

From Rubor and Calor to today:

An Update on Inflammation

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Inflammation

First Century C.E. Greeks first described inflammation Rubor - Calor - Dolor - Tumor redness heat pain swelling

Second Century Romans – not to be outdone added Loss of function





Inflammation

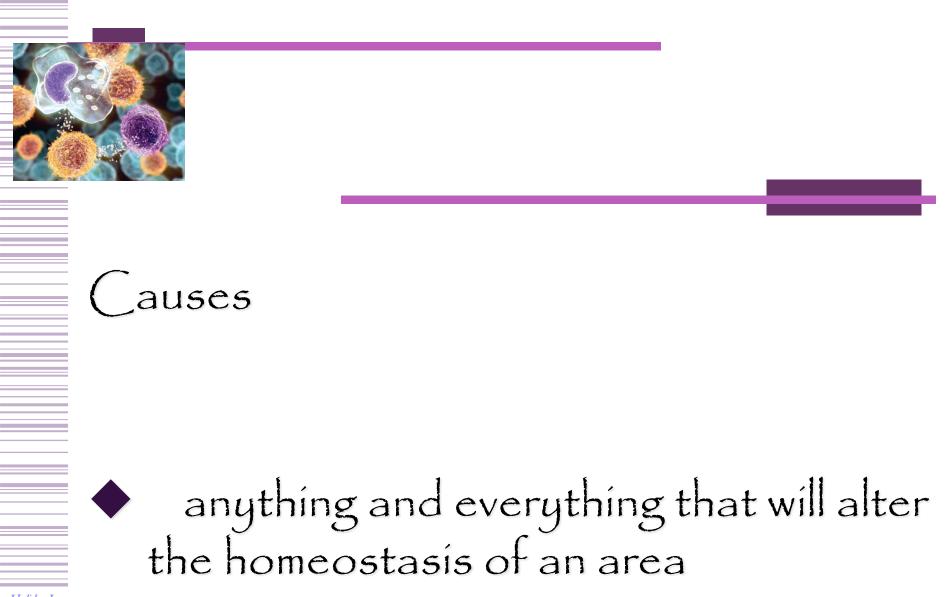
Normal Necessary Non-specific mechanism of response

Primarily a localized process but can become systemic



Combination of cells and mediators









 \diamond Acute nerve reflex response starts within seconds \diamond \diamond causes immediate vasoconstriction \diamond helps to limit damage divides into afferent (dilation) and \diamond efferent (constriction)



Acute vascular response

- starts within seconds and last for up
 to 20 minutes
 - vasodílatíon = more blood to the area REDNESS



Vascular flare

- \diamond scratch the skin blanches
- ♦ FLARE
 - Enlarged arterioles redness





Acute Nerve Reflex Response ♦ Increased vessel permeability

♦ WHEAL localized swelling due to plasma leakage
♦ SWELLING





Acute Cellular Response \diamond hours to day ♦ Leukocytes: granulocytes and monocytes Platelets and/or fibrin formation \diamond swelling



Combination of increased intravascular blood cell and extravascular fluid accumulation

pressure causes heat



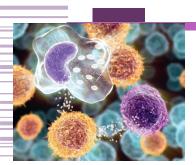


Combination of red cell increase, swelling, pressure increase, and damaged tissue

