

Inflammation

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A process known from ancient times, characterized by “cardinal signs”.

But WHY and HOW this process is activated?

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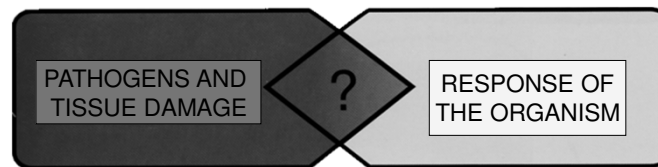
INFLAMMATION

INFLAMMATION IS A DEFENSE MECHANISM THAT CAN BE DEFINED AS “INNATE” (NOT ADAPTIVE)

– It is activated by cellular and tissue damages or signals caused by biological, chemical or physical insults

–The process is directed towards:

- 1) the elimination of the initial cause of the damage
- 2) the activation of tissue regeneration and healing



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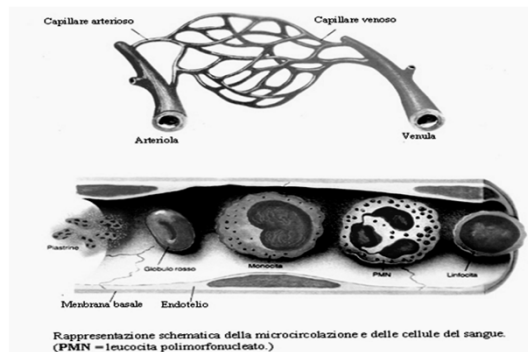
Causes of inflammation

- Microorganisms (bacteria, fungi, virus, worms, protozoa, insects)
- Toxic Agents
- Mechanical Agents (trauma)
- Thermal Agents
- Radioactivity
- Endogenous Toxins (uremia)
- Tumors
- Necrosis

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Inflammation as a Process

Inflammation is characterized by a dynamic sequence of phenomena that lead to a significant vascular reaction (at the level of the microcirculation) characterized by movement of fluids and leucocytes from the blood to the extravascular tissue.



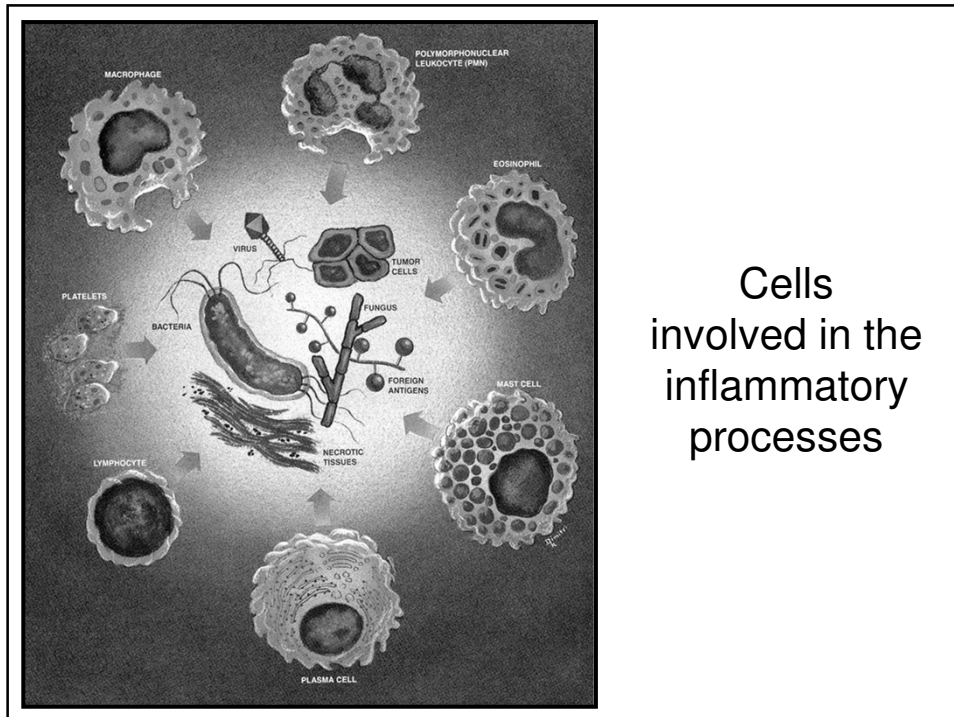
These events favor the action of components of the immunitary system on the site of the damage and activate the tissue reconstruction and healing of the damaged regions.

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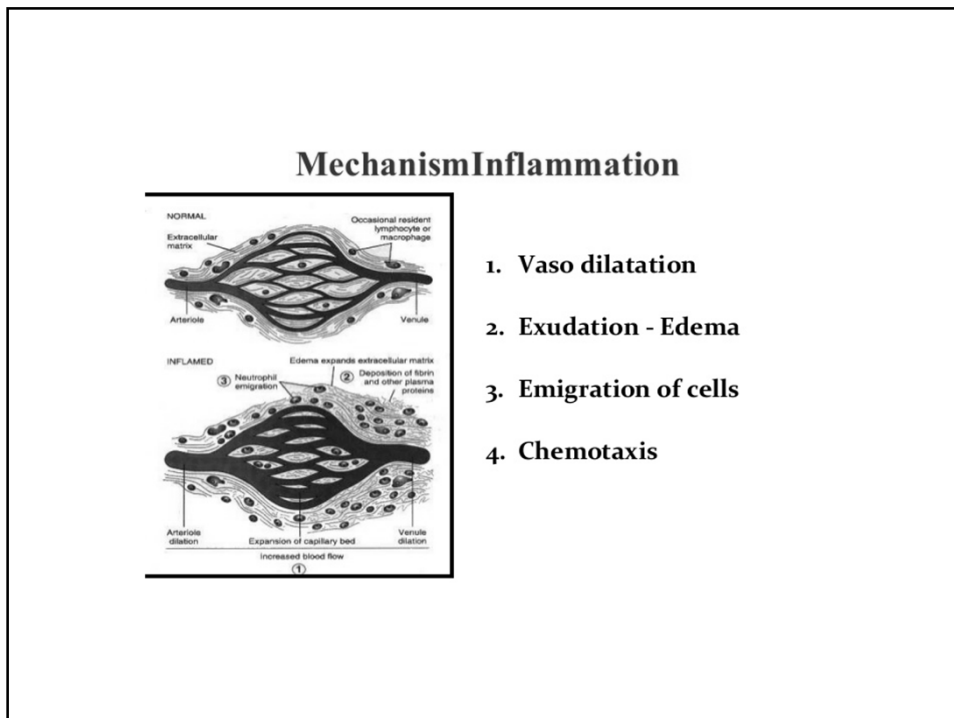
Inflammation

- Inflammation is a protective response of connective tissue to injury.
- Inflammation starts with recognition (sensing) of the injury and activation of endothelial cells and white blood cells.
 - Chemical mediators
 - Changes in vessels
 - Cellular events

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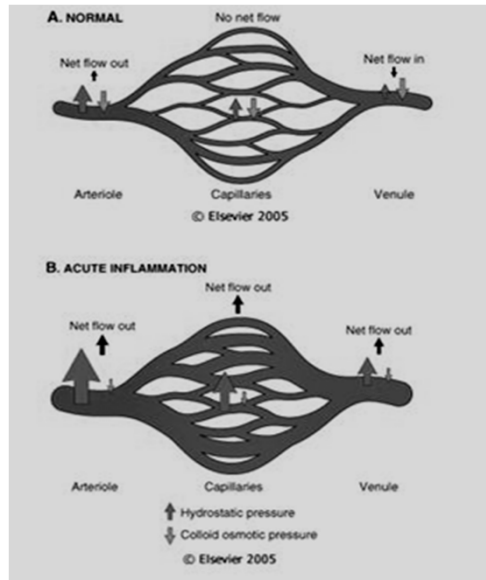


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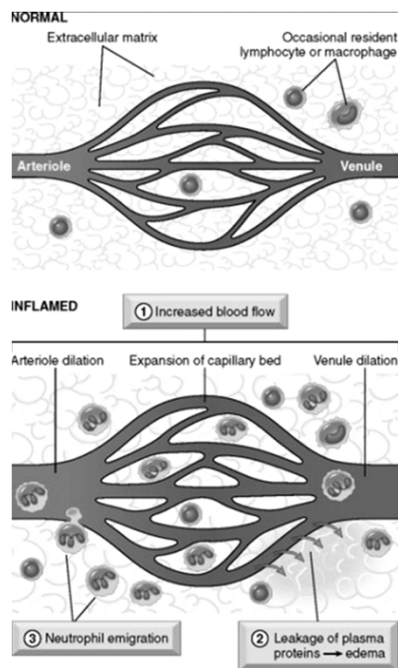
Vascular Changes



