The immune system

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Overview of the immune response

Pathogens (microorganisms and viruses)

More general

INNATE IMMUNITY 先天性免疫

 Recognition of traits shared by broad ranges of pathogens, using a small set of receptors

Rapid response

Barrier defenses: Skin Mucous membranes Secretions

Internal defenses: Phagocytic cells Antimicrobial proteins Inflammatory response Natural killer cells

ACQUIRED IMMUNITY 後天性免疫

 Recognition of traits specific to particular pathogens, using a vast array of receptors

Slower response

Humoral response: 體液性免疫反應 Antibodies defend against infection in body fluids.

細胞性免疫反應

Cell-mediated response: Cytotoxic lymphocytes defend against infection in body cells.

B cell and T cell

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Innate immunity of invertebrate



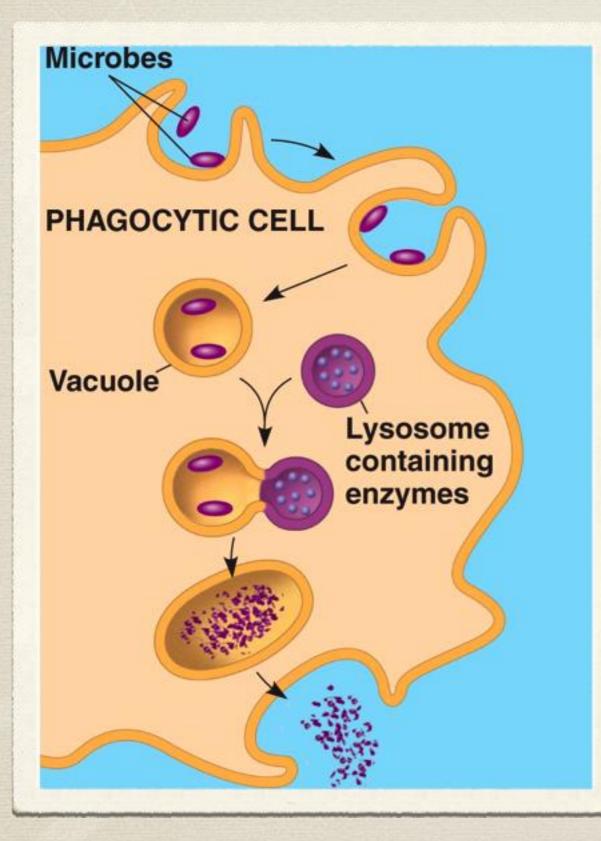
 Fruit flies are engineered to express the GFP The fly on top is injected with bacteria, whereas the fly on the bottom is not infected Only the infected fly activates antimicrobial peptide genes, which expresses GFP leading to glows of green fluorescent light

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Anti-microbial gene promoter



Phagocytosis 噬菌作用



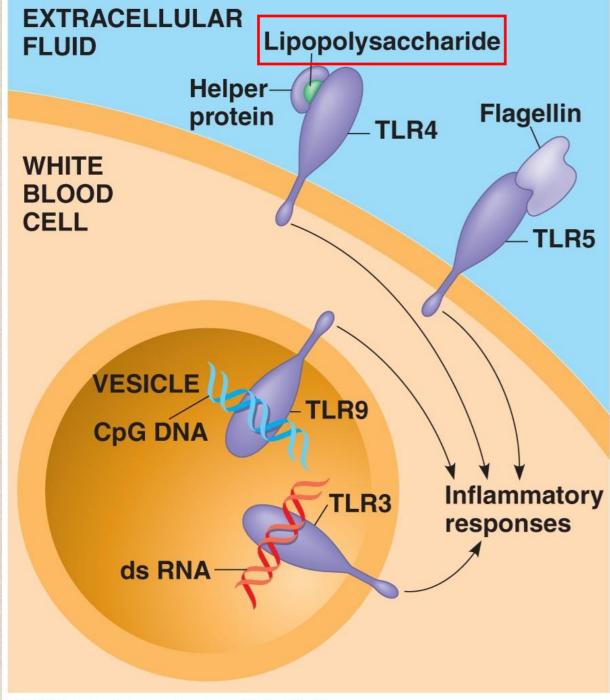
•Hemocytes (血球細胞) carried out an internal immune response called phagocytosis, which ingests and digests bacteria and other foreign substances

 Hemocytes also secret antimicrobial peptides that kill or inactivate microbes by disrupting their plasma membranes

Vertebrate innate immunity

- Barrier defense
 - skin (epithlial cells)
 - mucous membrane (produce mucus)
 - lysozme (溶菌酶) in syliva and tears
 - body secretion creates an acidic environments
- Phagocytosis (吞噬作用)
- Anti-microbial peptides (抗菌胜肽)
- Inflammatory response (發炎反應)
- Natural killer cells (自然殺手細胞)

Vertebrate innate immunity

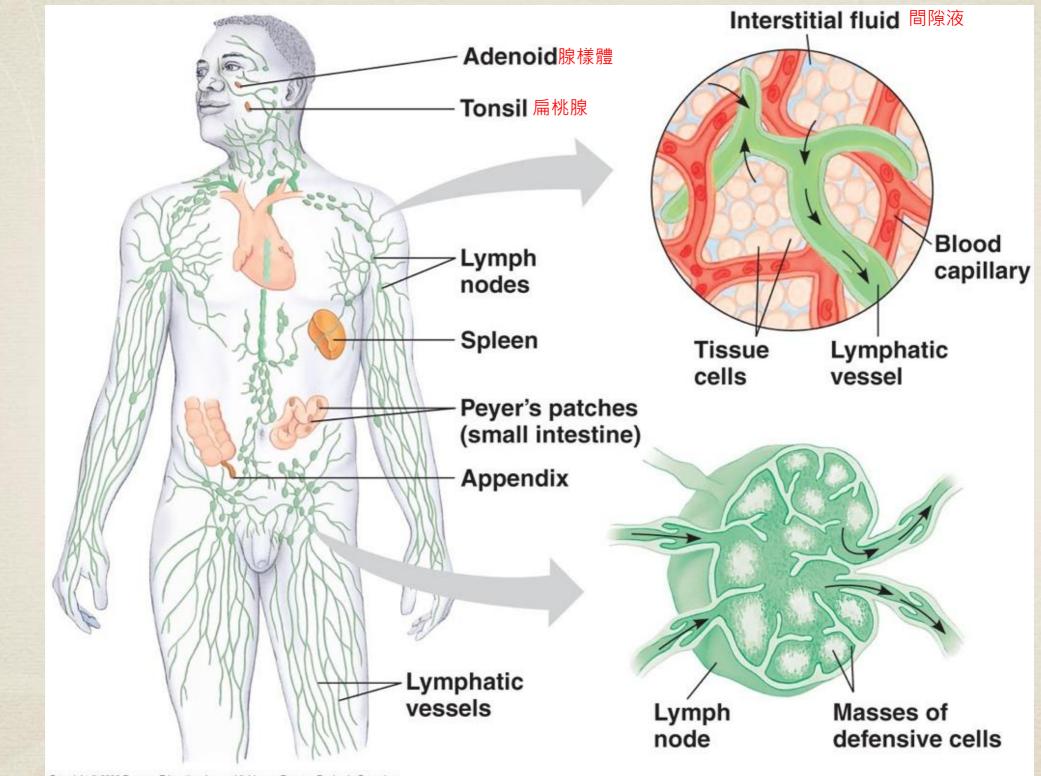


Phagocytic white blood cells (leukocytes) uses cell surface receptor (TLR) recognizes fragments of a particular set of pathogens
Recognition by a TLR triggers a series of internal defenses,

beginning with phagocytosis • Mammalian phagocytotic cells involve neutrophils (嗜中性白細胞) and macrophages (巨噬細胞)

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The human lymphatic system



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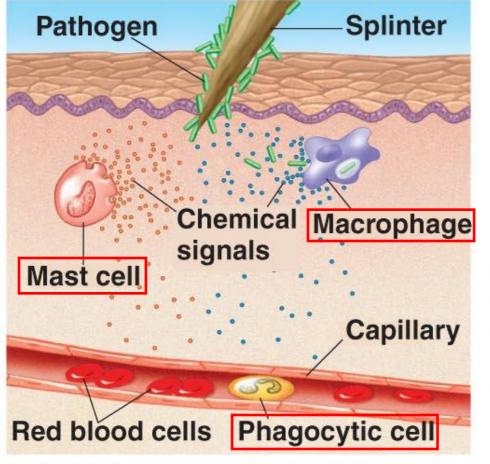
Antimicrobial peptides and proteins

• Complement proteins (補體蛋白) damage pathogens by disrupting membrane integrity

Interferons (干擾素) are unique to vertebrate immune system

- defense against viral infection
- secreted by virus-infected cells, which induce uninfected cells to produce substance to inhibit viral production
- Some leukocytes secrete a different type of interferon that activates macrophages
- mass-produced by recombinant
 DNA technology for treating certain viral infections

The inflammatory response



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Mast cells (肥大細胞) secrete inflammatory signal that triggers blood vesicle dilation

Increased vessel permeability allows phagocytic cells (噬菌細胞) to enter injured tissue and helps deliver antimicrobial peptides

Fluid

Formation Pus (膿) containing leukocyte, dead microbes and cell debris

Phagocytosis

Activated macrophages release additional signals that promote blood flow to site of injury, causing the redness and heat typical of inflammation
Fluid leak from blood into neighboring cells result in the characteristic swelling

Natural killer (NK) cells

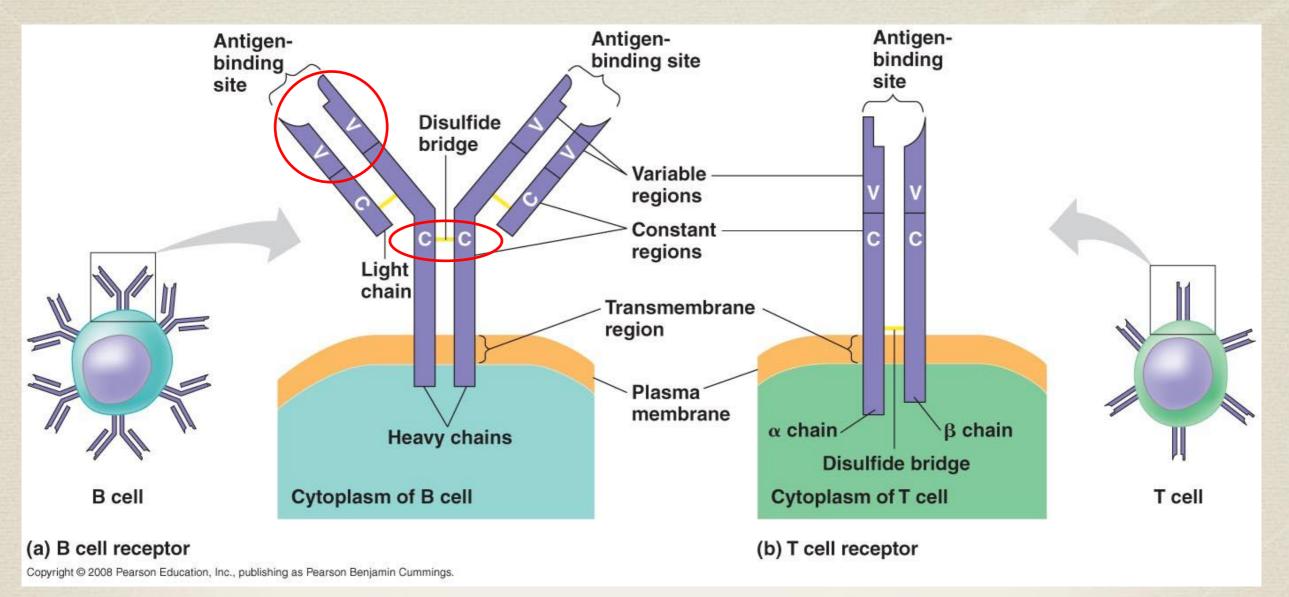
- NK cells recognise and eliminate certain diseased cells in vertebrates
- Following viral infection or conversion to a cancerous state, cells stop express surface protein called class I MHC molecule
- The NK cells recognize such cells and release chemical leading to cell death, inhibiting further spread of virus or cancer

Acquired immunity (後天性免疫)

Mediated by lymphocytes including B cells (matured in bone marrow) and T cells (matured in thymus 胸腺)
 Both types of cells contribute to immunological memory, an enhanced response to a foreign molecules encountered previously