pain





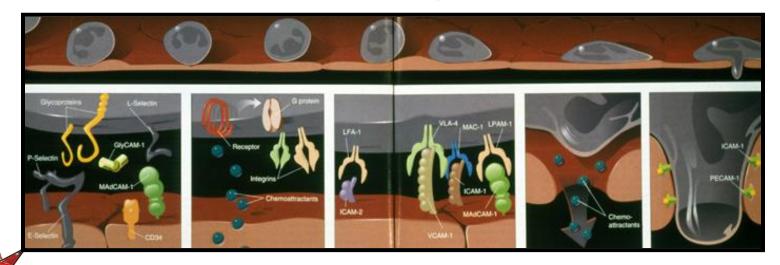


Holiday In By The Bay

Inflammation at the cellular level

Granulocytes

Diapedesis/chemotaxis





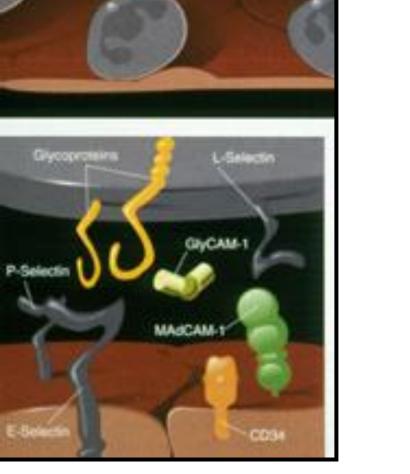
Inflammation at the Cellular level

Glycoproteins mannose, galactose, focuse and maybe glucose

> Bind to neuraminimic aid (sialic acid)residues

> Made in the liver Induced by Interleukin - 1

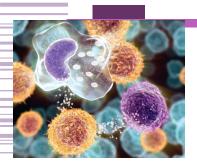




Inflammation at the Cellular level

Selectins and Adhesion molecules Tether granulocytes to site Regulates T lymph activity 1. Low expression-recognition 2. High expression-increased transcription and surface protein communication 3. Return to low-memory acquisition





Inflammation at the Cellular level

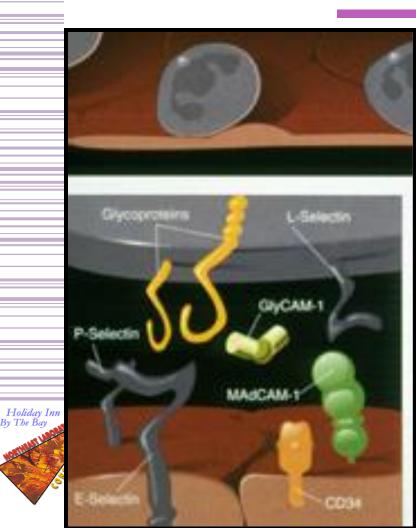


Glycosylation-dependent <u>cell</u> <u>adhesion molecule</u>-1

> Found in lymph node endothelial cells

Binds to L-Selectins to stimulate T lymphs



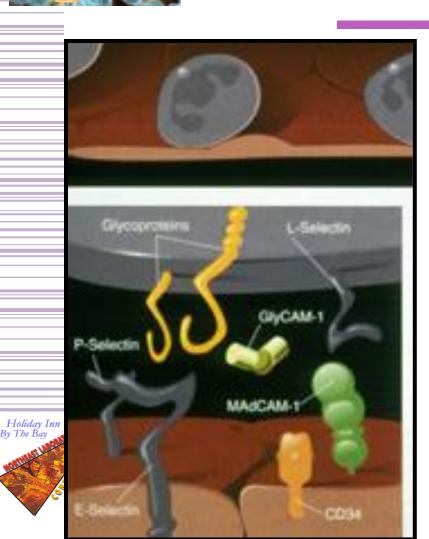


Inflammation at the Cellular level

E-Selectins Bind to neutrophils, monocytes, eosinophils, memory-effector T-like lymphocytes, and <u>natural killer</u> <u>cells</u>