- increased vascular permeability and vessel dilatation

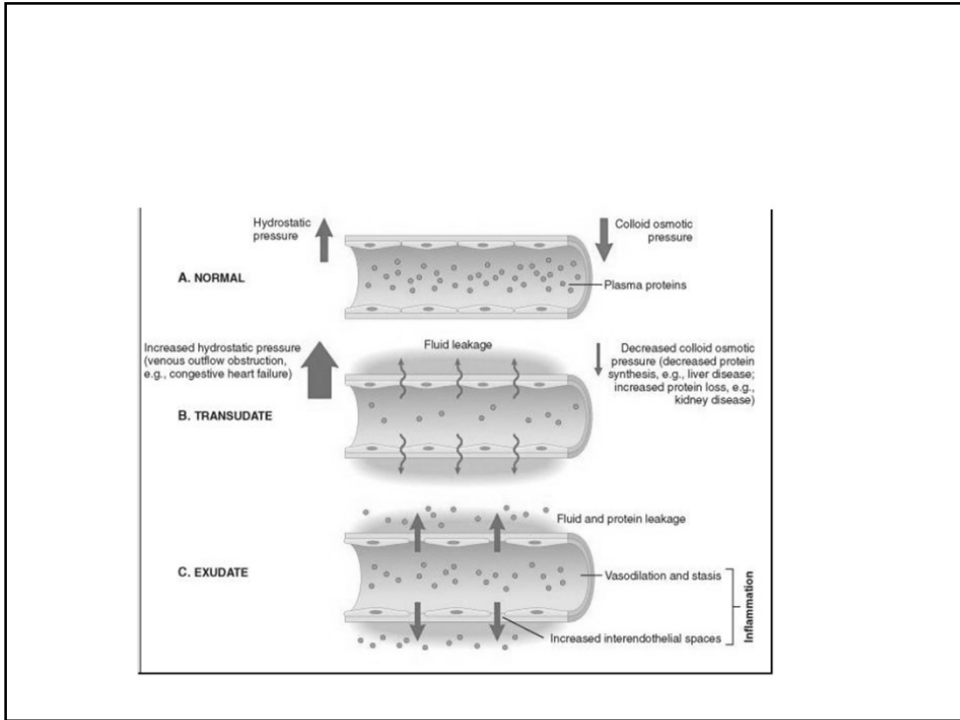
Colloid or oncotic pressure is the "pulling pressure" into a vessel. Depends on the protein concentration in the liquids. A higher protein content in the blood pulls more fluid into the vessel

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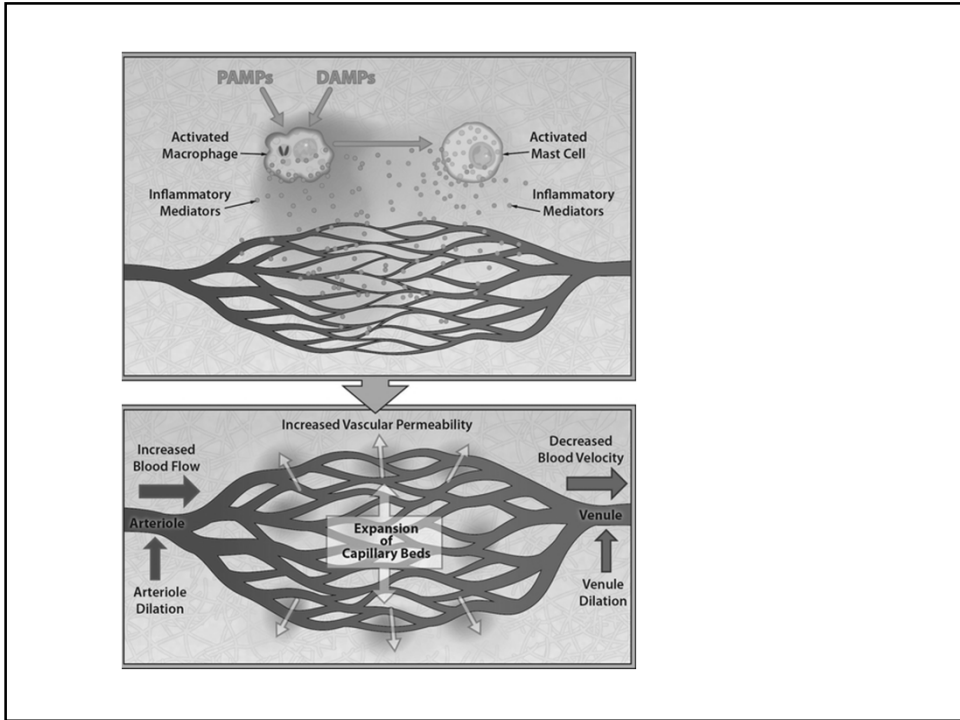


- increased vascular permeability and vessel dilatation.
- a protein rich fluid (exudate) from the blood entering the tissue,
- cellular infiltrate: the early arrival of neutrophils replaced later by macrophage and occasional lymphocytes, then fibroblasts for healing

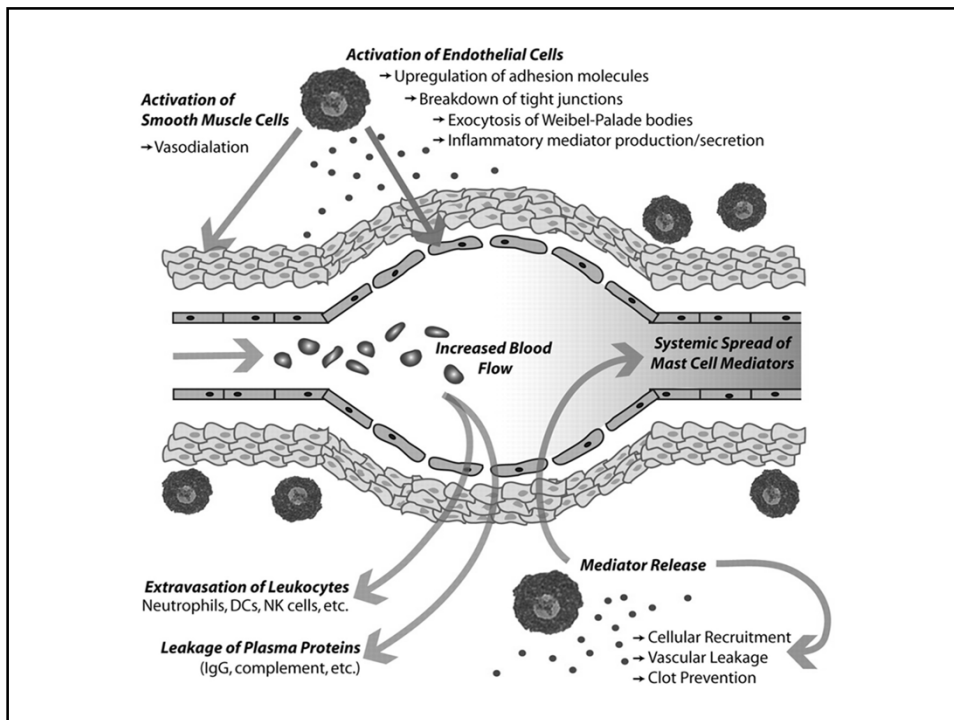
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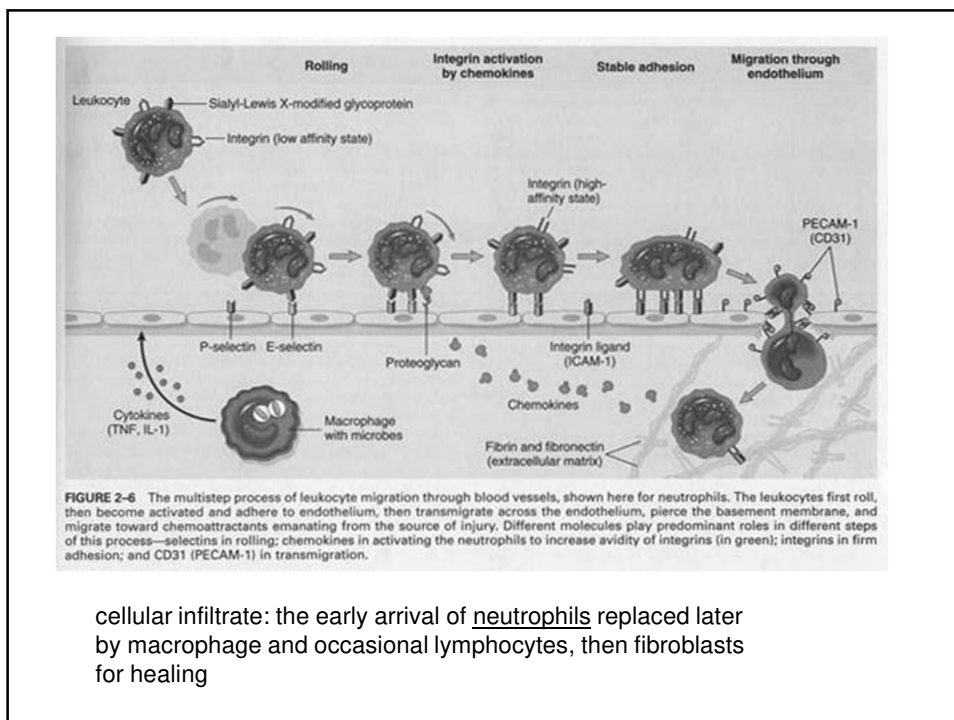
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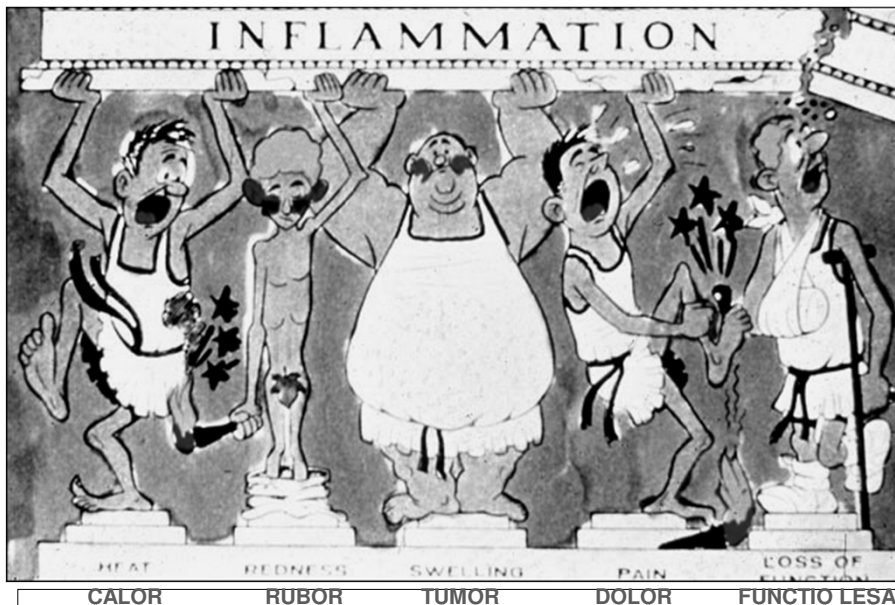
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Initial Results of Tissue Injury

