

جامعة البصره كلية الصيدلة قسم علوم المختبرات السريرية

Immunology for covid-19:literature of Review

Areport

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Abstract

With the worldwide spread of the novel severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2) resulting in declaration of a pandemic by the World Health Organization (WHO) on March 11, 2020, the SARS-CoV-2-induced coronavirus disease-19 (COVID-19) has become one of the main challenges of our times. The high infection rate and the severe disease course led to major safety and social restriction measures worldwide. There is an urgent need of unbiased expert knowledge guiding the development of efficient treatment and prevention strategies. This report summarizes current immunological data on mechanisms associated with the SARS-CoV-2 infection and COVID-19 development and progression to the most severe forms. We characterize the differences between adequate innate and adaptive immune response in mild disease and the deep immune dysfunction in the severe multiorgan disease. The similarities of the human immune response to SARS-CoV-2 and the SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV are underlined. We also summarize known and potential SARS-CoV-2 receptors on epithelial barriers, immune cells, endothelium and clinically involved organs such as lung, gut, kidney, cardiovascular, and neuronal system, The immune response to SARS-CoV-2 reveals a delicate balance between protective effects and harmful pathological reactions and can possibly explain the highly variable disease manifestations in subjects infected with this novel coronavirus. A better understanding of the anti-viral immune response is not only critical for vaccine development but might also provide targets for pharmaceutical and immunological treatment options

Introduction

Infections with the novel coronavirus SARS-CoV-2 resulting in COVID-19 development represent the major medical and scientific challenges of our time. Knowledge on SARS-CoV-2 infection pathways and mechanisms associated with immune defense or immunopathology is growing exponentially, as it is indispensable to design the proper diagnostic and therapeutic strategies. However, there are several knowledge gaps and urgent unmet research needs in our understating of the current pandemics. A group of experts in basic and clinical immunology has joined forces under the umbrella of the European Academy of Allergy and Clinical Immunology (EAACI) to provide a consensus report on the basic molecular and immune mechanisms associated with susceptibility, clinical presentations and severity of COVID-19

IMMUNOLOGY:

DEVELOPMENT AND FAILURE OF AN ADEQUATE IMMUNE RESPONSE

Monocytes/macrophages and DCs play a crucial role in anti-viral responses by linking innate and adaptive immunity. Peripheral activation and accumulation of activated pro-inflammatory monocytes/macrophages within lungs has become one hallmark of symptomatic SARS-CoV-2 infection.(R, Fehr A et,2016) In contrast, the exact role of interactions between DCs and SARS-CoV-2 has not been determined yet. Previous in vitro experiments showed that different human coronaviruses display either high (229E) or poor (OC43) capacities to infect macrophages[Yilla M, et,2005]

The efficiency of macrophage infection by coronaviruses was negatively correlated with IFN-α production[Yilla M, et,2005]

In COVID-19 patients, ACE2 expression was detected on both lymph nodeassociated CD68 + macrophages and tissue-resident CD169 + macrophages[Chen Y, et,2020.2003.2004]

It needs to be addressed, however, whether other proven and potential SARS-CoV-2 receptors, such as CD147 or CD209 (DC-SIGN), both being expressed by monocytes/macrophages and DCs can facilitate viral entry to these cells[Wang K, et:2020.2003.2014]

Recently, SARS-CoV-2 particles were found in macrophages, but it remains elusive whether these findings were an effect of active cellular infection or just the consequences of physiological phagocytosis. It is tempting to speculate that SARS-CoV-2, similarly to HIV, can use macrophages as a Trojan horse contributing to viral spread[Chen Y, et, 2020; preprint: 2020.2003.2027.2004]

Regardless of the exact mechanism of viral entry, both previously described coronaviruses and the new SARS-CoV-2 can trigger NLRP3 inflammasome activation in monocytes/macrophages, production of high levels of pro-inflammatory mediators such as IL-6, GM- CSF, IL-1β, TNF, CXCL-8, CCL-3,

and enhanced cell death. Subsequently, it may lead to the cytokine storm also known as cytokine release syndrome (CRS) (Figure 4)[Ratajczak M, 2020]

Some of these cytokines (ie, IL-6) are mainly secreted by macrophages, [Liao M, 2020; preprint: 2020.2002.2023.2002]

and the evidence of macrophage activation syndrome has been reported.77 Thus, beneficial effects of anti-IL-6R treatment on COVID-19 outcomes indicate that therapies targeting macrophage-related activities can become promising means to inhibit the inflammatory storm in the course of coronavirus disease.[Zhou M,2020]