Includes Lewis A and Lewis X





Inflammation at the cellular level

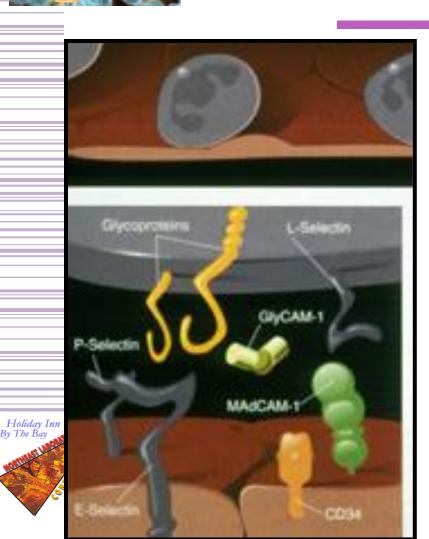
P-Selectins

Found on activated endothelial cells

Bind to neutrophils, monocytes, eosínophils

Stimulated by IL-4 and IL-13





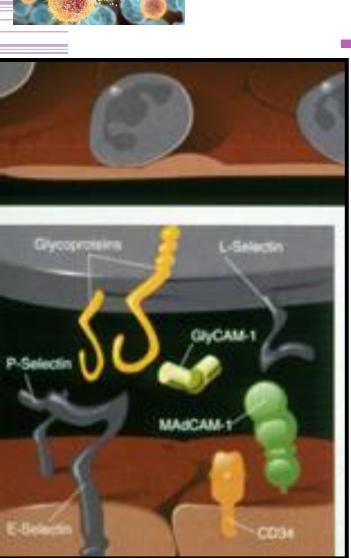
Inflammation at the Cellular level

Cell surface glycoprotein

Enhances individual cell migration and cell-to-cell adhesion

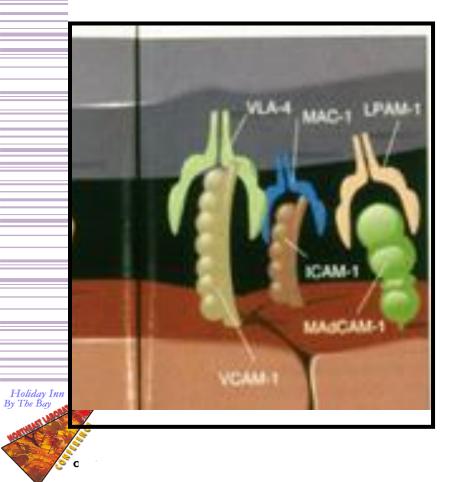


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Inflammation at the Cellular level

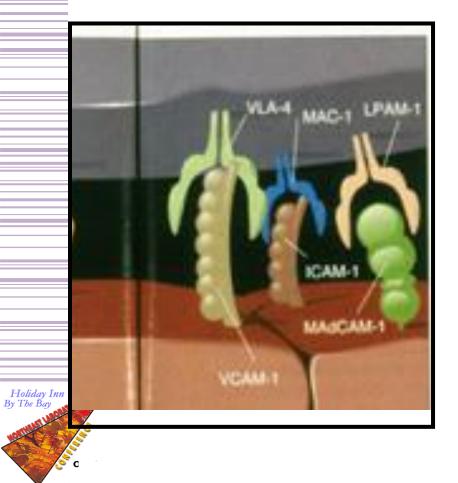


Varíous cell adhesion compounds cause granulocytes to engage in tight adhesion to blood vessel endothelíal wall



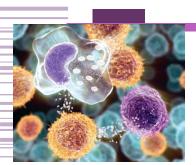


Inflammation at the Cellular level



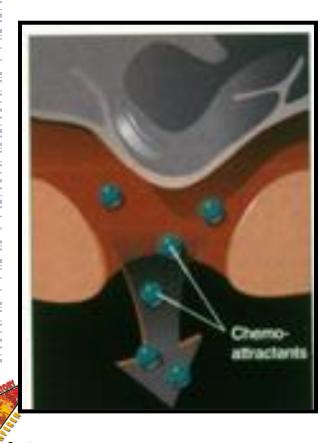
Various cell adhesion compounds cause granulocytes to engage in tight adhesion to blood vessel endothelial wall





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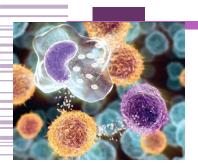
Inflammation at the Cellular level



Diapedesis/chemotaxis

Chemoattractants too many to list





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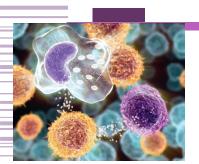
Inflammation at the Cellular level

Diapedesis / chemotaxis ICAM-1 cell surface glycoprotein expressed on endothelial cells

binds to granulocytes, Fibrinogen and Factor X







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Inflammation at the Cellular level



