction**)

Chemotaxis: Attraction of phagocytes via

- IL-8 and C5a.
- Adherence: Phagocyte binds pathogen via receptors (TLRs, mannose receptors).
- Ingestion: Phagocyte engulfs pathogen, forming a phagosome. **Digestion:** Phagosome merges with
- lysosome, destroying the microbe via oxygen-dependent and independent mechanisms.

4. Antigen Presentation (Link to Adaptive Immunity) Antigen-Presenting Cells (APCs): Dendritic

cells, macrophages, and B cells. Major Histocompatibility Complex (MHC) Pathways:

(endogenous) antigens to CD8+T cells. MHC Class II: Presents extracellular (exogenous) antigens to CD4+ T cells.

MHC Class I: Presents intracellular

Humoral Immune

Activation of B Cells & Antibody Production

T-Dependent Antigens (proteins) require

(polysaccharides, lipids) activate B cells

- T-helper (TH) cells for B-cell activation. T-Independent Antigens
- directly. **B Cell Activation Steps:**
- **Recognition:** Naive B cells encounter antigens and bind via IgM-IgD receptors.
- **Antigen Processing & Presentation: B** cells present the antigen on MHC-II to TH cells.
- Co-stimulation: B7-CD28 and CD40-CD40L interactions occur between B and TH cells. Cytokine Release & Differentiation: TH

cells secrete IL-4, IL-5, IL-6, IL-13, TNF-β,

secondary response upon re-exposure.

- promoting B cell proliferation and **class** switching from IgM to IgG, IgA, or IgE. Memory B Cells Formation: Some B cells become memory cells, ensuring a rapid
- Structure of Antibodies (Immunoglobulins, lg)
- light chains linked by disulfide bonds. Fab region: Contains antigen-binding sites (variable regions VH & VL).

✓ Consist of two heavy chains and two

(e.g., IgG crosses the placenta). Hypervariable Regions: Form paratope,

which binds to the antigen's epitope

Fc region: Determines antibody function

Types of Immunoglobulins (Isotypes)

✓ Most abundant (75%), long half-life

Types of Immunity and Vaccines

Active: From infection or vaccine.

Specific (Acquired) Immunity: Protects against specific

A vaccine is a biological preparation provides active,

Short-term (e.g., cholera vaccine, lasting ~6 months).

Pathogen is inactivated via heat, chemicals, or UV (e.g., Salk

Cons: Requires boosters, only induces humoral immunity,

Pathogen is grown under conditions that reduce virulence

Pros: Stronger immune response, requires fewer doses,

Cons: Risk of reversion to virulent form, unsafe for

Contain purified antigens instead of whole organisms.

Pros: Safe for immunosuppressed individuals, fewer side

Cons: May not induce strong immunity; requires adjuvants

Weak antigens combined with strong carriers to enhance

Toxoid Vaccines Made from inactivated bacterial toxins (e.g.,

Peptide Vaccines Synthetic peptides that stimulate immunity

Uses harmless viruses to deliver genetic material of pathogen

1. Immunity Overview

Modes of Acquisition:

Duration of Immunity:

3. Types of Vaccines

polio, cholera).

Natural: Mother or infection.

Artificial: Antiserum or vaccine.

Long-term (e.g., MMR vaccine).

Inactivated (Killed) Vaccines

Pros: Safe, stimulates immunity.

Attenuated (Weakened) Vaccines

(e.g., Sabin polio, MMR).

Subunit Vaccines

(e.g., aluminum salts).

Conjugate Vaccines

tetanus, diphtheria).

with minimal side effects.

Pros: Cheaper than subunit vaccines.

Viral Vector Vaccines

effects.

induces mucosal immunity.

immunosuppressed individuals.

2. Vaccines and Protective Immunity

acquired specific immunity to a disease.

- (23 days). pathogens. ✓ Involved in secondary immune Types of Acquired Immunity: response, opsonization, ADCC, and Passive: From mother or antiserum.
- complement activation. Crosses the **placenta**, providing neonatal immunity.
 - 2. IgA
 - (saliva, tears, milk). ✓ Provides local immunity by preventing microbial adherence.

Found in mucosal secretions

First antibody produced in primary response. Exists as a **pentamer**, strong in

Functions of Antibodies

activation.

prevent spread. Neutralization: Blocks toxins and viruses from binding to cells.