- damaged tissue activates plasma enzyme systems
- broken or damaged blood vessels clot
- activated cells release proinflammatory mediators
 - preformed: histamine, serotonin, lysosomal enzymes
 - newly synthesized: cytokines, lipid products, nitric oxide
- neurological responses (pain)
 - pressure, damaged nerves, prostaglandins, bradykinin

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The Five Cardinal Signs of Acute Inflammation



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Other clinical signs associated with inflammation

- mucus production
 - (mast cells-histamine-mucus glands)
- smooth muscle contraction (spasmogens), e.g. bronchoconstriction
- systemic acute phase reactions
 - elevated ESR (erythrocyte sedimentation rate)
 - iron is sequestered (“anemia of inflammation”)
 - fever (cytokines)

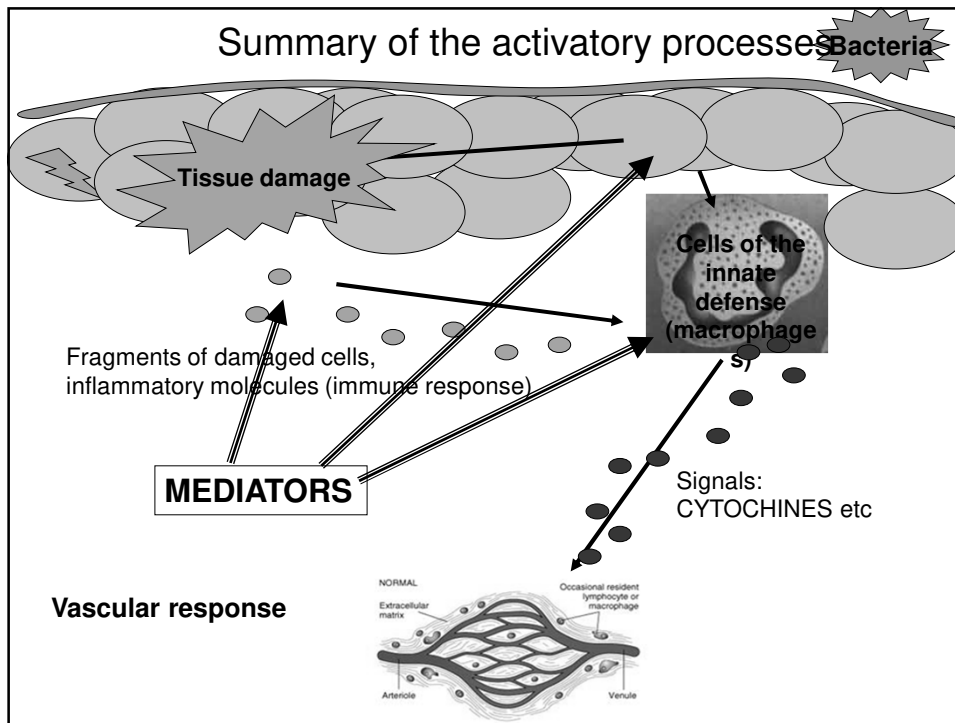
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ACCORDING TO THE PERSISTANCE OF THE PROCESS,
INFLAMMATION CAN BE DEFINED AS:

ACUTE: THE PROCESS IS EXTINGUISHED IN HOURS OR
IN FEW DAYS

CHRONIC: THE PROCESS PERSISTS FOR WEEKS OR
LONGER

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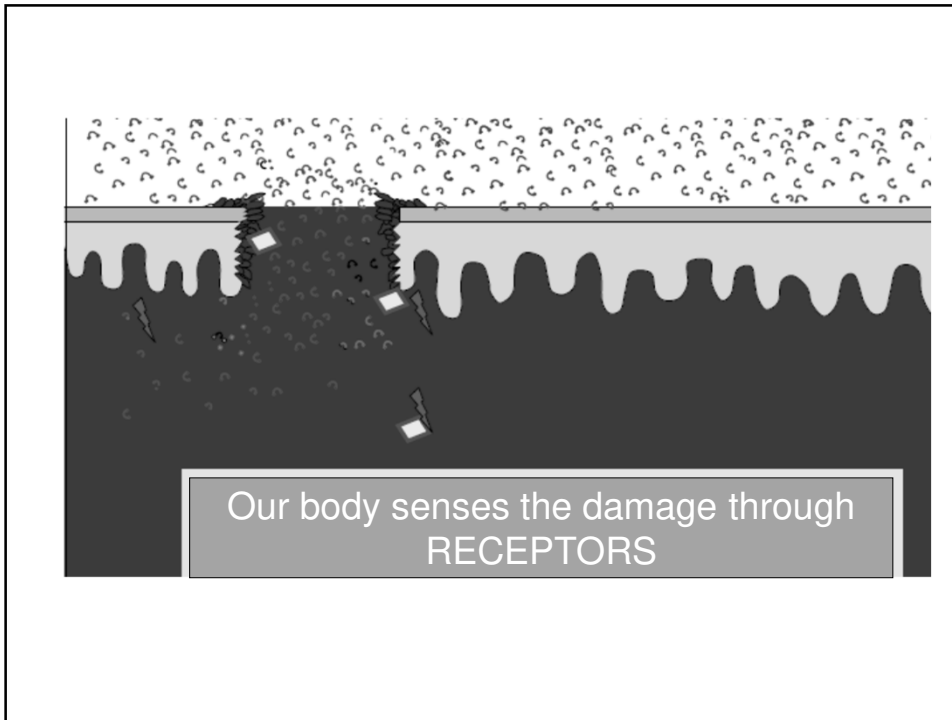


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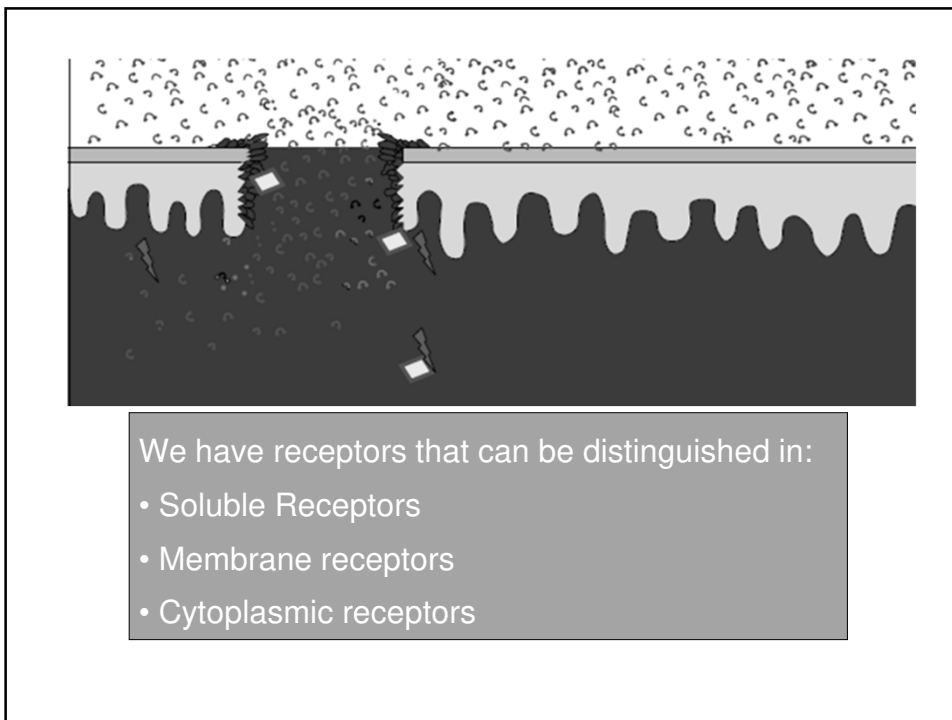
Receptors of the immune response and of inflammation