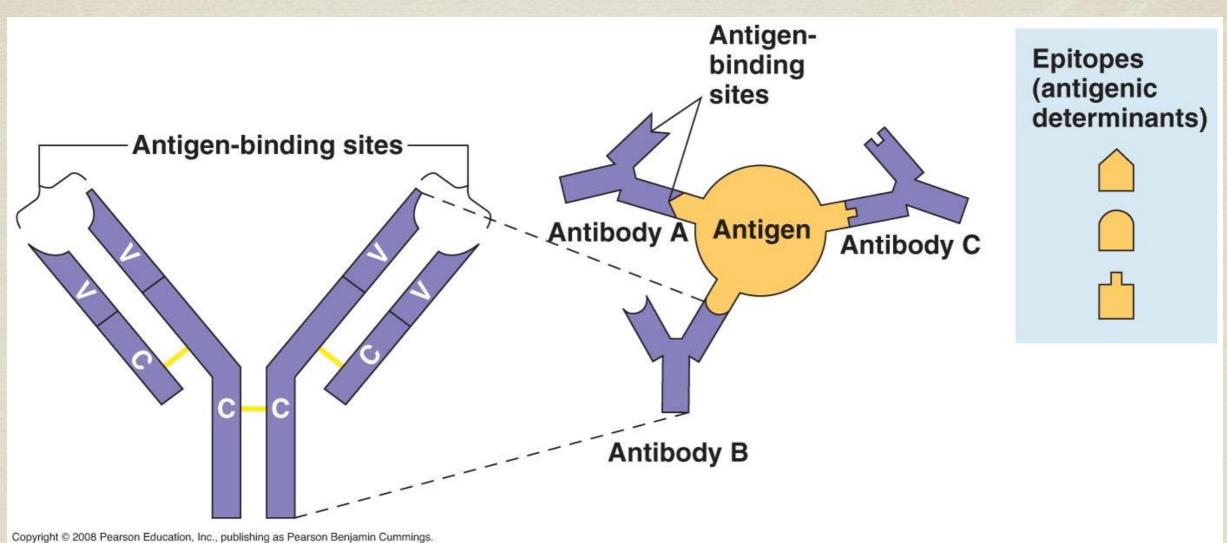
 After infection, signals from phagocytic cells carrying out innate immune response activates lymphocyte, setting stage for the slower-developing acquired immune response
 the phagocytic cells secrete cytokines (細胞激素) to help recruit and activate lymphocytes

Antigen receptors on lymphocytes



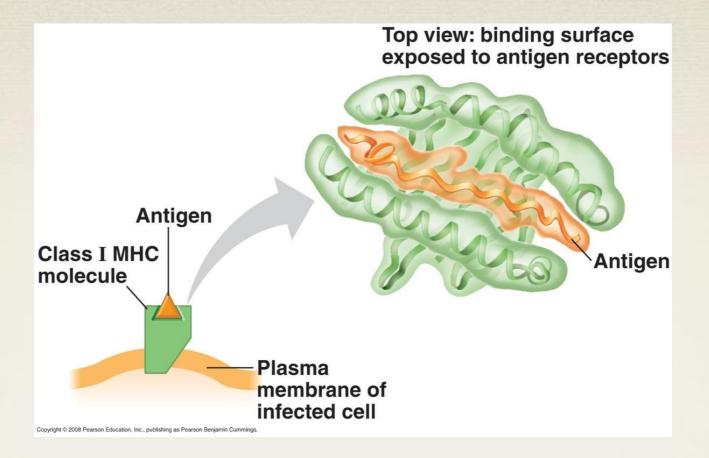
Each B and T cells has surface receptors, which can recognise and bind a particular foreign molecules (antigen)
There are millions of lymphocytes in the body that differ in their surface receptors

Antibody



B cells sometimes produce plasma cells that secrete a soluble form of the antigen receptor, called antibody
Antibodies recognise just a small accessible portion of an antigen, called epitope or antigenic determinant
A single antigen has several different epitopes

Antigen presentation by an MHC molecule

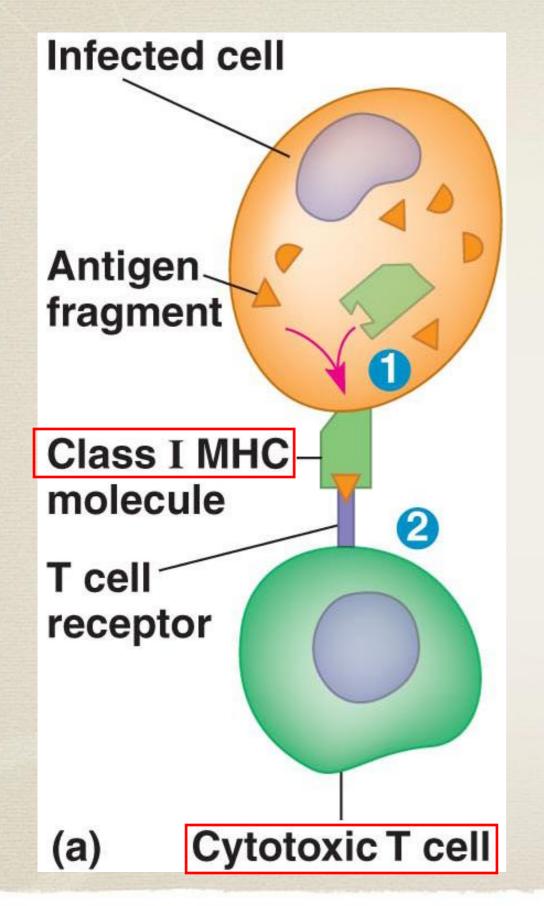


• T cells receptors only bind to antigen fragment that are presented on the surface of host cells

 Each of the gene in a group called major histocompatibility complex (MHC) produces a host cell protein that can present an antigen fragment to T cell receptors

• The interaction of an antigen fragment presented by an MHC molecule with a T cell receptor is a central event in acquired immunity

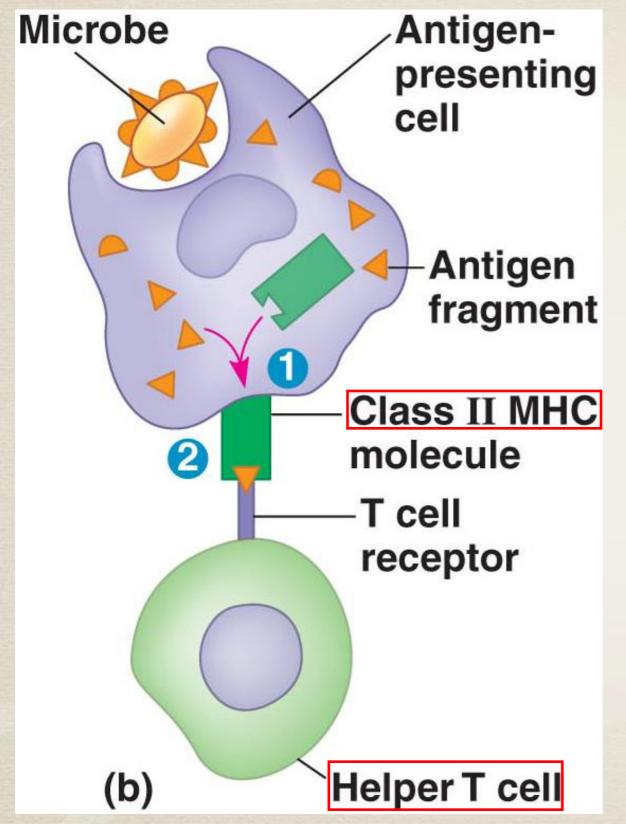
Class I MHC molecules



Class I MHC are found on almost all cell types
A fragment of foreign protein inside the cell associates with MHC is transported to the cell surface

 Class I MHC displaying bound peptide antigens are recognised by T cell receptor on cytotoxic T cells

Class II MHC molecules



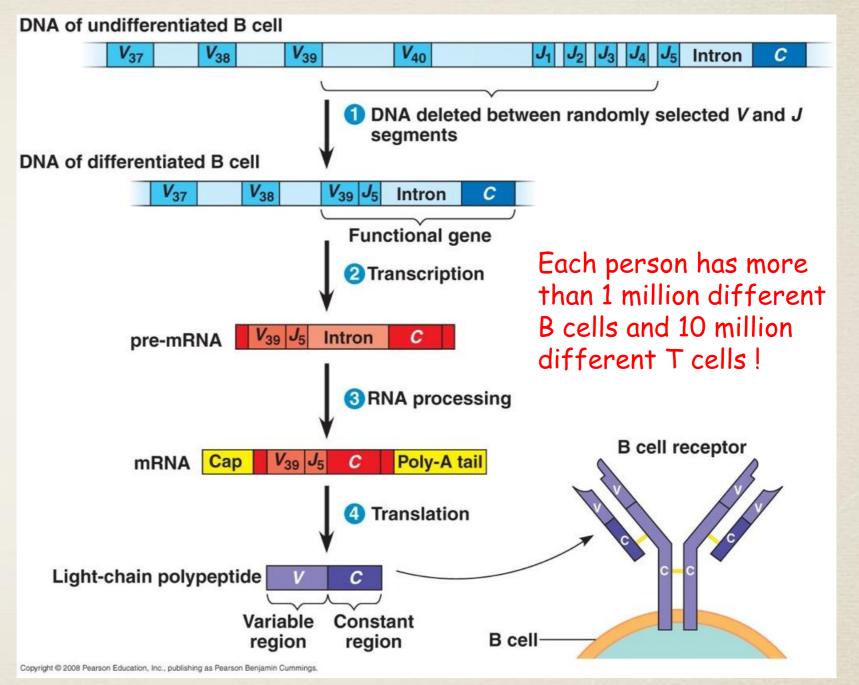
· Class II MHC are expressed in antigen-presenting cells, including dendritic cells (樹突細 胞), macrophages and B cells Class II MHC typically bind peptide derived from foreign materials that have been internalized and fragmented via phagocytosis or endocytosis The antigen-presenting cells

display antigen for recognition by cytotoxic and helper T cells

Generation of lymphocyte diversity

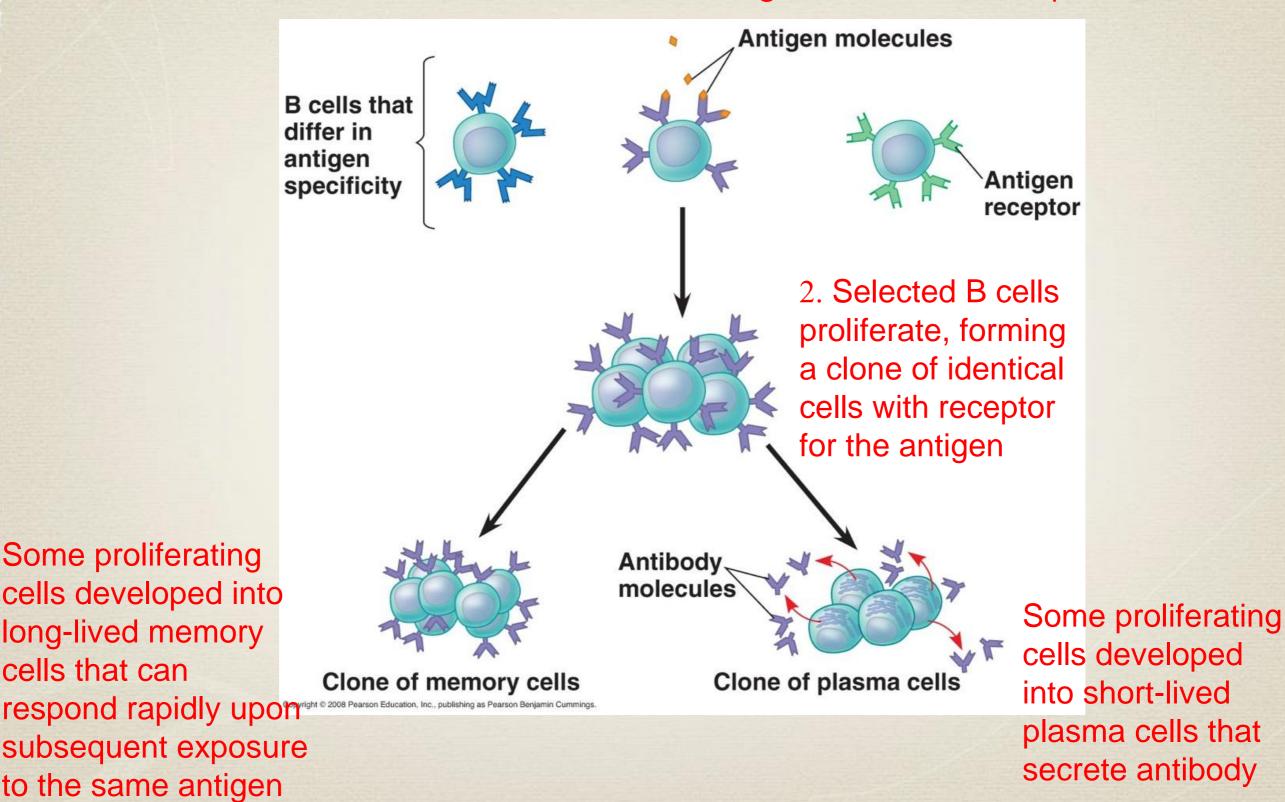
The light chain of a receptor is assembled from 3 pieces: variable (V), joining (J) and constant (C) segments