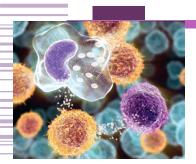
Diapedesis / chemotaxis PECAM-1

platelets, monocytes, neutrophils,

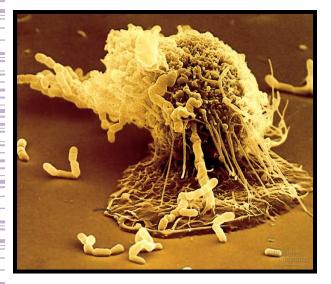
makes up a large portion of <u>endothelial</u> <u>intercellular junctions</u>

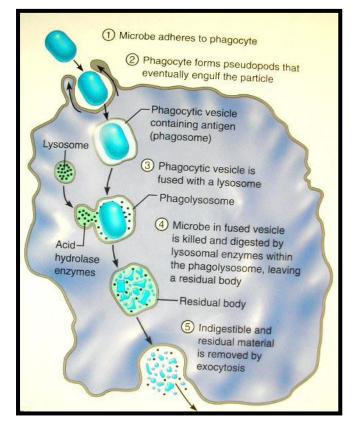
<u>leukocyte</u> transmigration, <u>angiogenesis</u>, and <u>integrin</u> activation





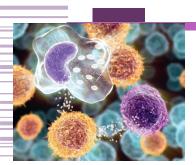
Inflammation at the Cellular level





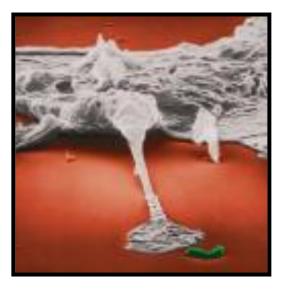






Inflammation at both visible and cellular level

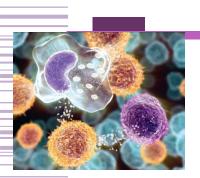
Granulocytes accumulation

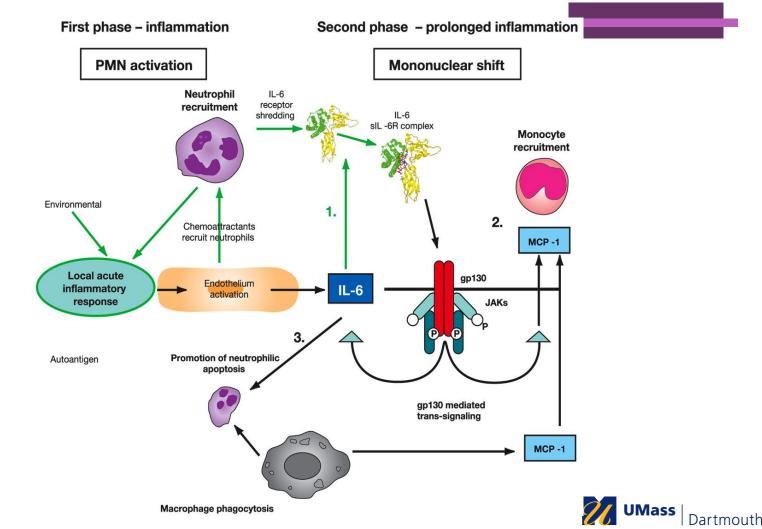


Dead and dying cells (pus) attract monocytes







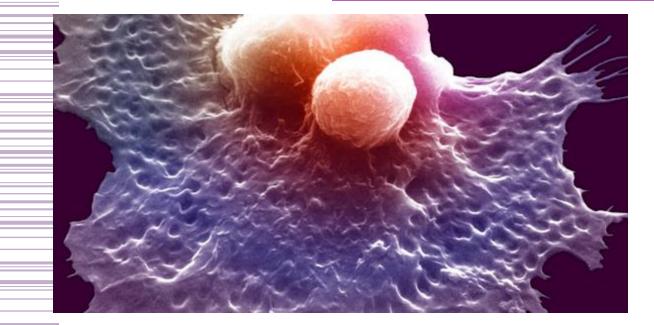






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Elimination prior to reapir



Removal of dead/dying cells occurs prior to replacement with newer cells

Prime time for re-injury

inappropriate replacement = scarring



Acute vs chronic

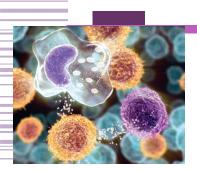
Chronic Inflammation

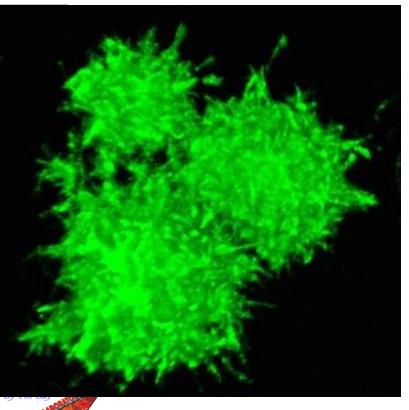
- The result of a balance between continuing tissue damage on the one hand and eradication of the damaging stimulus followed by healing and scar formation on the other
 - If the damaging stimulus eradicated or neutralized then further tissue necrosis does not occur and the repair response progresses to <u>complete scarring</u>
 - If the damaging stimulus cannot be eradicated or neutralized the balance between tissue damage and tissue repair is maintained in a stalemate and thus chronic inflammation will persist, often for years