The immune system and the innate immunitary responses share with the inflammatory processes not only cells and mechanisms, but also **RECEPTORS**

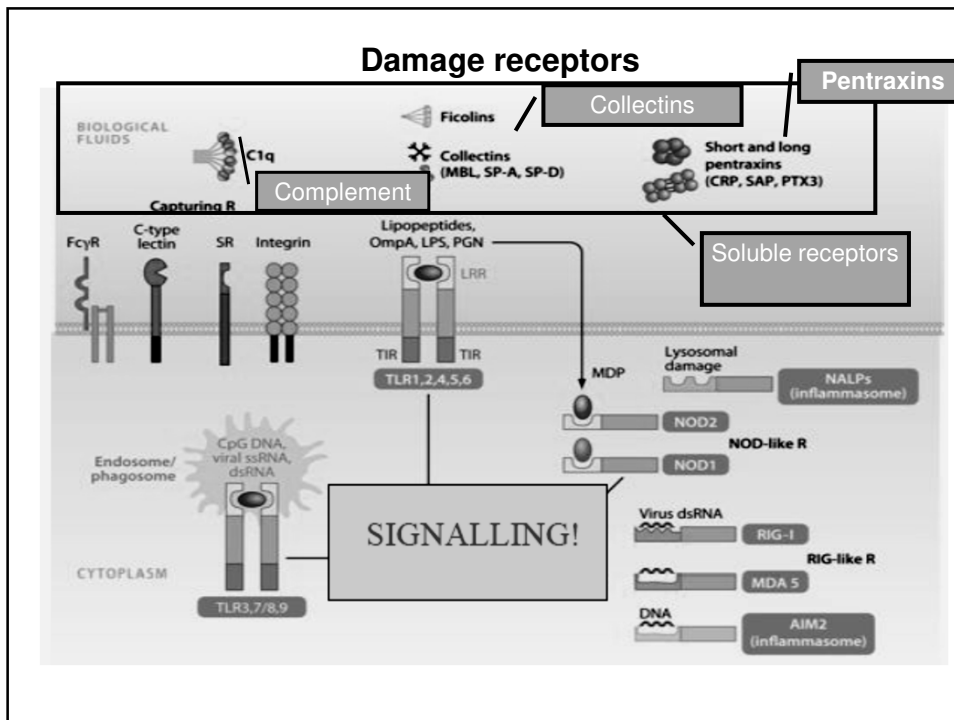
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The complement system

The complement system is an essential element of the defense mechanisms against infectious agents.

It is constituted by a group of circulating and membrane proteins, capable of interacting with each other and with cell membranes.

The activation cascade of its soluble proteins (ie C1, C2 ... C9) is the basis of mechanism of cell lysis: these are introduced in the membranes of pathogens causing pores on them leading to lysis.

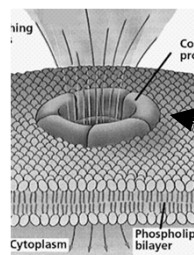
During activation of the complement there is also the recruitment and activation of various immune system cells (lymphocytes).

There are three different mechanisms of activation:

a) Classic pathway

b) Alternative pathway

c) Lectins pathway



PORUS,
Complements proteins
C5b, C6, C7, C8, C9

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Complement's two major functions:

1. Alter biological membranes to cause direct cell lysis or enhanced susceptibility to phagocytosis.
2. Promote the inflammatory response.

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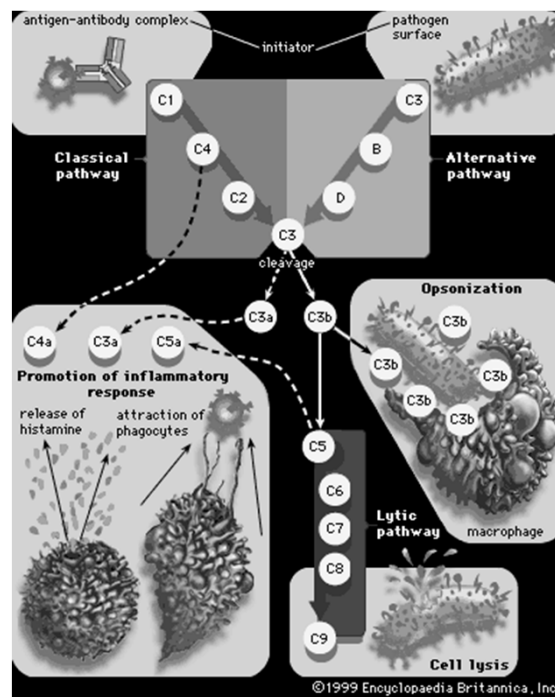
General Properties of Complement

- Primary role is cell lysis.
- Activity of complement destroyed by heating sera to 56 C for 30 minutes.
- IgM and IgG are the only immunoglobulin capable of activating complement (classical pathway).
- Complement activation can be initiated by complex polysaccharides or enzymes (alternative pathway).
- Portions of the complement system contribute to chemotaxis, opsonization, immune adherence, anaphylatoxin formation, virus neutralization, and other physiologic functions

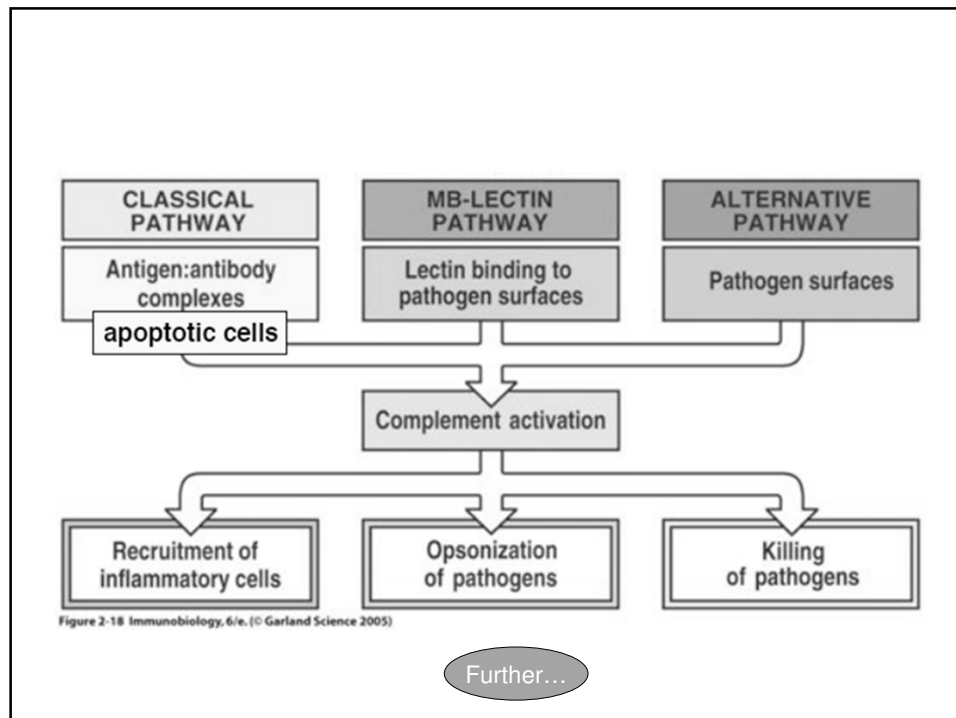
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C1q is part of the C1-complex. C1q can bind to the antibodies IgM and IgG

Complement



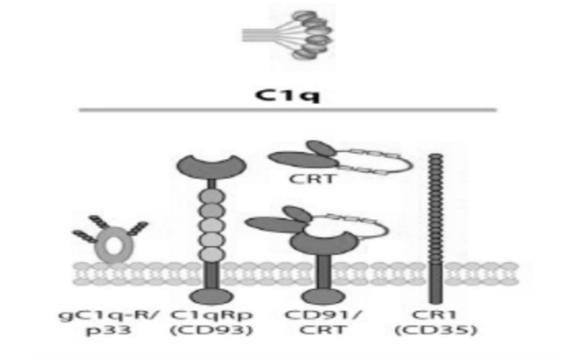
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C1q binds to a wide range of cell types (PMN, monocytes, lymphocytes, DCs, ECs, and platelets), resulting in the induction of cell-specific biological responses, which include phagocytosis, chemotaxis, the generation of procoagulant activity, activation of ECs, and enhancement of FcγR- and CR1-mediated phagocytosis and superoxide production.