DNA sequence reveal that the light chain gene contains a single C segment, 5 J gene segments and 40 V gene segments, which could produce 200 different molecules

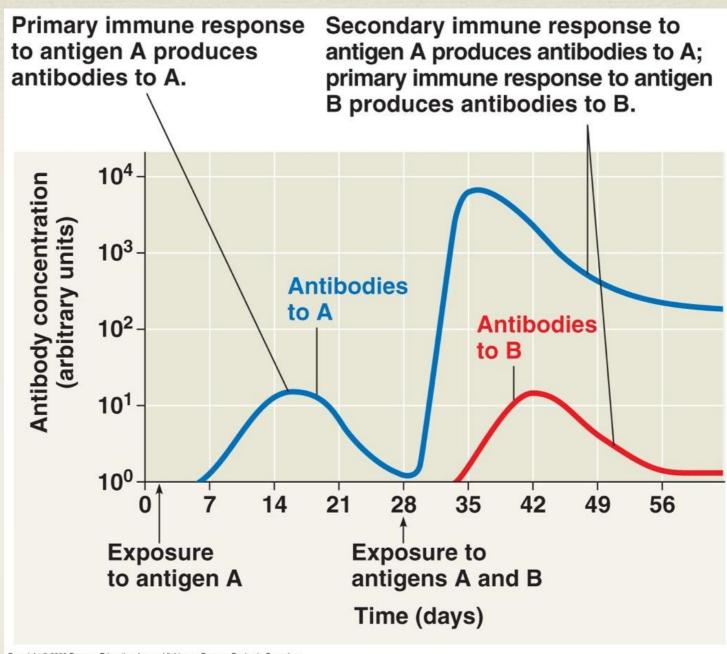


Amplifying lymphocytes by clonal selection

1. Antigen binds to the receptor



The specificity of immunological memory

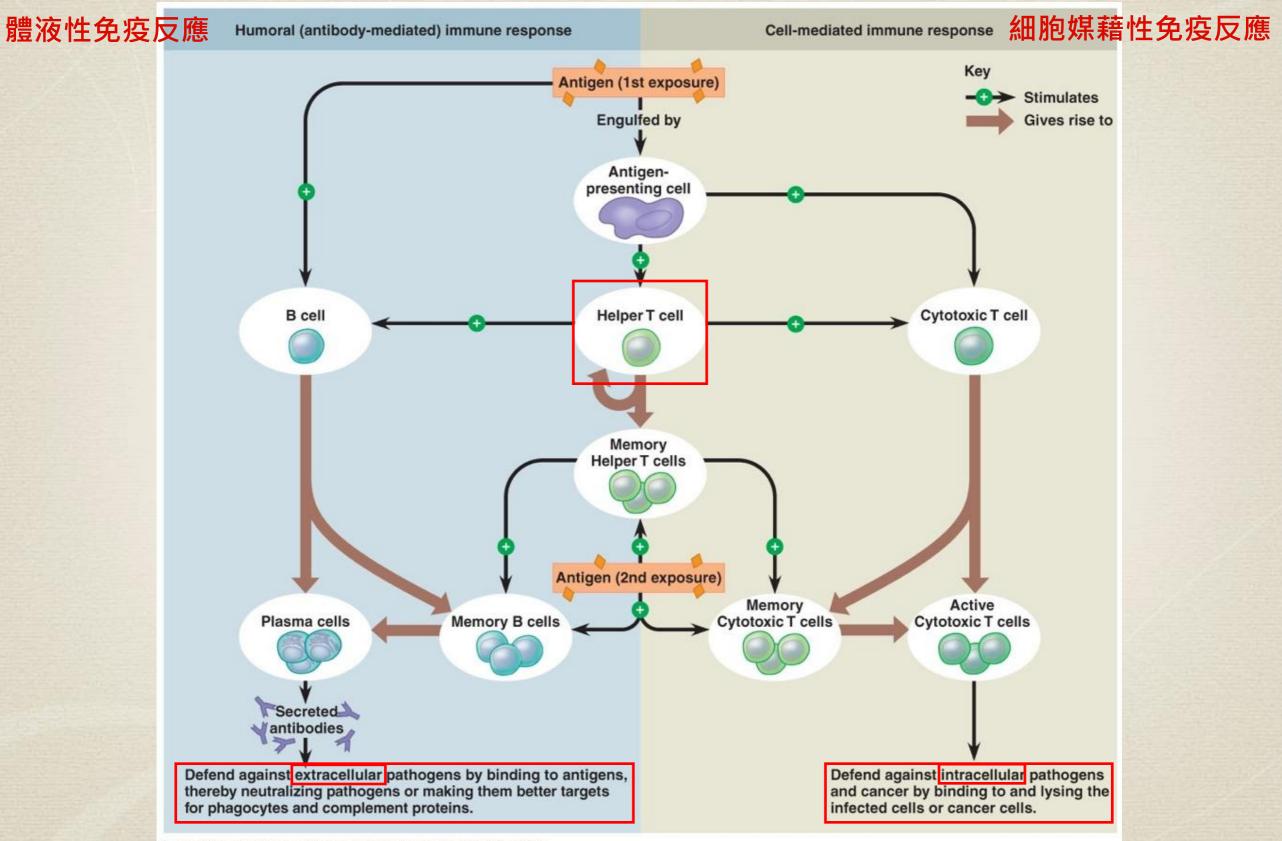


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• Long-lived memory cells generated in the primary response to antigen A produce an enhanced secondary response to the same antigen but don't affect primary response to antigen B

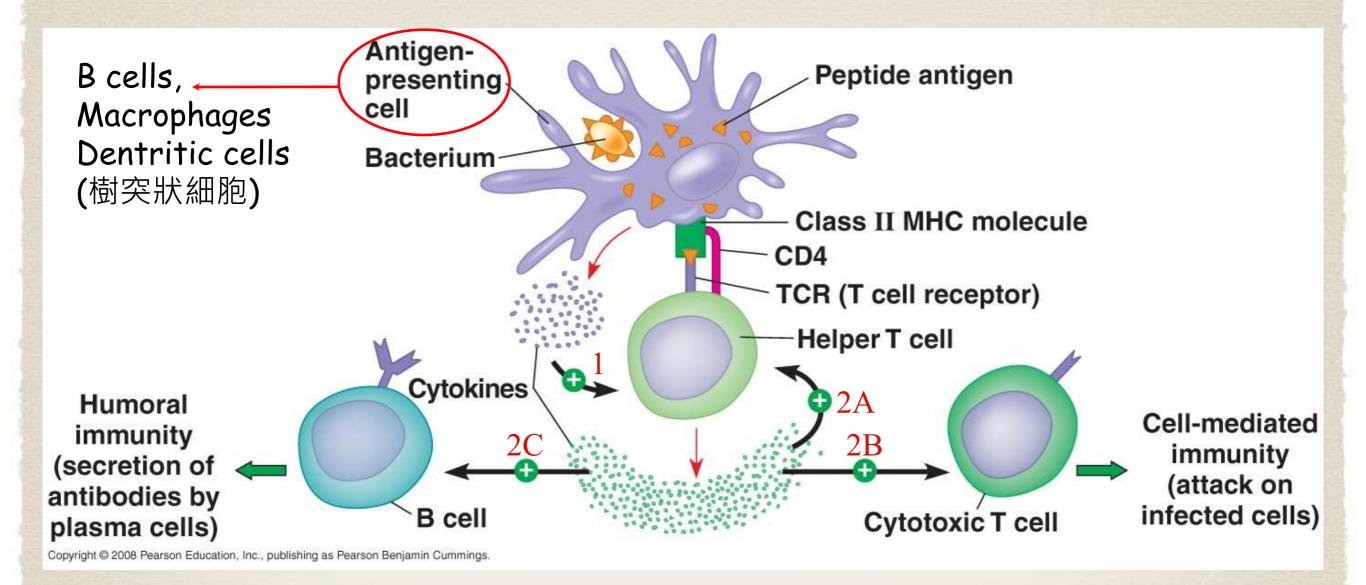
The secondary response is quicker and stronger

An overview of the acquired immune response



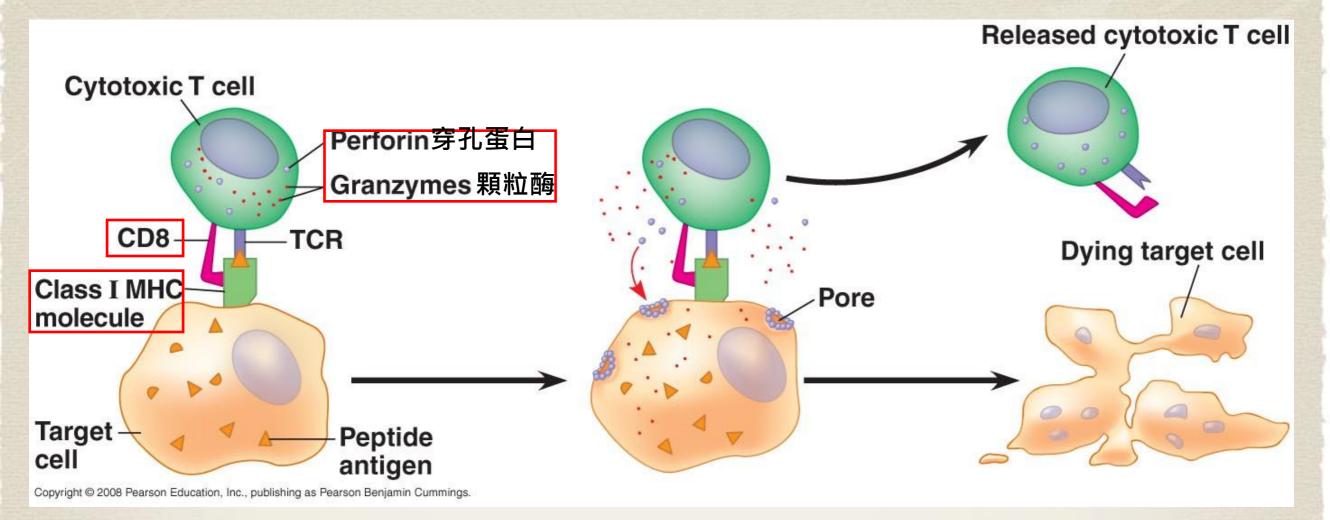
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The central role of helper T cells



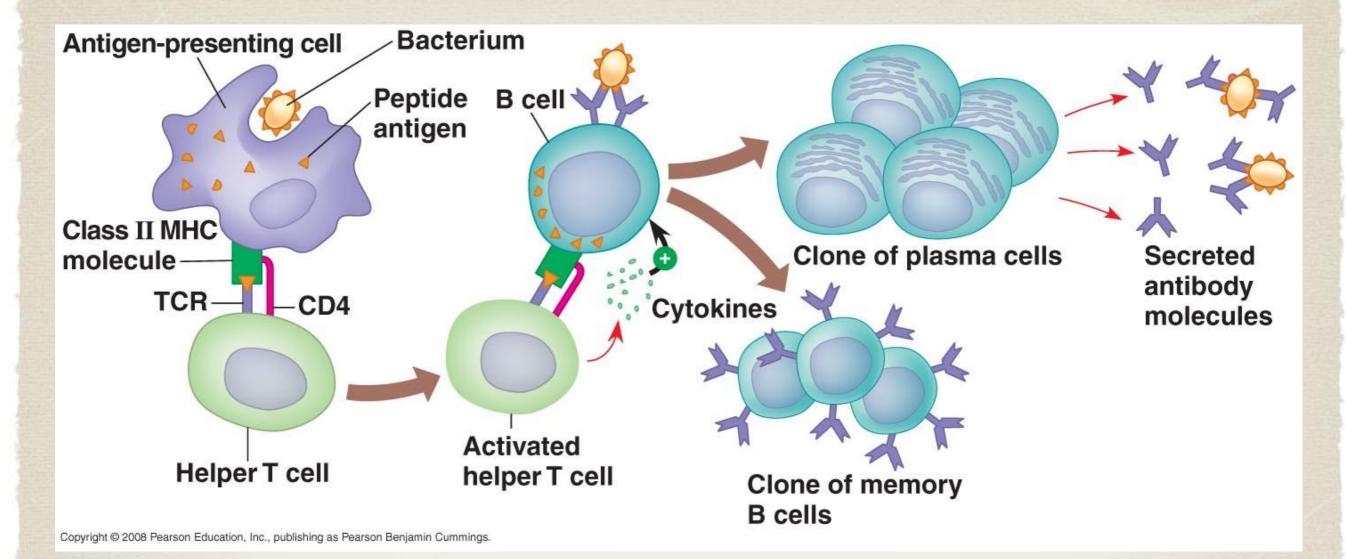
• Dendritic cells are important in triggering a primary immune response, whereas B cells mediate humoral response

The killing action of cytotoxic T cells



The activated cytotoxic T cell binds to a class I MHC complex on a target cell with the aid of CD8
Activated cytotoxic T cells release perforin that make pores in the target cell's membrane and enzymes promoting apoptosis leading to cell death