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Dartmouth





Granulocytes transmit inflammation by releasing ASC specks (Apoptosis-associated Speck protein with a Capase Recruitment domain)

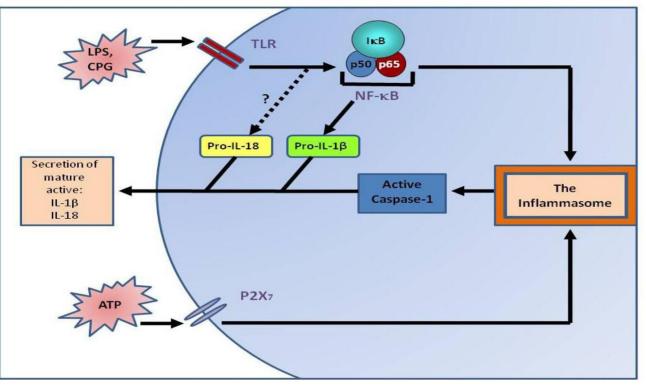
bacteria-sized clumps of protein key for cytokine maturation





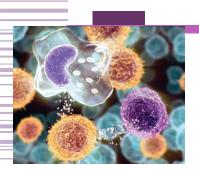


The release of the pro-inflammatory cytokines IL-1b and IL-18 in their mature/active forms is dependent upon the proteolytic cleavage of their precursors pro-IL-1b and pro-IL-18 by active Caspase-1. Caspase-1 itself must be cleaved from its precursor (pro-Caspase-1) by the inflammasome, a multimeric protein complex. This process is dependent upon 2 distinct signals. The first signal is the action of agonists on the TLR receptors, an example of this being LPS, leading to NFkB activation and formation of the IL-1b precursor finally driving the activation of the inflammasome. The second signal is the dependent on the activation of the ATP-dependent P2X7 purinoceptor, a ligand-gated ion channel, leading to K+ efflux driving the activation of the inflammasome.









ASC specks accumulate outside the cells at the same time the cells were undergoing pyroptosis, a strategic form of cell death that allows infected cells to kill themselves.

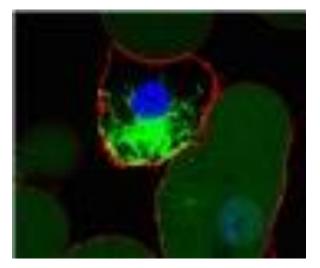




Proteín aggregates are components of inflammasomes, which sense pathogens and cell damage and set off innate immune inflammation



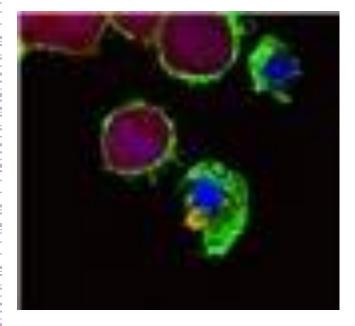




ASC specks stimulate $\|\lfloor 1 - \beta \|$ extracellularly. Macrophages ingest the ASC specks from the extracellular space