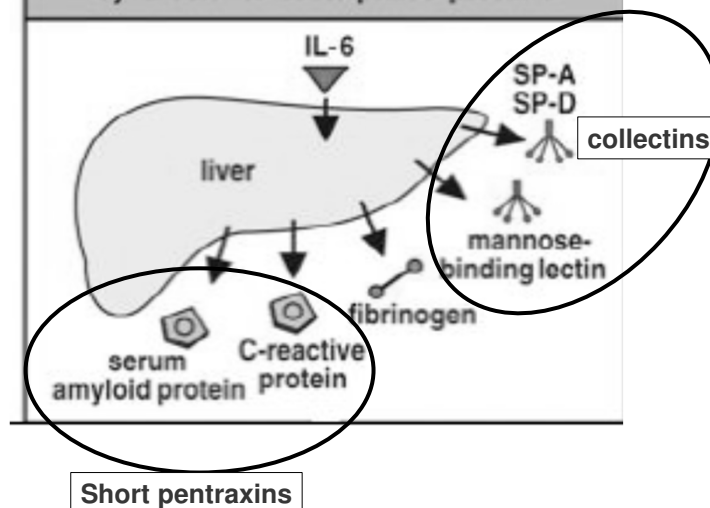
Receptors for C1q humoral complement factor !



To date, investigators have described four types of C1q-binding proteins/receptors expressed on the cell surface. These include cC1q-R/calreticulin (CRT), a 60-kDa protein ; gC1q-R/p33, a 33-kDa homotrimeric protein; C1q-Rp (CD93), a 120-kDa O-sialoglycoprotein; and CR1 (CD35), the receptor for C3b. In addition to C1q, CRT reportedly serves as a receptor for collectins, such as the MBL, SP-A, SP-D, CL-43, and conglutinin, and, in association with CD91, initiates macropinocytosis and phagocytosis of apoptotic cells

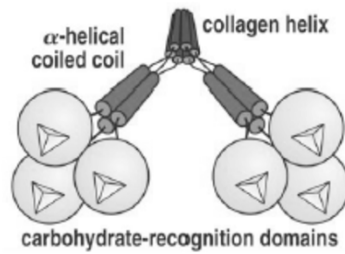
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Bacteria induce macrophages to produce IL-6, which acts on hepatocytes to induce synthesis of acute-phase proteins



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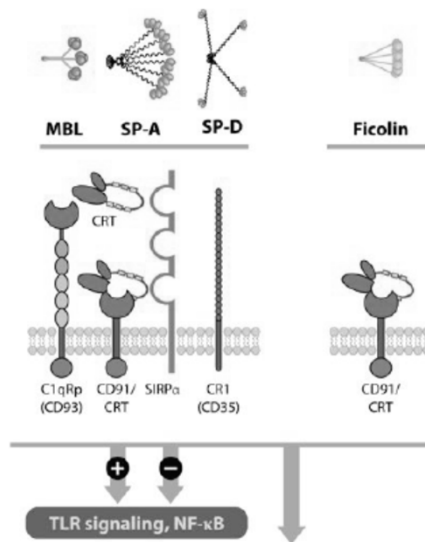
Family of Collectins



MBL
SPA
SPD
FICOLIN

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Receptors for humoral collectins



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MBL binds mannose and fucose and activate complement and fagocitosis

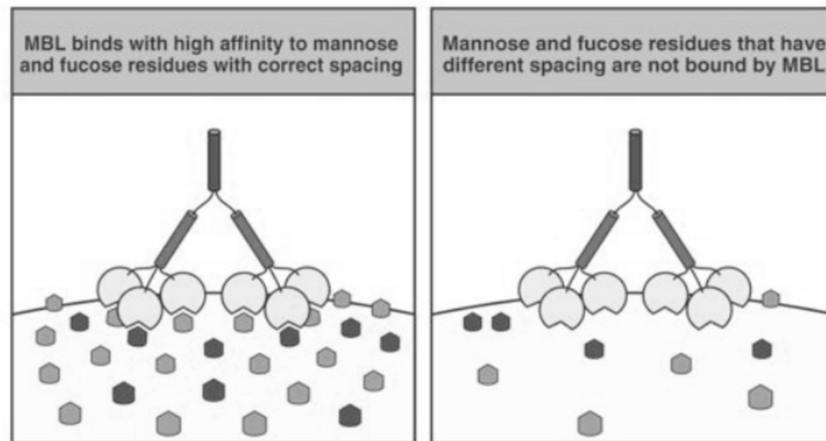
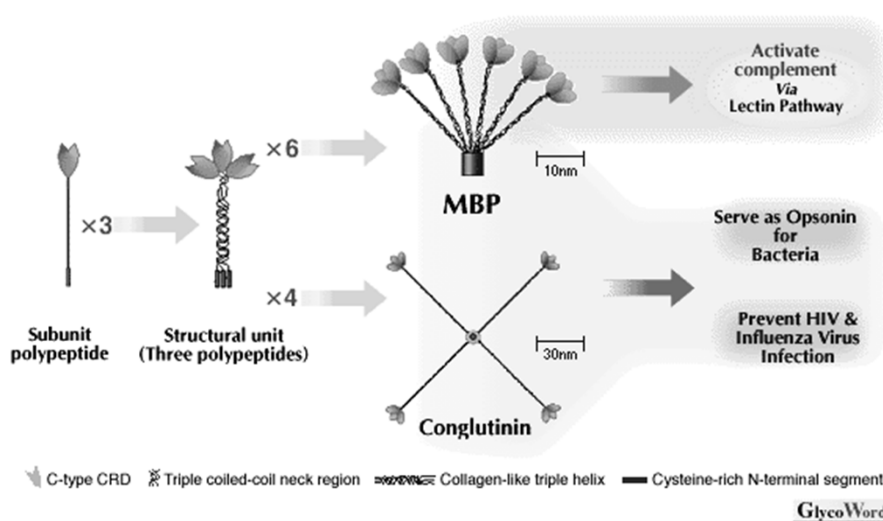


Figure 2-11 part 2 of 2 Immunobiology, 6/e. (© Garland Science 2005)

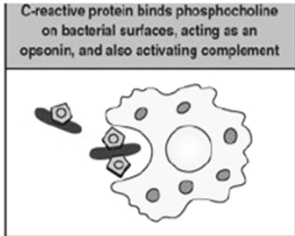
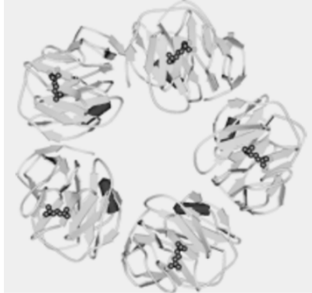
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Molecular structures and biological activities of collectins (MBP and conglutinin)

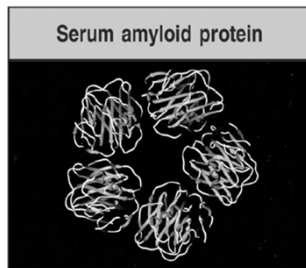


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C-Reactive Protein (CRP)