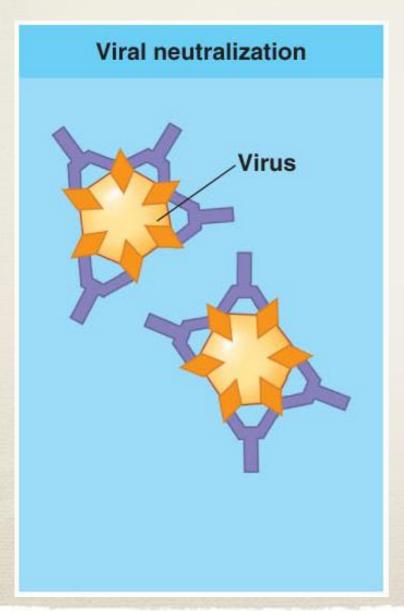
B cell activation in the humoral immune response



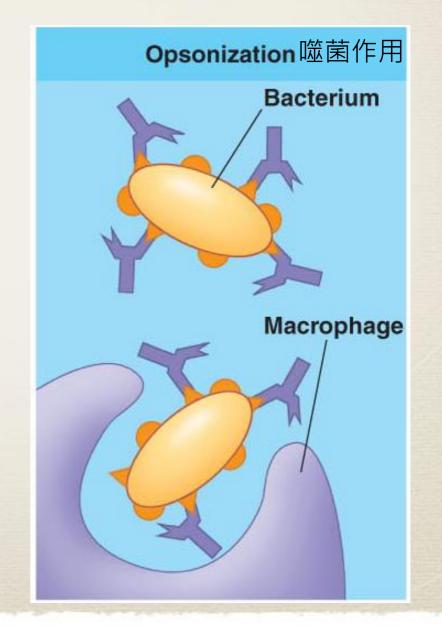
The interaction between TCR/CD4 in helper T cells and antigen/MHC complex activate helper T cells B cells with MHC II antigen complex bind to activated T cells, which release cytokine to activate the B cells Activated B cells proliferate and differentiate into plasma cells and memory B cells

The role of antibodies in immunity

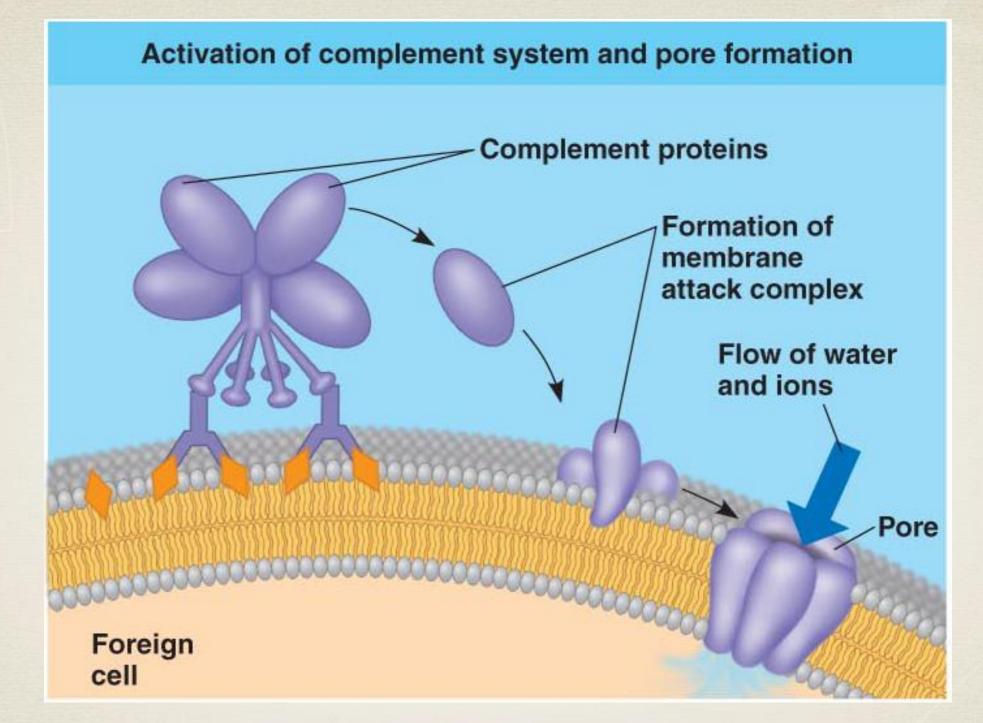
Antibody bound to antigens on the surface of a virus neutralise it by blocking its ability to bind to a host cell



Binding of antibody to antigen on the surface of bacteria promotes phagocytosis by macrophages



Activation of complement system



Binding of antibody to antigen on surface of foreign cell activates the complement system

Following activation, membrane attack complex form pores, leading to cell swell and lysis

Active and passive immunisation

 Active immunity: in response to infection, clones of memory cells form

 Passive immunity: the antibodies provided by the mother to protect against microbes that have never infected the newborn

• Vaccination: both active and passive immunity can be induced artificially by immunisation, which enhance the immune response

- Vaccine can be made from many resources to induce primary immune response

- An encounter of the pathogen from which the vaccine is derived triggers a rapid and strong secondary response

Autoimmune diseases (自體免疫) and immunodeficiency (免疫缺乏)

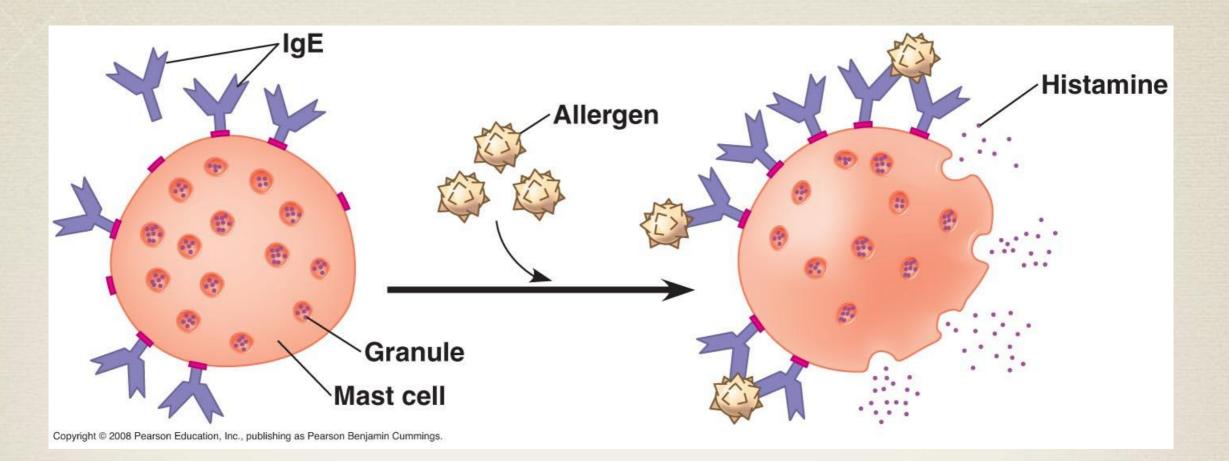
• Autoimmune disease: the immune system turns against particular molecules of the body (loss of self-tolerance)

- systemic lupus erythematosus (紅斑性狼瘡)
- rheumatoid arthritis (類風濕性關節炎)
- multiple sclerosis (多發性硬化症)

• Immunodeficiency is a disorder in which the ability of an immune system to protect against pathogens is defective -AIDS caused by HIV, which both escapes and attacks acquired immune system

- HIV persists are helped by antigenic variation and latency
- The immune system is suppressed by certain cancer
- Hodgkin's lymphoma (霍奇金病淋巴瘤)

Disruptions in immune system - allergies

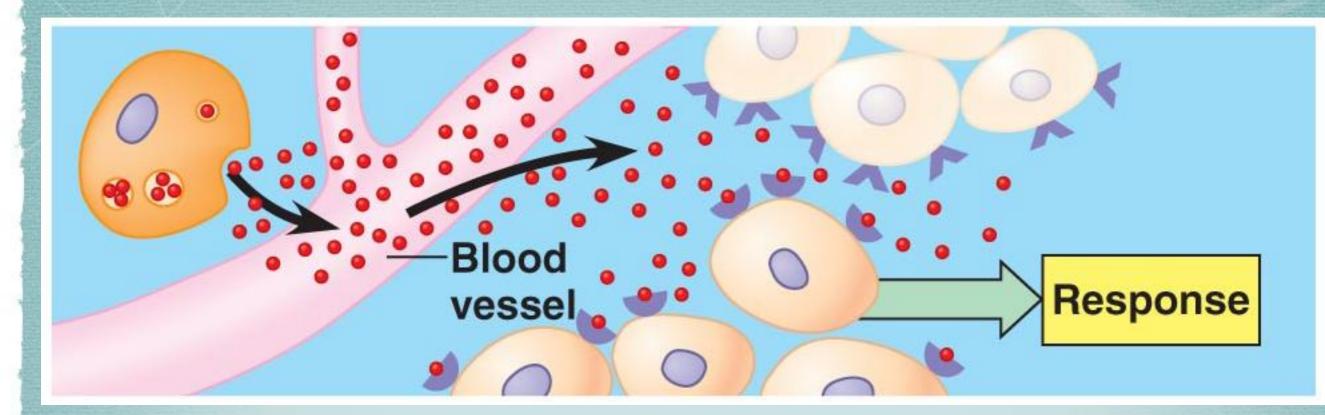


IgE antibody produced in response to initial exposure to an allergen bind to the receptor on mast cells On exposure to the same allergen, IgE on the surface of mast cells recognise and bind allergen

Degranulation of the cell releases histamine and other chemicals, leading to allergy symptom

Hormones and the endocrine system

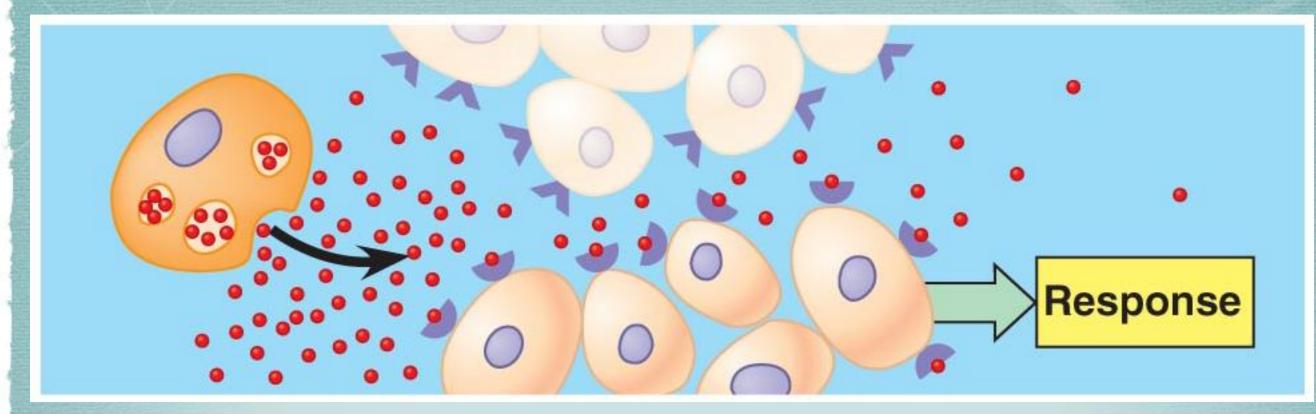
Intracellular communication by endocrine signaling



- Hormones
- maintain hemeostasis (體內動態平衡),
- mediate stress response (逆境反應) to environmental stumuli
- regulating growth development and reproduction

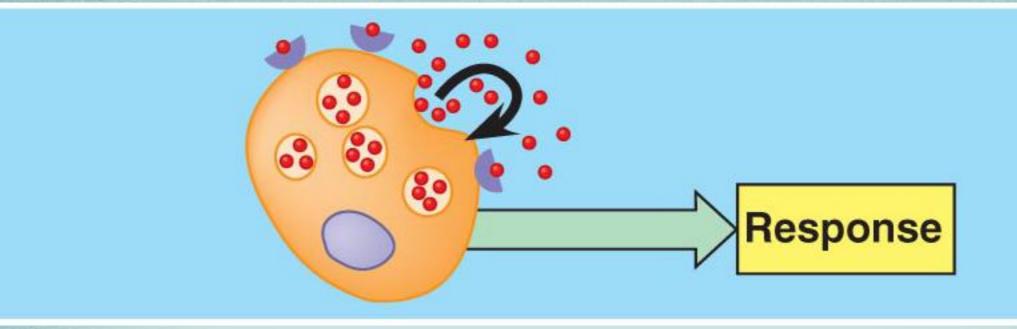
• In endocrine signaling, endocrine cells secreted hormones (激素) diffuse into the bloodstream and trigger responses in target cells anywhere in the body

Local regulators



Many types of cells produce local regulators, secreted molecules that act over short distance and reach their target cells only by diffusion
Local regulators function in paracrine (旁分泌) and autocrine (自分泌) signaling
In paracrine signaling, secreted molecules diffuse locally and trigger a response in neighboring cells