Overloaded, activated and subsequently dying macrophages might contribute to an increase in the levels of plasma ferritin and profound dysregulation of iron metabolism.[Nairz M,2017]

ferritin levels are common clinical findings in patients with severe COVID-19[Velavan ,2020



FIGURE 4Immunology of adequate and nonadequate response to SARS-CoV-2 infection. The clinical course of the SARS-CoV-2 infection varies from an asymptomatic to a severe, life-threatening syndrome. The number of asymptomatic carriers is unknown, and virus detection is often accidental. Data on the immune characteristics in this group are lacking. Patients who experience mild symptoms are characterized by a transient, slight decrease in lymphocyte counts and an increase in neutrophil counts in the peripheral blood. Viral clearance in this group is convergent in time with the specific antibody production. Delayed and limited IFN type I response in combination with the overactivation of pro-inflammatory cytokine response has been suggested as a possible mechanistic explanation of hyperinflammatory syndrome in COVID-19 patients presenting with severe clinical manifestations: respiratory insufficiency, kidney failure, thromboembolic, and other complications. Severe COVID-19 is characterized by a systemic cytokine release syndrome (CRS), increased levels of LDH and CRP, hypoalbuminemia, deepening decrease in lymphocyte counts and immune exhaustion of T cells

PCR tests are useful for detecting SARS-CoV-2 RNA in an upper respiratory (preferably a nasopharyngeal) specimens. In addition, a number of diagnostic procedures to assess immunity built against SARS-CoV-2 are still .being developed, validated, and optimized

Antibody testing is evolving, and the market is flooded with test kits (both ELISA and rapid tests in the form of lateral flow immunoassays). However, only a small number of these kits are certified, and the results need to be interpreted with caution. Preliminary data indicate that COVID-19 presents with a classical antibody response consisting of early induction of IgM, followed by IgA and IgG antibodies (Figure 7)[Huang AT,et 2020; preprint: 2020.2004.2014]

. IgG seems to appear early in the course of clinical presentation probably due to the relatively long incubation period. However, there is not yet enough evidence with regard to the development of long-term protective immunity. Antibody testing is so far more valuable in mapping the situation in individual populations, as planned by the WHO in the Solidarity II project.[Vogel G, Science. 2020.] Test kits for the assessment of SARS-CoV-2-specific Tcell responses for diagnostic use are currently not available



FIGURE 7: Clinical stages of COVID-19 and their virology and immunological assessment. The success of restraining SARS-CoV-2 transmission depends on accurate and timely diagnostics. Asymptomatic patients transmit SARS-CoV-2. RT-PCR-based test detecting the SARS-CoV-2 RNA in posterior conchae nasal swabs are currently the golden standard in the initial phase of the infection. Viral antigens can be detected in patients' blood by means of ELISA tests. ELISA tests allow for detection of virus-specific antibodies in patients' serum. The production of specific lgM starts after about a week from infection and IgM levels decrease with the production of specific lgG (after about 2 wks from infection). Novel diagnostic and risk-stratification strategies could include microbiome profiling and tests detecting neutralizing antibodies

IMMUNOLOGICAL BIOMARKER PROFILING OF COVID- 5 19 FOR PREDICTION OF DISEASE SEVERITY

The development of serious complications and even fatal outcome in SARS-CoV-2 infection is strongly linked to the patients' immune response resulting in CRS[ToMehta P,et, 2020]

There is an urgent need for biomarkers that predict patients developing severe complications.[Sotgiu G, , et,2020] date, there is limited information on the biomarkers associated with, or even predicting severe complications in COVID-19. However, there is much similarity on the biomarkers that have been described before for MERS-CoV and SARS-CoV, also β-coronaviruses, but also with sepsis. Many markers have been demonstrated to be increased in SARS-CoV-2-infected individuals. These markers are related to innate as well as adaptive immunity, endothelial cell activation, thrombocyte activation, and leukocyte infiltration[Huang C,et. 2020]

The list of markers related to severe disease, ICU, and even lethality is more limited. In ICU-admitted COVID-19 patients, significant increases of D-dimer, ferritin, LDH, IL-6, high sensitivity cardiac troponin, IL-2, IL-7, G-CSF, MCP-1, MIP-1 α , and TNF- α were reported.201 An even more restricted group of markers (IL-10, MCP-3, IL-1ra) were increased in severe and lethal cases. Differences in the biomarkers described are most probably due to the different sampling time during disease and the large heterogeneity between the patients[Huang C, et, 2020] Most likely, single biomarkers will not be predictive. On the other hand, a combination of markers (a biosignature) will help in patient stratification and may even guide patients-tailored therapy

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