* Agglutination: Clumps microbes to

agglutination and complement

- Opsonization: Enhances phagocytosis. **Complement Activation:** Triggers
- lysis of pathogens. Antibody-Dependent Cellular Cytotoxicity (ADCC): Kills antibodycoated tumor or virus-infected cells
- neutrophils. Differences Between T-Dependent & T-

Antigen Type

Antibody

Classes

Produced

Memory B

Cells

Independent Responses Feature T-Independent

via NK cells, macrophages, and

Dependent immune response. Used for Haemophilus influenzae B (HiB), Streptococcus pneumoniae, Neisseria meningitidis.

TH Cell Required Not required Involvement

Proteins

IgG, IgA,

IgE, IgM

Yes

Polysaccharide

Lipids

IgM only

No

Examples: AstraZeneca, Johnson & Johnson COVID-19 vaccines.

Recombinant Vaccines Uses recombinant DNA technology (e.g., Hepatitis B vaccine).

Pros: Safe and eliminates harmful antigens.

Cons: High production cost.

response.

Pros: Safe, induces both humoral and cellular immunity.

DNA Vaccines Injects DNA encoding the antigen to stimulate immune

Rickettsiae

- Classification: Although classified as bacteria, they share viral traits as obligate intracellular parasites, requiring host cells to survive.
- Characteristics:
- Visible under a light microscope when stained with Giemsa or Macchiavello stain.
- Have **DNA and RNA**, replicate **by binary fission**.
- ✓ Their cell wall resembles Gram-negative rods but stains poorly.
- ✓ Sensitive to chloramphenicol and tetracycline.
- ✓ Best isolated in yolk sac of embryonated eggs, mice, or guinea pigs.
- Groups, Diseases, and Vectors:

Group	Organism	Disease	Reservoir	Vector	Proteus Antigen
Typhus	R. prowazekii	Epidemic typhus (worldwide)	Humans	Body louse	OX19
	R. typhi	Endemic typhus (worldwide)	Rats	Rat flea	OX19
Spotted Fever	R. rickettsii	Rocky Mountain Spotted Fever	Dogs & Rodents	Tick	OX19, OX2
	R. akari	Rickettsial pox (USA)	Mice	Mite	
Orienta	O. tsutsugamushi	Scrub typhus (Japan, Asia)	Rodents	Mite	OXK

Transmission:

- ✓ Transmitted via arthropod vectors (e.g., ticks, lice, fleas).
- ✓ Infection occurs through bites or contaminated skin scratches.
- ✓ Most rickettsial diseases are zoonotic, except epidemic typhus, which occurs only in humans.

Pathogenesis:

- ✓ Causes vasculitis, damaging endothelial cells in small blood vessels.
- ✓ Leads to rash, edema, hemorrhage.
- ✓ Endotoxin may contribute to the disease.
- Clinical Findings & Epidemiology:
- o Epidemic Typhus (R. prowazekii):
- ✓ Associated with wars, poverty, unsanitary conditions.
- ✓ Found in Africa and South America.
- ✓ Symptoms: Fever, chills, headache, rash (spares face, palms, soles).
- ✓ Complications: Myocarditis, delirium, death if untreated.
- ✓ Brill-Zinsser Disease: Latent R. prowazekii infection that reactivates under immunosuppression.
- Endemic Typhus (R. typhi):
 - ✓ Milder form of epidemic typhus with low mortality.
 - ✓ Reservoir: Rats, transmitted by fleas.
- Diagnosis:
- ❖ Serologic Tests:

Indirect immunofluorescence, Complement fixation, Weil-Felix test (cross-reacts with **Proteus OX-19, OX-2, OX-K**).

- ❖ PCR on blood/skin biopsy.
- solation via yolk sac inoculation in embryonated eggs, guinea pigs, or tissue culture.
- Control & Treatment:
 - Vector control to stop transmission.
 - > Prophylaxis with tetracycline/chloramphenicol in epidemics.
 - Vaccines:
 - Killed vaccine (Cox vaccine): 3 doses subcutaneously. Live attenuated vaccine (R. prowazekii strain E).
 - > Treatment: Tetracycline or chloramphenicol.