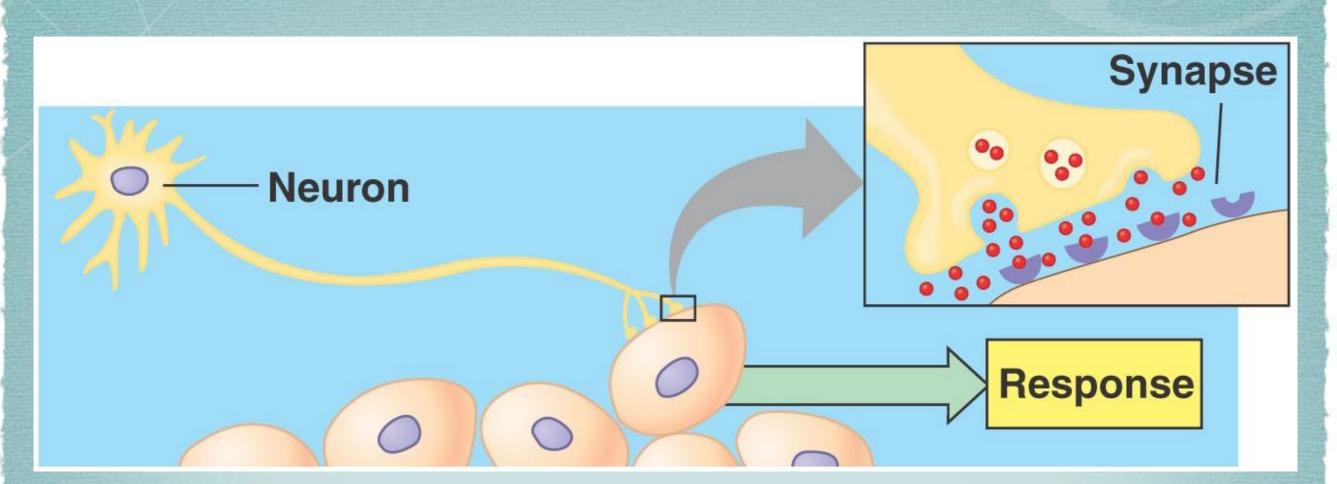
Autocrine signaling



- In autocrine signaling, the secreted molecules act on the secreting cell itself
- Some secreted molecules have both paracrine and autocrine activity
- Local regulators
- cytokines
- growth factors
 nitric oxide (promotes vasodilation)

- prostaglandins (aspirin and ibuprofen inhibit PG synthesis and used as anti-inflammatory drugs)

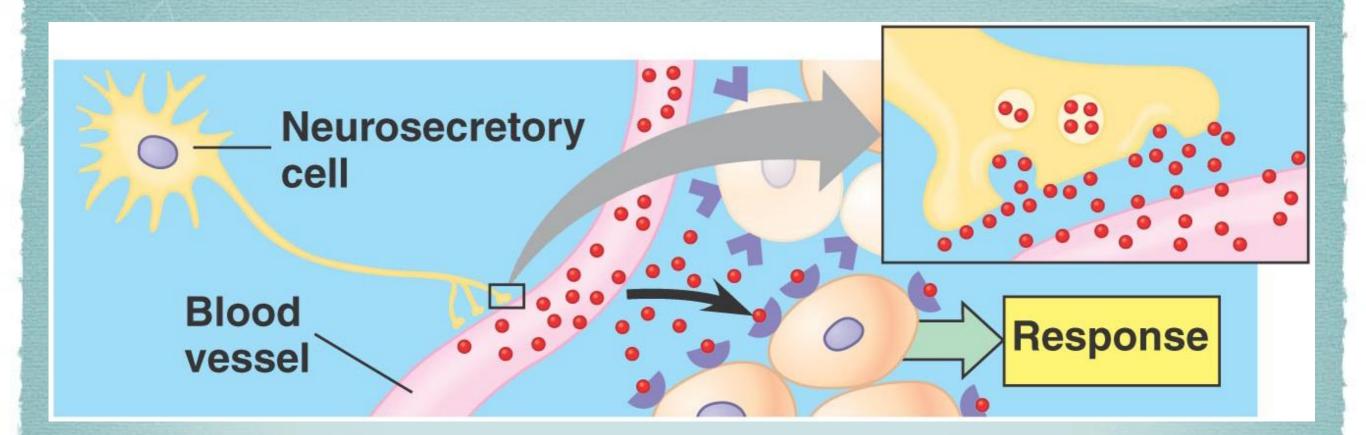
Synaptic signaling



 Neurons communicate with target cells in other neurons and muscles at specialized junctions known as synapses (突觸)
 At many synapses, neurons secrete molecules called neurotransmitters (神經傳導物質) that bind receptors on nearby target cells
 Neurotransmitters play accential poles in constiant

• Neurotransmitters play essential roles in sensation, learning, memory, cognition (認知) and movement

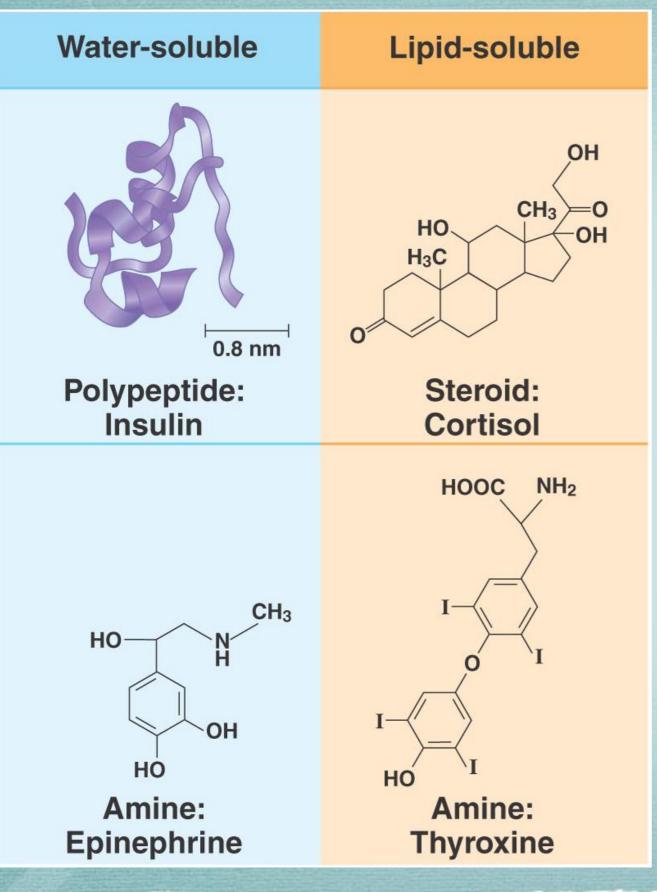
Neuroendocrine signaling



• In neuroendocrine signaling, neurosecretory cells secrete molecules that diffuse from nerve cell endings into the blood stream

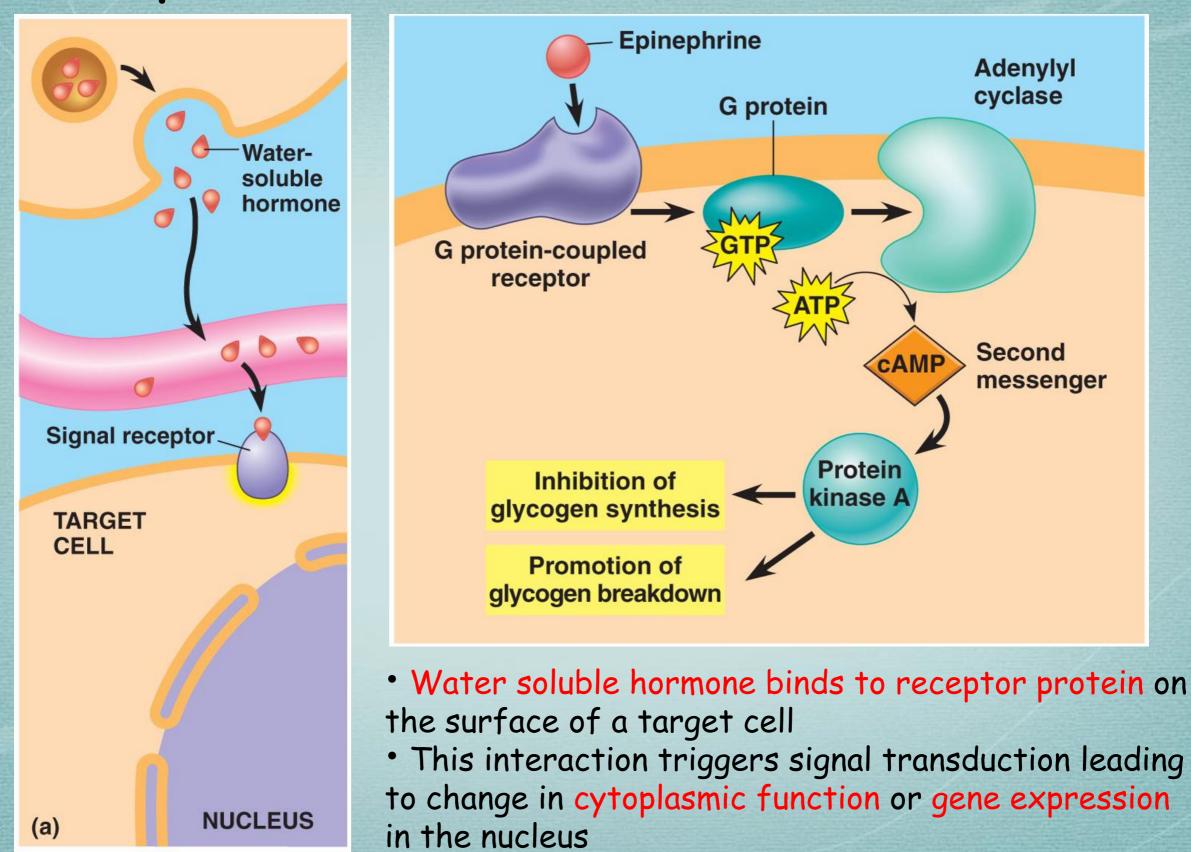
• These molecules are neurohormones, which travel through the bloodstream to reach target cells anywhere in the body

Hormones differ in form and solubility

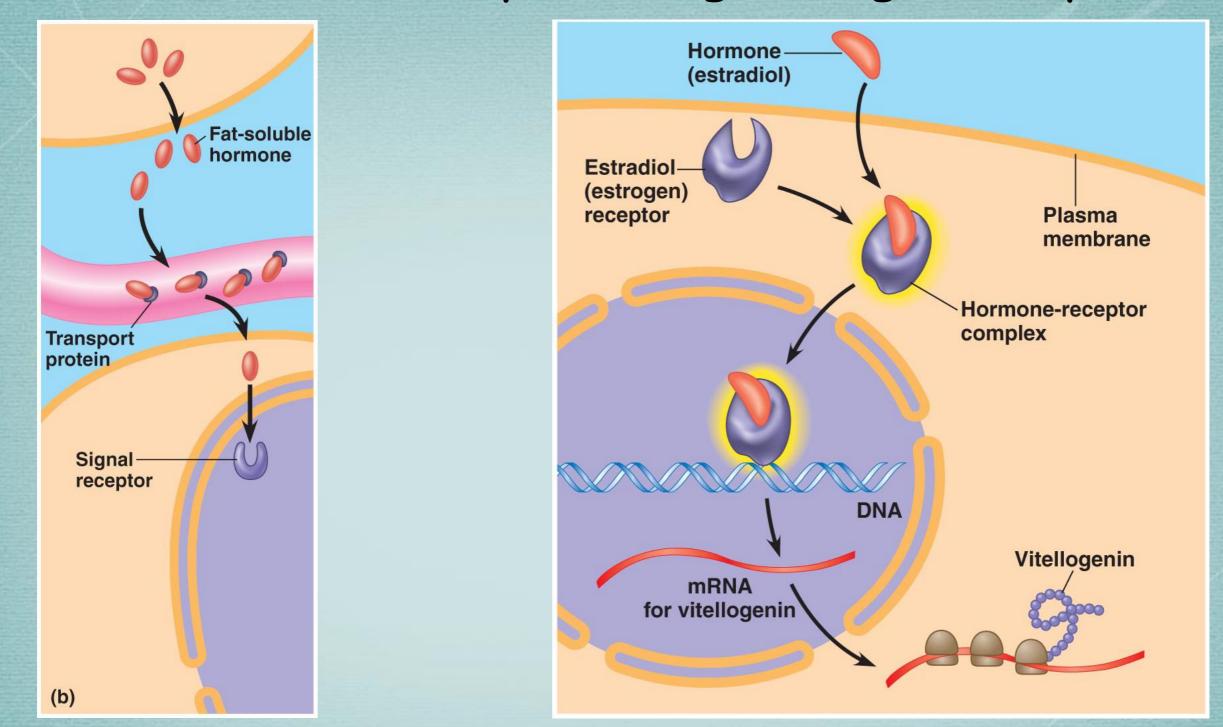


 Based on their structure and synthetic pathways, hormones are divided into polypeptides, amines and steroid hormones (類固醇激素) • They differ in solubility in aqueous and lipid-rich environments Polypeptides and many amine hormones are watersoluble and they cannot pass through the plasma membrane of cells Steroid hormones and other non-polar hormones are lipid-soluble and can pass through cell membrane