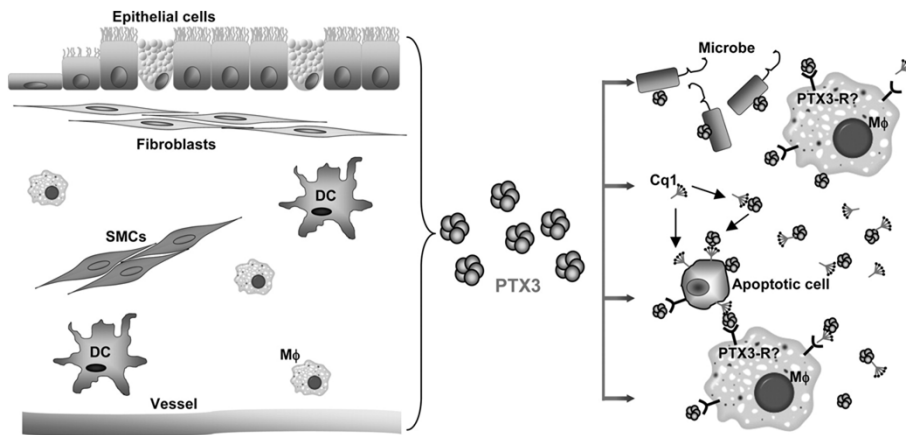


Crystal structure of C-reactive protein complexed with phosphocholine

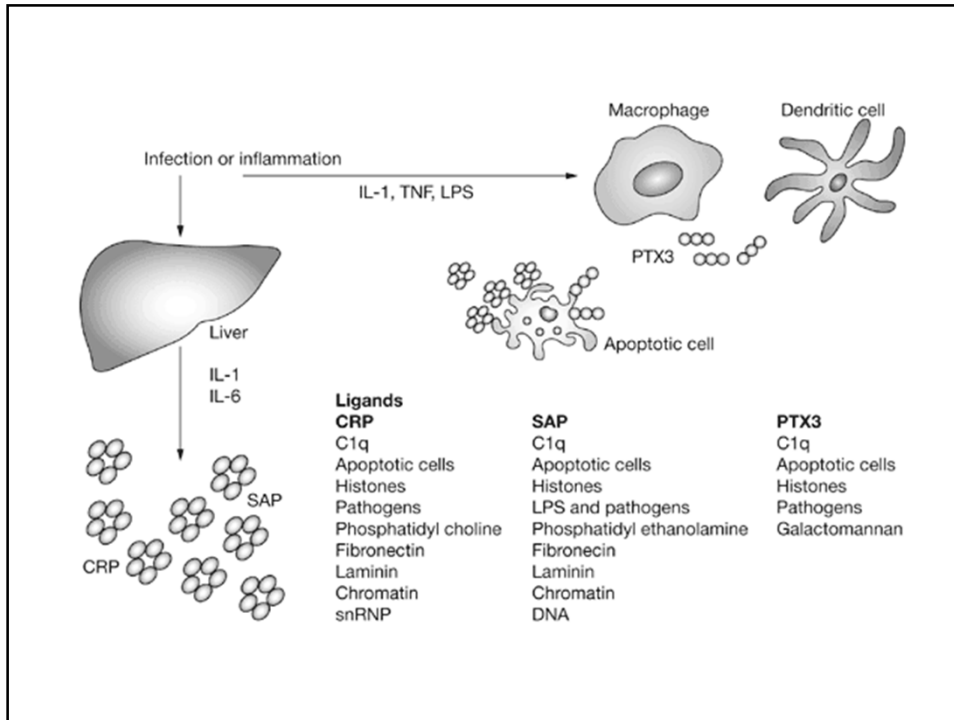


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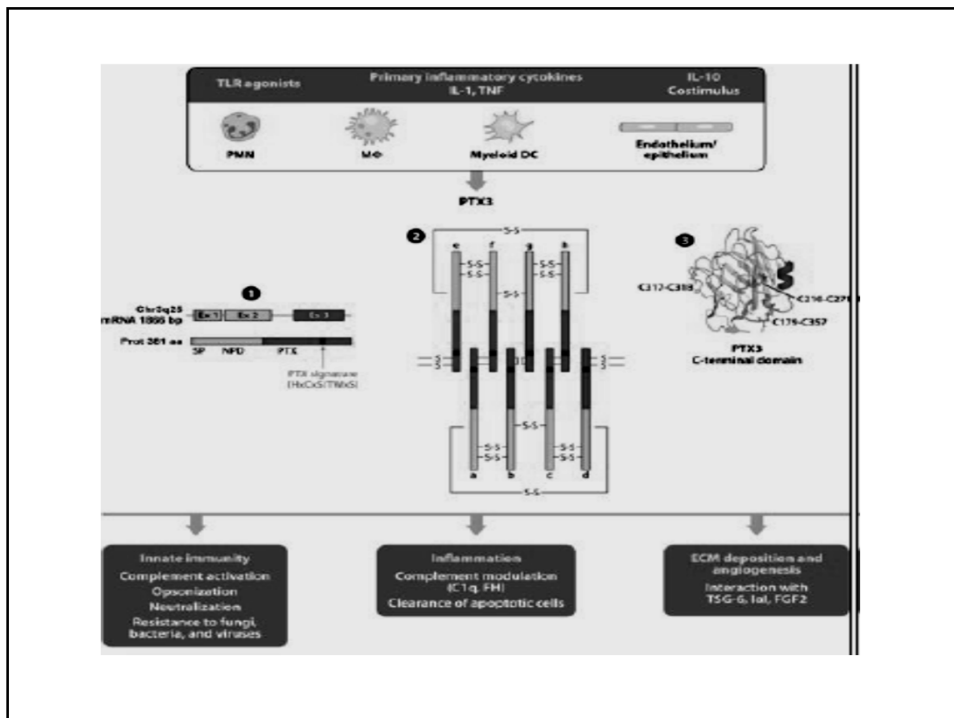
Long pentraxins are produced outside the liver



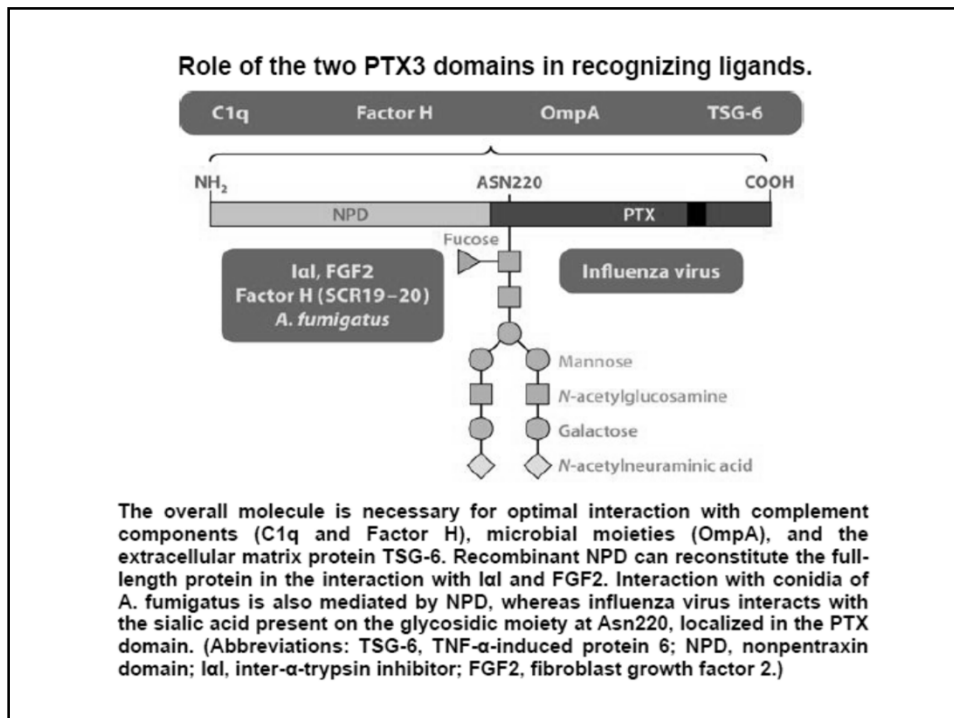
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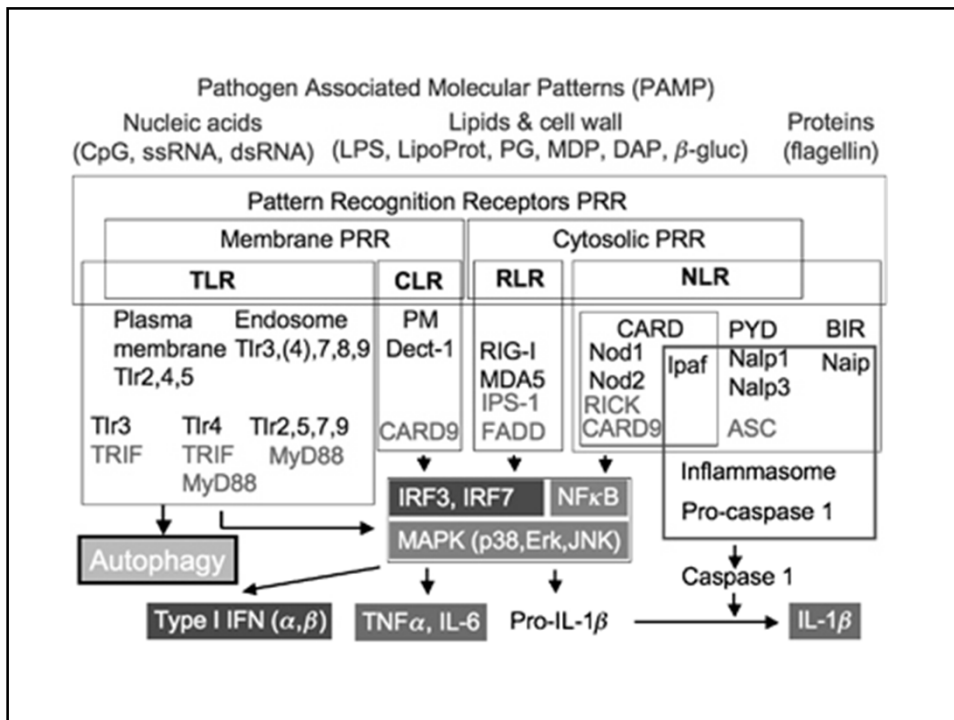