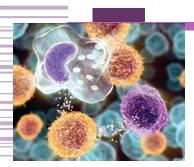




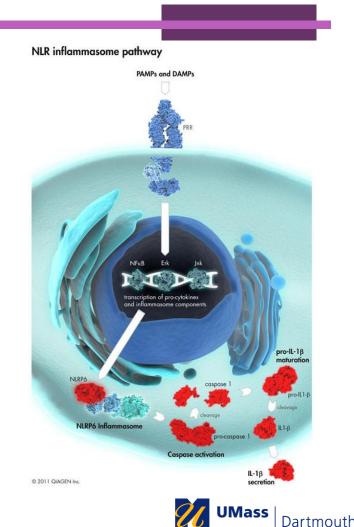
Macrophages can take up released ASC specks, perpetuating the immune response.





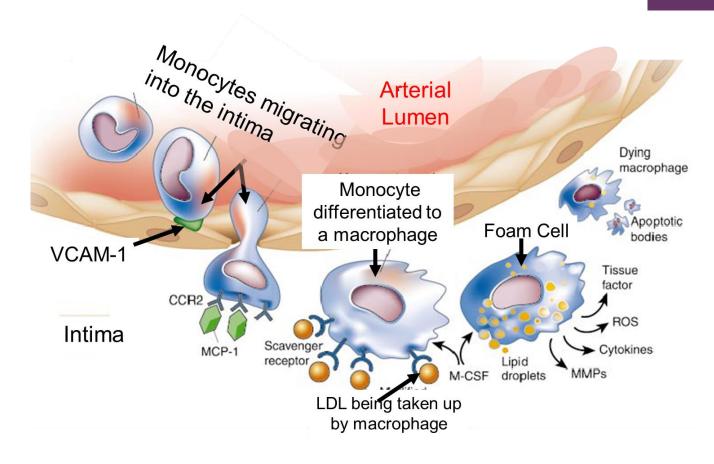


ASC specks activate macrophage inflammasomes, restarting the whole process and multiplying inflammation.



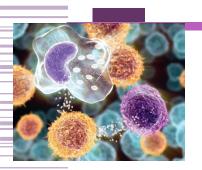


Atherosclerosis

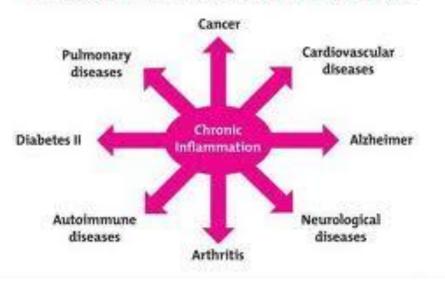




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Chronic Inflammation Can Lead To...









erythrocyte sedimentation rate

valid only if inflammation is present for more than ~1 week

valid as comparison only - not the specific value but the delta from the last time and the time before





Cross-Reactive Protein

reflects acute stages of inflammation limited associations with physical performance is associated with mortality risk







Interleukín 6

controls the transition from acute to chonic inflammation by changing from polymorphonuclear neutrophils to monocyte/macrophages.

exerts stimulatory effects on T- and B-cells, thus favoring chronic inflammatory responses.







Serum Amyloid

is positively associated with chronic inflammation such as Chronic Heart Disease

is lowered with anti-cholesterol medication use





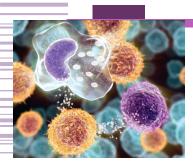
Testing?

We have

Individual cytokine release Multiplex cytokine profiling Superoxíde release Neutrophil elastase assay Cyclic nucleotide accumulation Gene expression profiling Cytotoxicity assays BUT expensive and time consuming ELISAs, Western blots and micro-arrays, real-time PCR, cell cytometry, manual patch clamping and specific activity assays



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Testing?

We will (eventually) have Soluble adhesion molecules E-selectin, P-selectin, intracellular adhesion molecule-1, vascular cell adhesion molecule-1 Cytokines interleukin-1 β , -6, -8, and -10 tumor necrosis factor- α