Receptor location varies with hormone



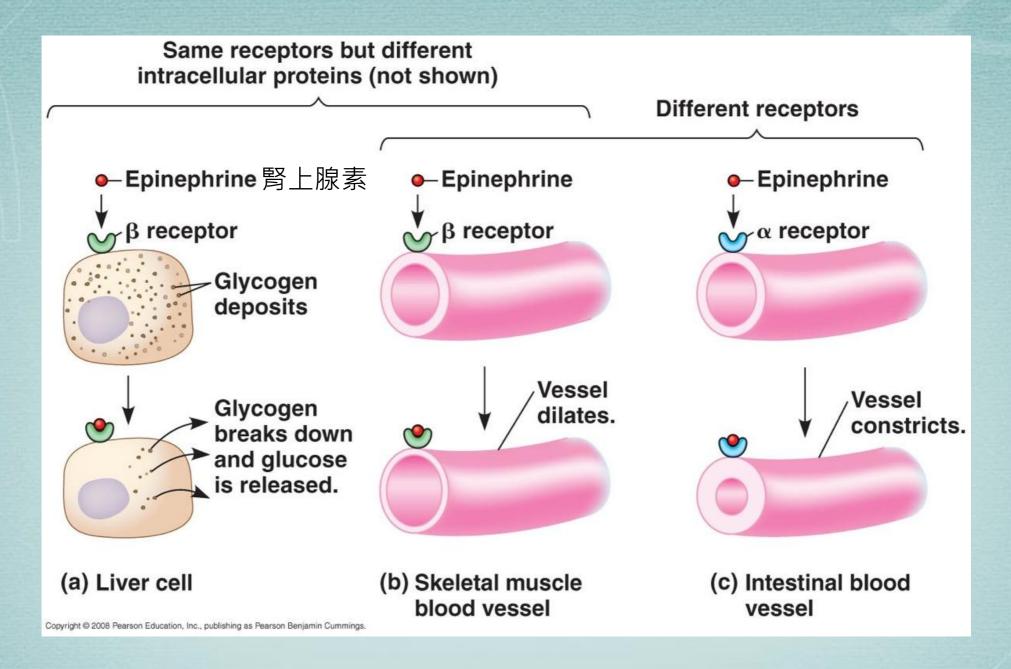
Steroid hormone receptors regulate gene expression



• Lipid soluble hormone penetrates target cell's membrane and binds to an intracellular receptor either in the cytoplasm or nucleus

• The signal receptor complex acts as a transcription factor, typically activating gene expression

One hormone with multiple effects

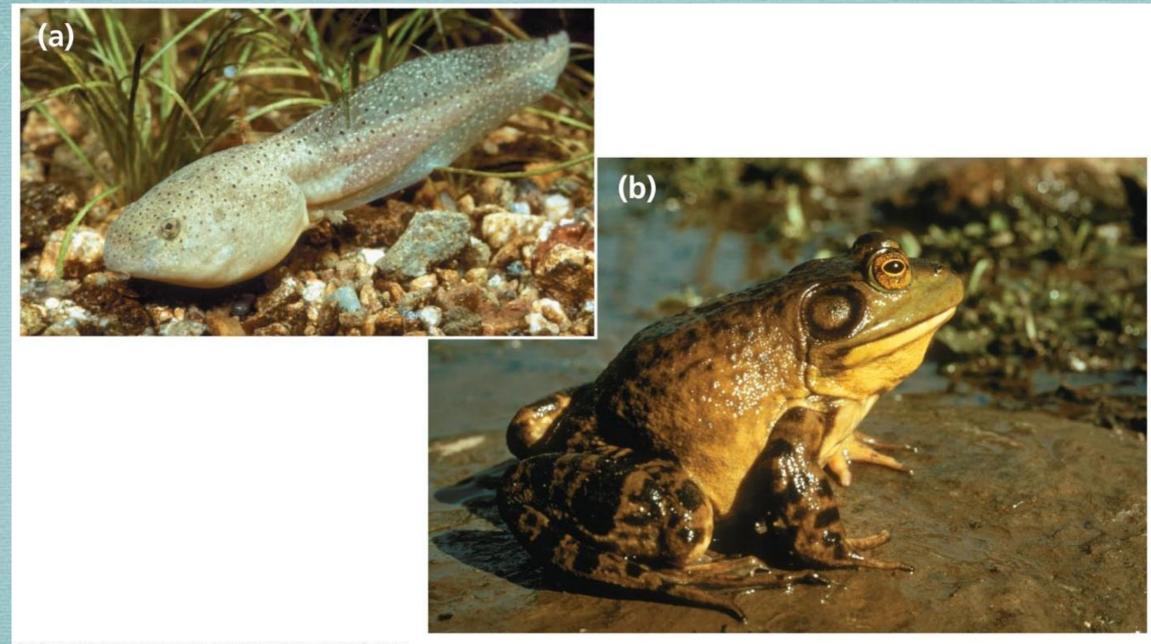


• Hormone produces different responses in different target cells

• Target cells with the same receptor exhibit different responses if they have different signal transduction pathways or effector proteins

• Responses of target cells may also differ if they have different receptors for the same hormone

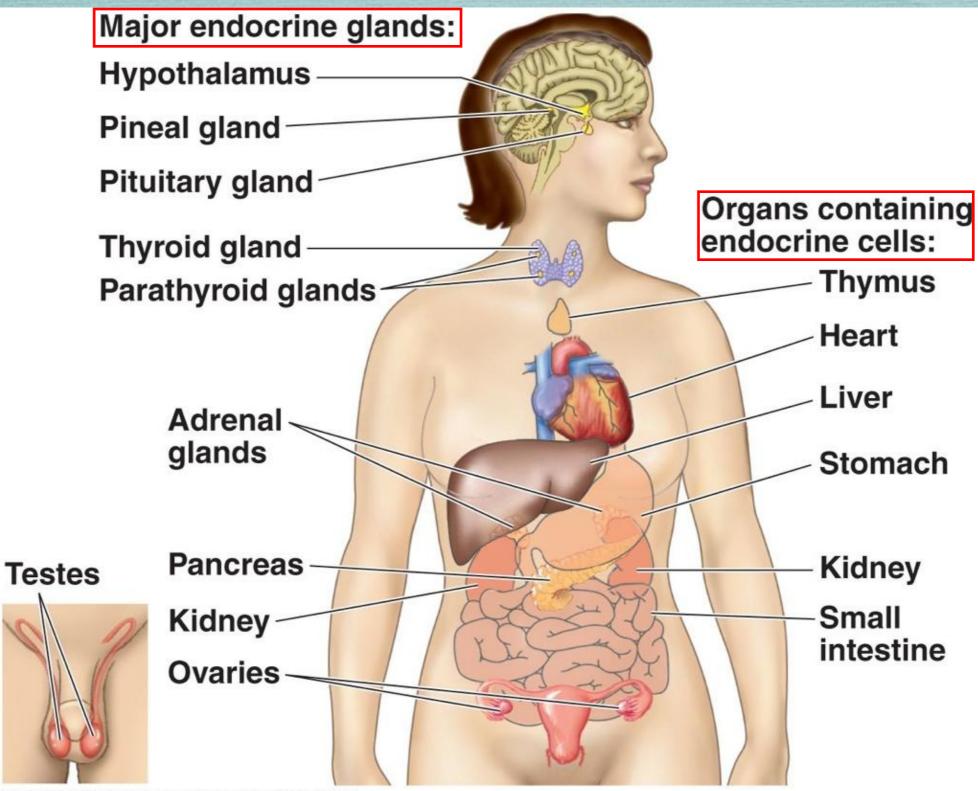
Specialized role of hormone in frog metamorphosis



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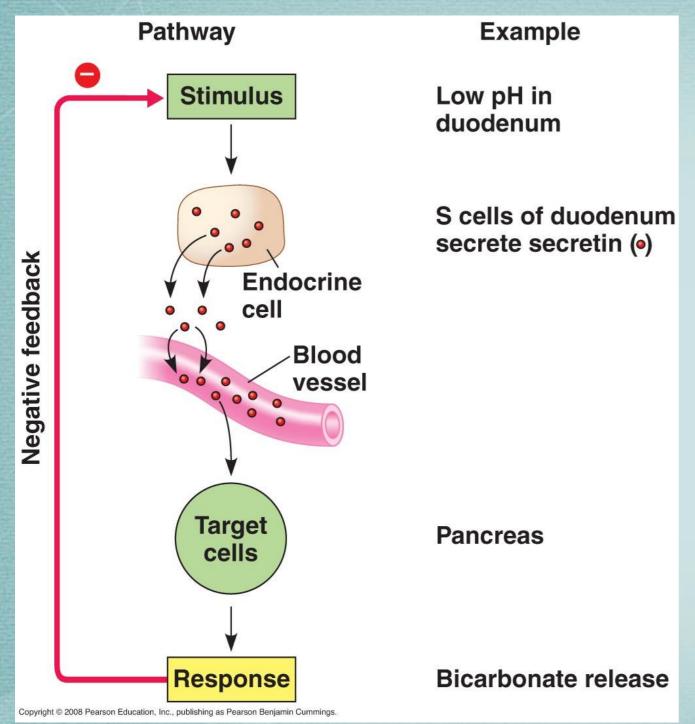
In some cases, a given hormone has different effects in different species
 Thyroxine (甲狀腺素) produced by thyroid gland regulates metabolism in human and other vertebrates, whereas it stimulates resorption of the tadpole's tail as the frog develops into its adult form

Major human endocrine glands and tissues



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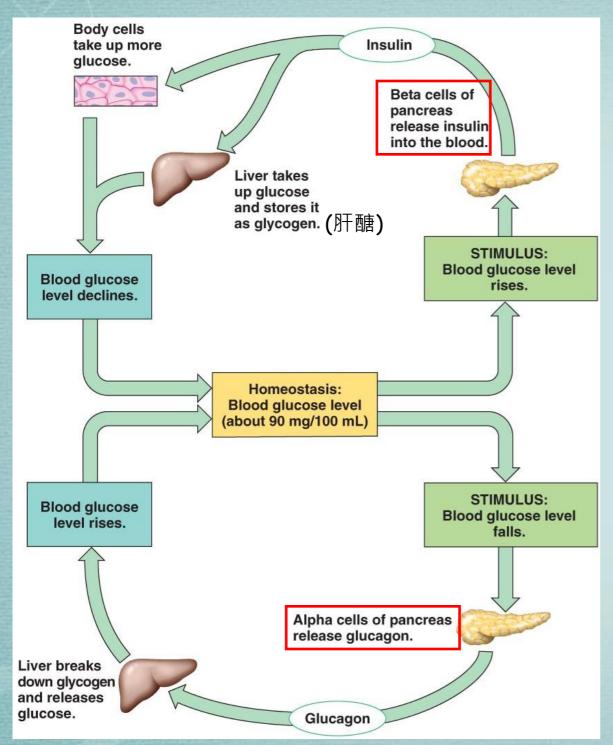
Simple hormone pathways



The stimulus causes endocrine cells to secrete a hormone
Upon reaching its target cell via bloodstream, the hormone binds to its receptor, triggering signal transduction that results in a specific response
A negative feedback (負回饋)

is a loop in which the response reduces the initial stimulus, which prevents excessive pathway activity

Maintenance of glucose homeostasis



Two antagonistic (頡抗作用) hormones, insulin (胰島素) and glucagon (升糖素), which regulate the concentration of glucose in the blood (90 mg/100 ml)
When blood glucose rises, releases of insulin triggers uptake of glucose from the blood, decreasing the blood glucose concentration

• When blood glucose drops, the release of glucagon promotes the release of glucose into the blood