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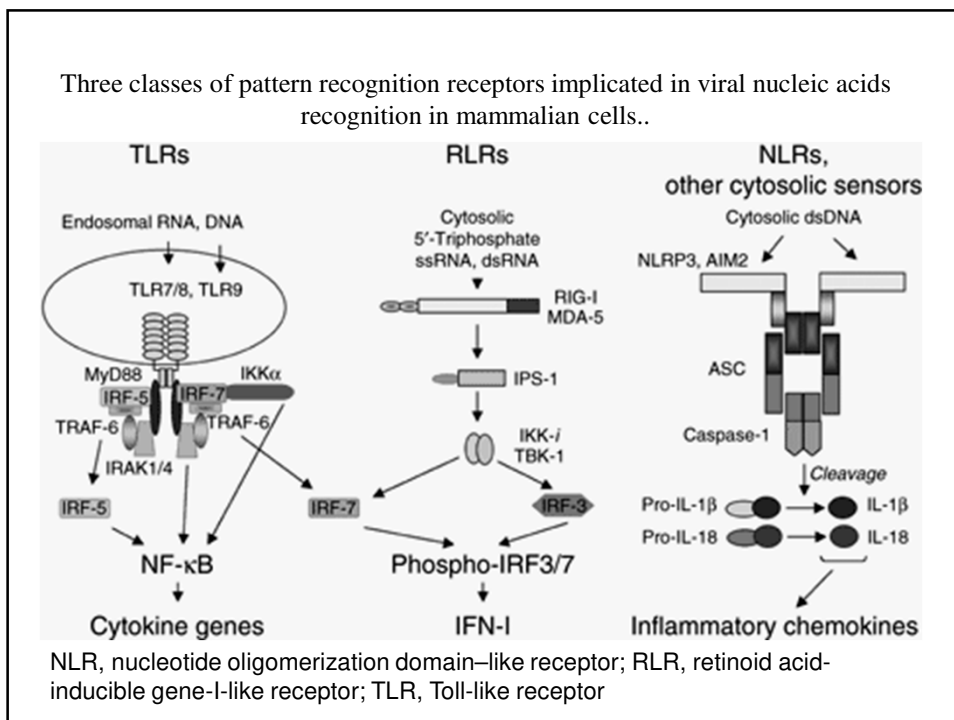
Several of these receptors are “specific” and recognize conserved microbial structures:

They are defined **Pattern recognition receptors (PRRs)**

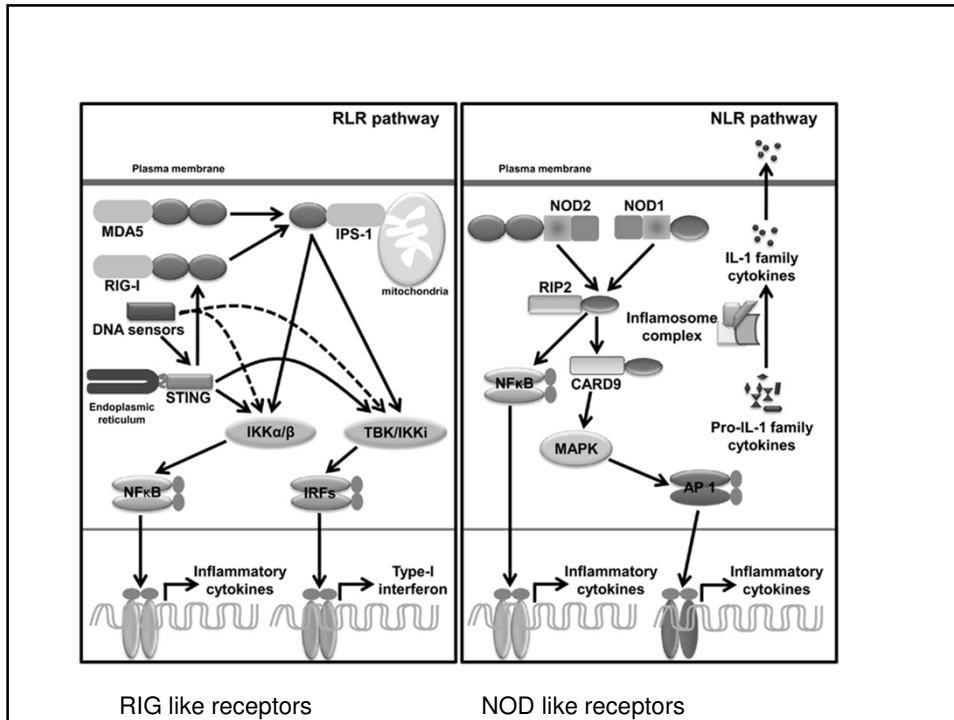
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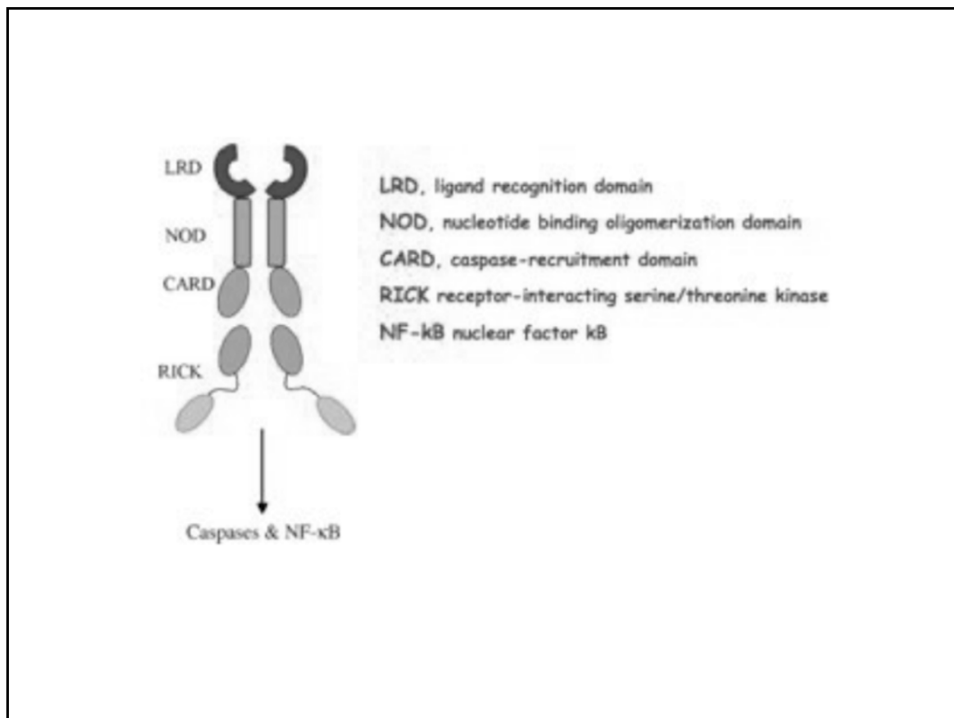
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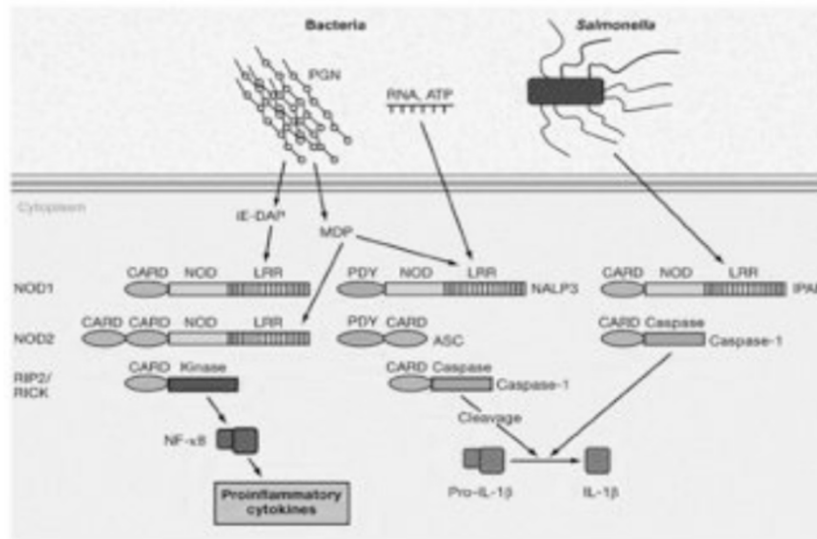


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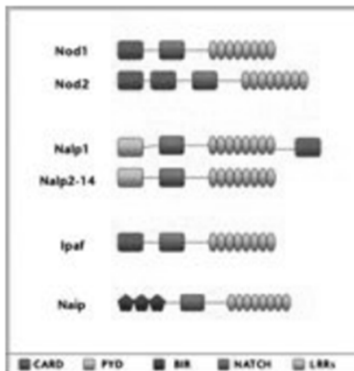
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NOD - Pathogens associated molecular patterns recognized in the cytosol



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Nalp3 seems to respond to a multitude of agonists from both microbial and host origin, including bacterial RNA and imidazoquinolone compounds, dsRNA from viruses, uric acid, and K⁺ cellular efflux, which can arise from the insertion of a bacterial toxin through the plasma membrane. The fact that Nalp3 seems to be activated in response to uric acid, a host molecule released into the extracellular milieu by necrotic cells, and by potassium efflux, suggest that this NLR may trigger the detection of danger signals, in addition to microbe-derived stimuli.