Coxiella burnetii (Q Fever)

Differences from Rickettsia

- illerences ironi nickettsi
- Forms a spore-like resistant stage.
- Causes no rash.
- Not transmitted by arthropod bites.
- Exists in two phases:
 - Phase I: Virulent, isolated from patients.
- Phase II: Non-virulent, obtained after repeated culture passages.
 Grows in cytoplasmic vacuoles instead of free cytoplasm.
- Q Fever:
- Zoonotic disease; reservoirs include cattle, sheep, camels, birds, and ticks.
- <u>Transmission</u>:

Airborne (main route): Inhalation of infected animal aerosols (placenta, feces, urine).

- Ingestion: Drinking infected milk.
- Acute vs. Chronic Q Fever:

Feature	Acute Q Fever	Chronic Q Fever
Duration	< 6 months	> 6 months
Symptoms	Atypical pneumonia, hepatitis	Endocarditis, prolonged fever
Risk Factors	None	Immunocompromised, pregnant, heart valve defects
Serology	Phase II antibody	Phase I antibody

Diagnosis:

Treatment

Serology (IFA test preferred) – detects phase I and II antibodies.

Tetracycline (months) +

combination therapy

4 IgG anti-phase II > 200 → Acute Q fever.

Tetracycline (few

days)

- **♣** Anti-phase I antibodies → Chronic Q fever.
- Fluorescent antibody stain for detection.

Prevention & Treatment:

- **Doxycycline** is the treatment of choice.
- **Vaccine** for high-risk workers (e.g., veterinarians, farmers).

 ✓
- Pasteurization of milk to prevent transmission.

Herpes Viruses

- ❖ A family of viruses that cause lifelong latent infections with periodic reactivation.
- Can be treated with antiviral drugs.
- Classified into three groups:
 - Alpha herpesviruses (Neurotropic viruses): HSV-1, HSV-2, Varicella-Zoster virus (VZV).
 - Beta herpesviruses (Salivary gland inclusion viruses): Cytomegalovirus (CMV), HHV-6, HHV-7.
 - Gamma herpesviruses (Lymphotropic viruses): Epstein-Barr virus (EBV), HHV-8

General Characteristics:

- Large, enveloped, double-stranded DNA viruses with a cubical capsid.
- Replicate in the nucleus, with an envelope derived from the nuclear membrane.
- Sensitive to heat and produce intranuclear inclusion bodies.

Epstein-Barr Virus (EBV)

Causes infectious mononucleosis (glandular fever), usually asymptomatic in early infections.

- Transmission: Through infected saliva (also called the "kissing disease").
- Pathogenesis:
- Infects the oropharynx and spreads to the blood, infecting B lymphocytes.
 Cytotoxic T lymphocytes attack infected B cells forming atypical
- Cytotoxic T lymphocytes attack infected B cells, forming atypical lymphocytes in blood smears.
- Remains latent in B lymphocytes.
- Diagnosis:
- Hematology: Leukocytosis with atypical lymphocytes.
- Serology:
 - Heterophil antibody tests (Monospot, Paul-Bunnel).
 - EBV-specific antibodies: VCA-IgM (acute infection), VCA-IgG (lifelong), EA, EBNA.
- Other Tests: Virus isolation (difficult), DNA hybridization (most sensitive).
- Associated Diseases:
- Burkitt lymphoma, Hodgkin's lymphoma, Nasopharyngeal carcinoma.
- Hairy leukoplakia in immunocompromised patients.

Parvovirus B19

- General Features:
 - o Small, non-enveloped, single-stranded DNA virus.
 - Targets erythroid precursor cells.
- Transmission:
 - Respiratory route, transplacental, and via blood transfusion.
- Diseases Caused:
- 1. **Erythema infectiosum (Fifth disease):** Characterized by a **slapped cheek rash**.
- 2. Transient aplastic crisis in sickle cell disease patients.
- 3. **Hydrops fetalis** in pregnant women, leading to fetal death.
 - Pathogenesis:
 - Infects erythroblasts in the bone marrow (causing anemia).
 - Infects endothelial cells, contributing to rashes.
 - Immune complexes also play a role in disease progression.
 - Diagnosis:
 - o PCR and hybridization for viral DNA.
 - o Detection of viral antigens.
 - Serology (IgM/IgG).
 - Note: The virus is difficult to culture.