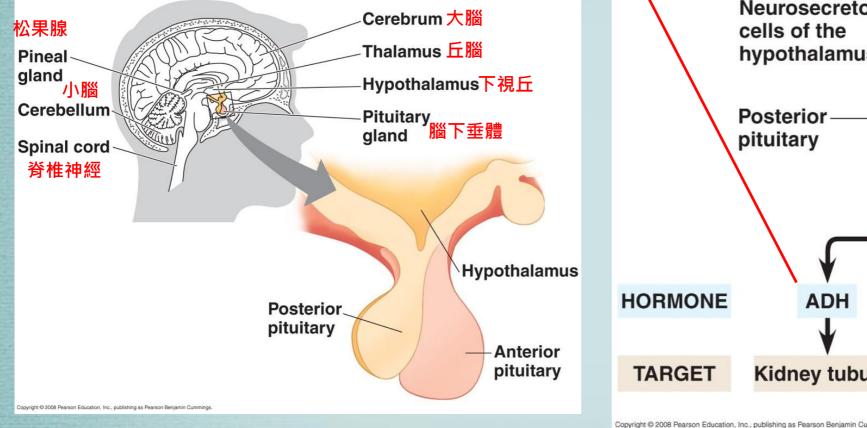
Perturbations of glucose homeostasis

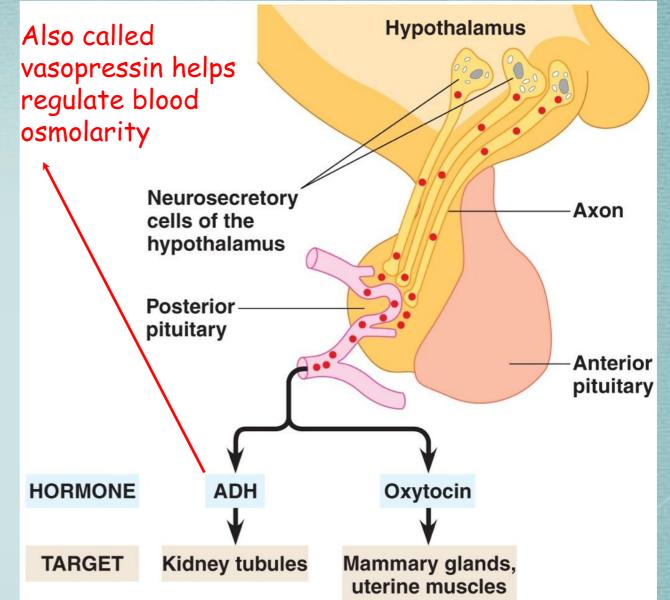
• A disruption of glucose homeostasis causes diabetes mellitus, which refers to the presence of sugar in urine

- Insulin-dependent diabetes (Type I), is an autoimmune disorder, in which immune system destroys beta-cells that produce insulin
- Insulin-independent diabetes (Type II), is characterised by failure of target cells to respond normally to insulin
- More than 90% of people with diabetes have type II, a multifactorial disorder contributed by genetic components and environmental factors

Endocrine and nervous system in vertebrate brain

The hypothalamus (下視丘) plays a central role in integrating the endocrine and nervous systems

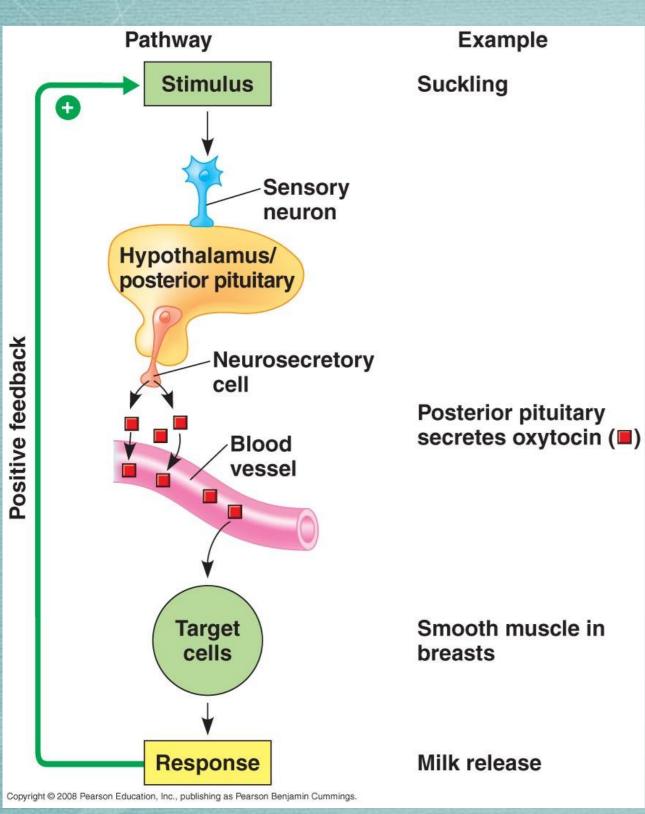




Signals from hypothalamus travel to the pituitary gland, which contain two glands, the posterior and anterior pituitary

The posterior pituitary, or neuro-hypophysis (神經垂體), is an extension of the hypothalamus and it stores and secretes oxytocin (催產素) and antidiuretic hormone (ADH; 抗利尿激素)

A positive feedback neurohormone pathway

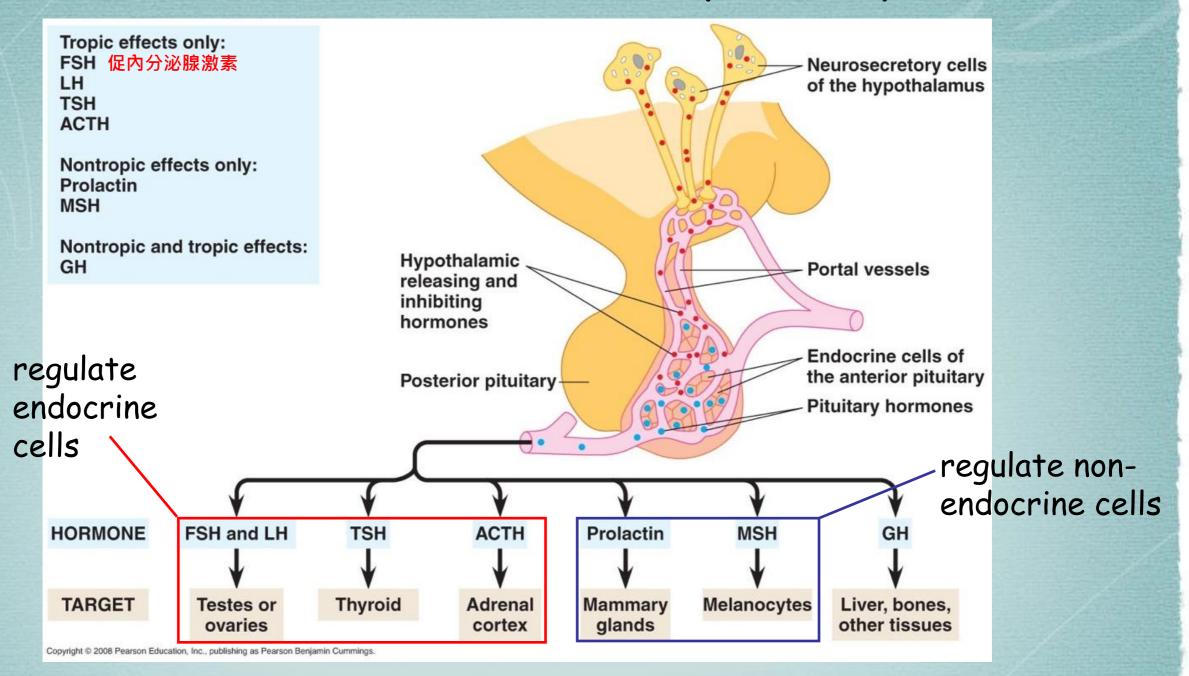


 One function of oxytocin is to regulate milk release during nursing
 The oxytocin pathway provides an example of positive feedback (正回饋) mechanism, which reinforces the stimulus leading to an even greater response

• Oxytocin induces target cells in the uterine muscle to contract, which drives the birth process to completion

 Oxytocin also functions in regulating mood and sexual arousal (性衝動) in both females and males

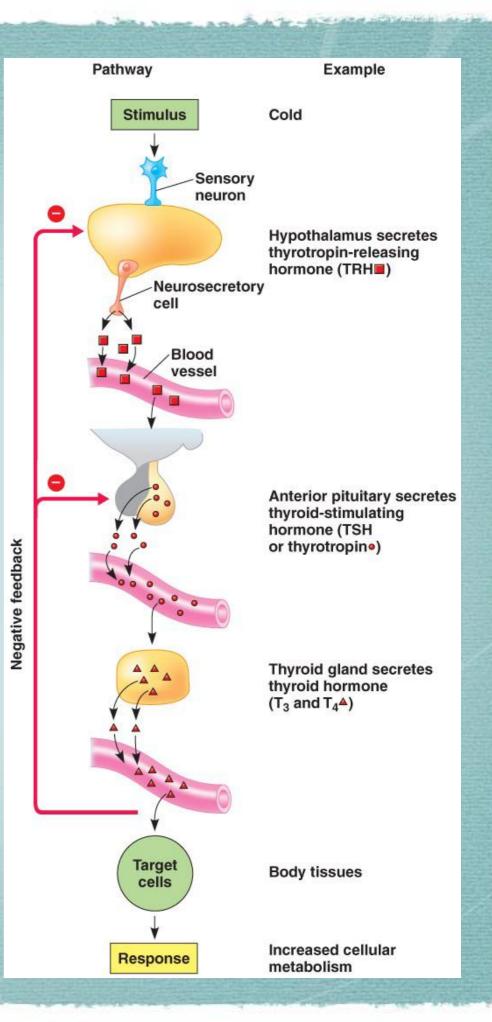
Production and release of anterior pituitary hormones



The anterior pituitary synthesizes and secretes many different hormones and is itself regulated by hypothalamic hormones
Each hypothalamic hormone is either a releasing hormone or an inhibiting hormone

A hormone cascade pathway

Set of hormones from the hypothalamus, the anterior pituitary and a target endocrine gland are organised into a hormone cascade pathway



Thyroid hormone (甲狀腺激素) controls metabolism and development

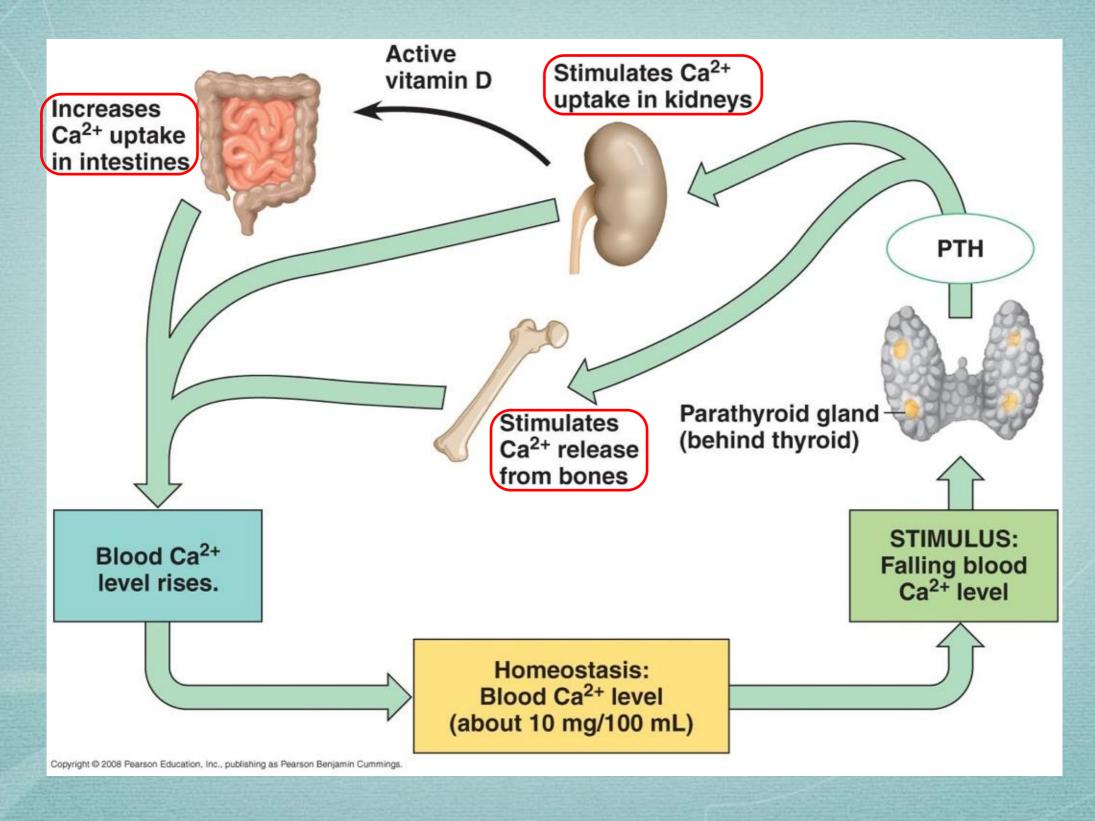
• TH contains a pair of similar hormones, T3 (Triiodothyronine) and T4 (thyroxine), both derived from tyrosine

• Hyper-thyroidism: excessive secretion of TH can lead to severe symptoms, including high body temperature, profuse sweating, weight loss and high blood pressure

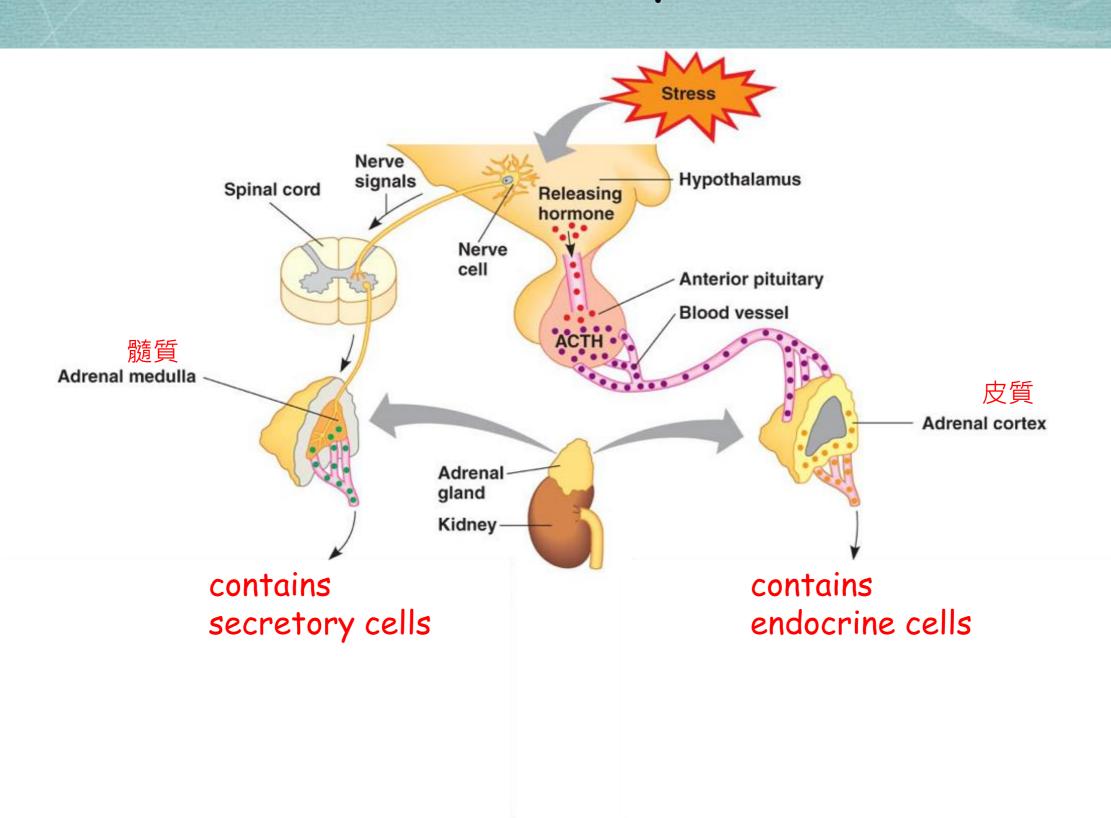
• Hypothyroidism, a condition of too little thyroid function can produce symptoms such as weight gain, lethargy and intolerance to cold



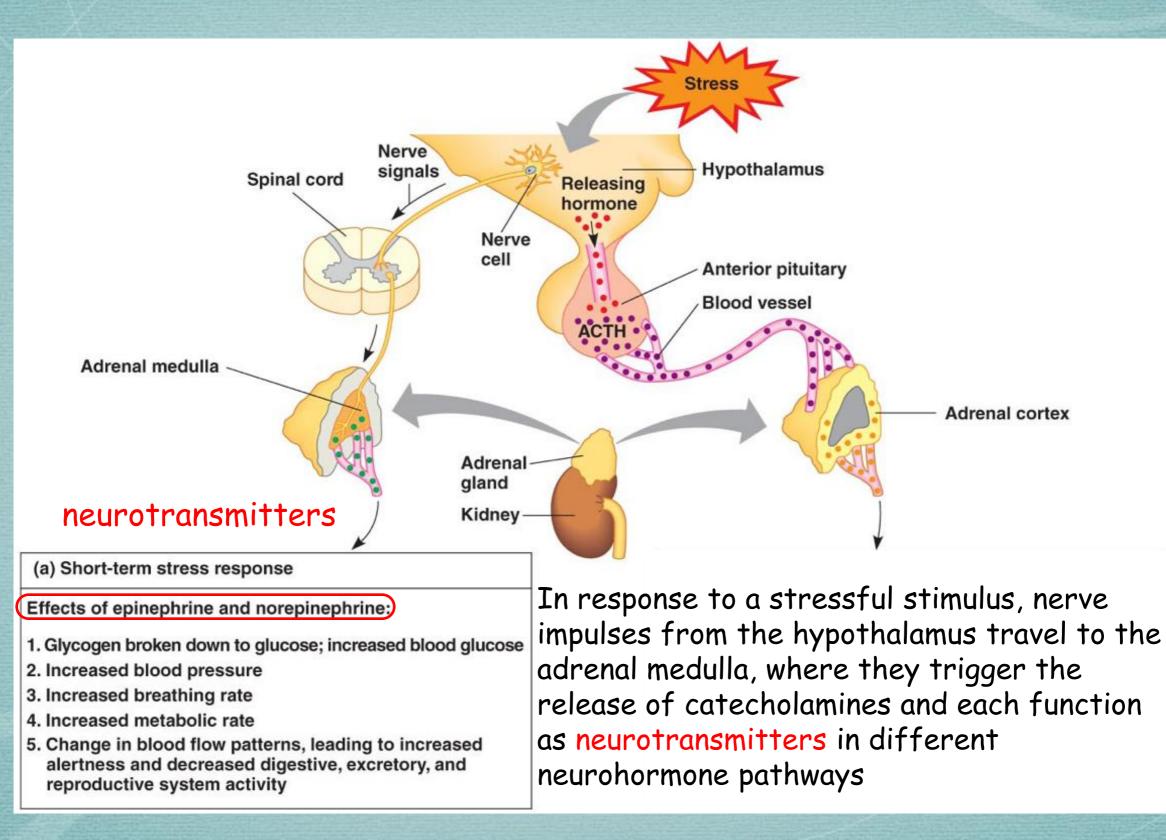
Parathyroid hormone and vitamine D control blood calcium



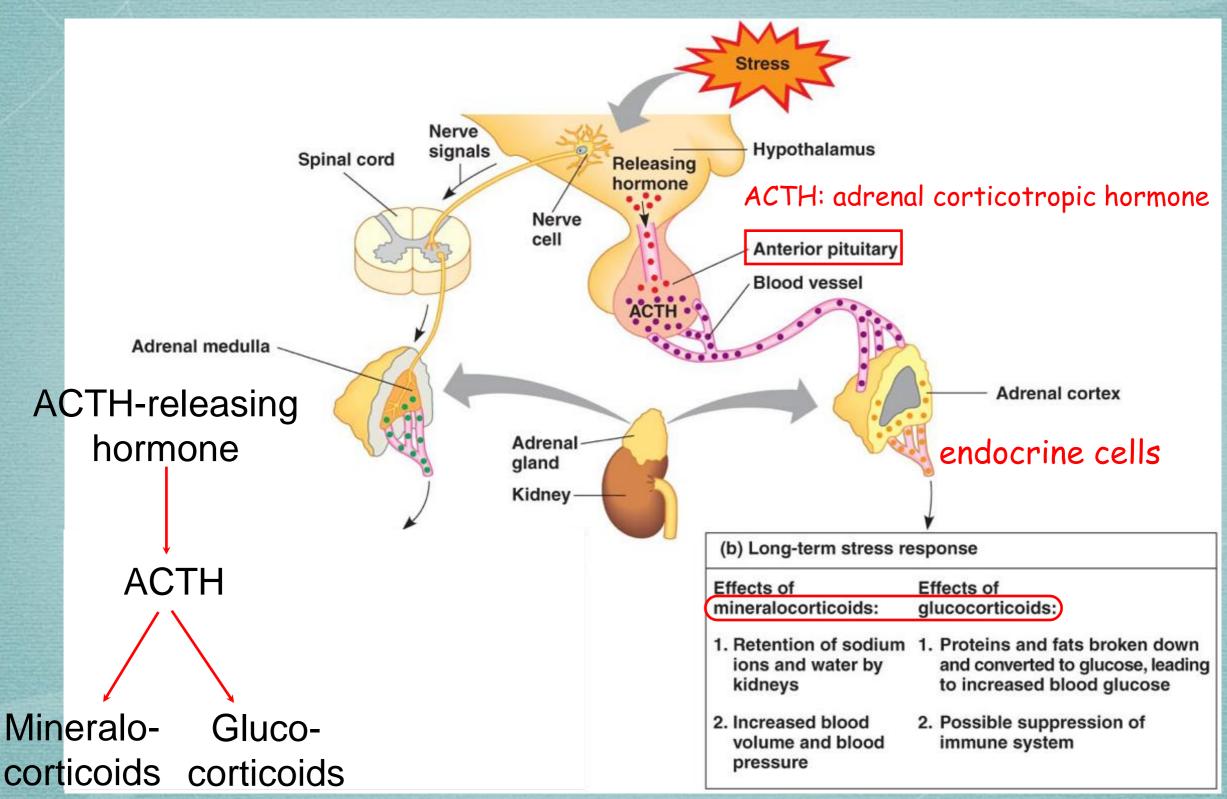
Adrenal hormone: response to stress



Hormones from adrenal medulla



A hormone cascade pathway to adrenal cortex



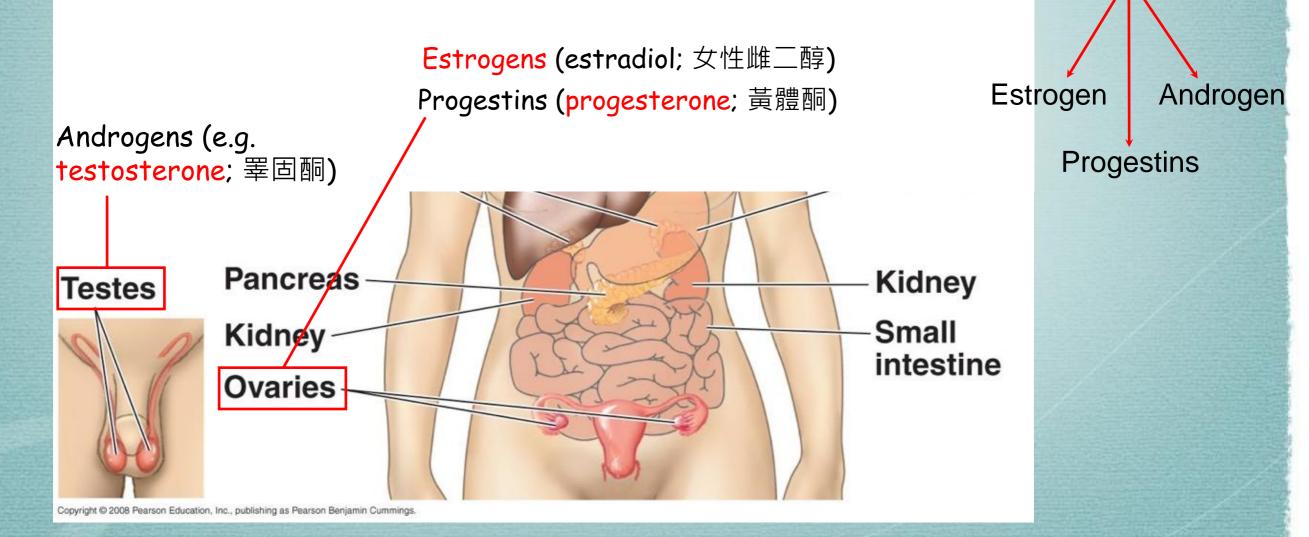
Gonadal sex hormones

GnRH

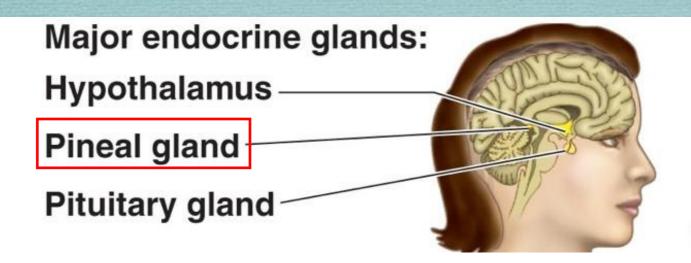
FSH/LH

• Estrogens (雌性激素), progestins (黃體激素) and androgens (男性荷爾蒙) are composed of hormone cascade pathways, synthesis of which is controlled by gonadotropins (促性腺激素; FSH and LH) from the anterior pituitary gland

• FSH and LH secretion is in turn controlled by a releasing hormone from the hypothalamus GnRH (gonadotropin-releasing hormone)



Pineal gland and melatonin



• Pineal gland (松果體) synthesis and secrete melatonin (退黑激素)

- Pineal gland contains light-sensitive cells or has nervous connection from the eyes that control its secretory activity

- although melatonin affects skin pigmentation, its primary functions relate to biological rhythms (節奏;韻律)

 Melatonin regulates functions related to light and to seasons marked by changes in day length

• The main target of melatonin is a group of neuron in the hypothalamus called suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN), which function as biological clock

Melatonin seems to decrease the activity of the SCN