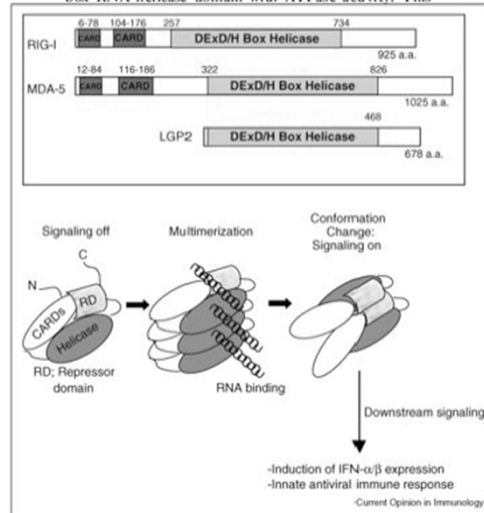
NLRP3 (also known as NALP3 or cryopyrin) is a known mediator of bacterial and chemical triggers of inflammation, including ATP and uric acid [31]. NLRP3, with its adaptor molecule, apoptotic speck-like protein containing a CARD (ASC) and caspase 1, make up the NLRP3 inflammasome [31]. The NLRP3 inflammasome

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Recognition of RNA viruses by RLRs

The RLR family consists of three members: retinoic acid-inducible gene 1 (RIG-I), melanoma differentiation-associated gene 5 (MDA5) and laboratory of genetics and physiology 2 (LGP2) [1]. RIG-I and MDA5 contain two N-terminal caspase activation and recruitment domains (CARDs), which are essential for their signaling activity. All three molecules have an internal DExD/H-box RNA helicase domain with ATPase activity. This



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Table 1

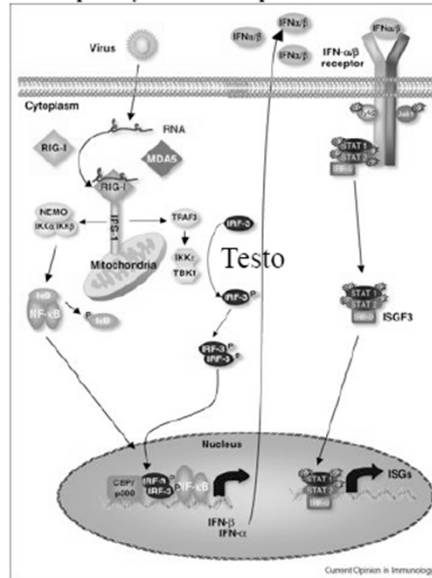
Specificity of RIG-I like receptors for virus recognition

Virus	Genome RNA	Host cytosolic PRR
Vesicular stomatitis virus	Nonsegmented negative-sense, single strand	RIG-I
Respiratory syncytial virus	Nonsegmented negative-sense, single strand	RIG-I
Influenza A virus	Eight RNA segments, negative-sense, single strand	RIG-I
Ebola virus	Nonsegmented negative-sense, single strand	RIG-I
Reovirus	Ten double-stranded segments	RIG-I and MDA5
Hepatitis C virus	Nonsegmented positive-sense, single strand	RIG-I
Dengue virus	Nonsegmented positive-sense, single strand	RIG-I and MDA5
West Nile virus	Nonsegmented positive-sense, single strand	RIG-I and MDA5
Polio virus	Nonsegmented positive-sense, single strand	MDA5

Summarized from Ref. [1].

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The RLR signaling pathway showing RIG-I bound to ligand RNA and signaling downstream to IRF3 and NF- κ B to induce IFN-a/b production from a virus-infected cell. IFN-a/b is then shown signaling through the IFN-a/b receptor and the Jak-STAT pathway to drive ISG expression and an innate immune response.



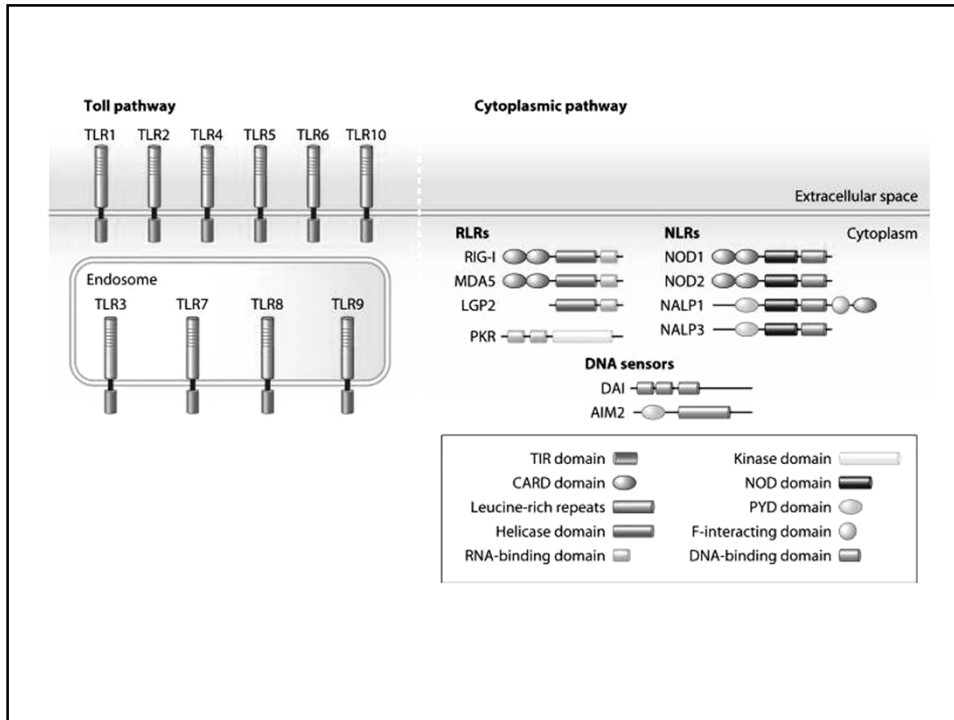
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Membrane-bound receptors of inflammation and natural immunity

- Receptors for formylated peptides
- C-type lectin receptor (e.g. Mannose)
- Scavenger receptors
- Toll-like receptors
- Immunoglobulin FC receptors
- Complement receptors
- Integrin receptors

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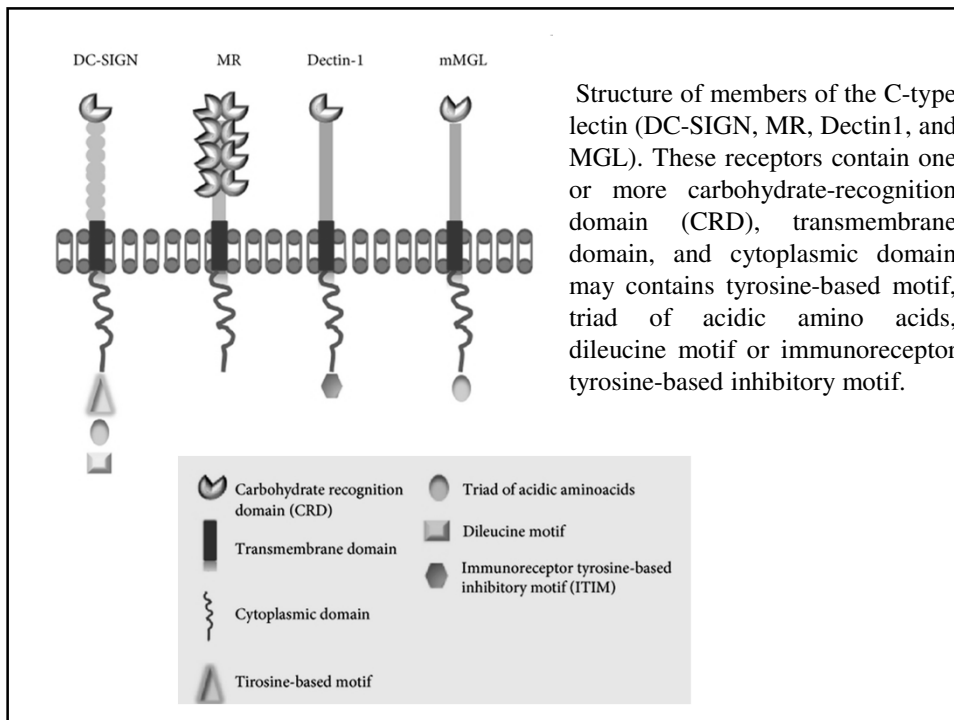


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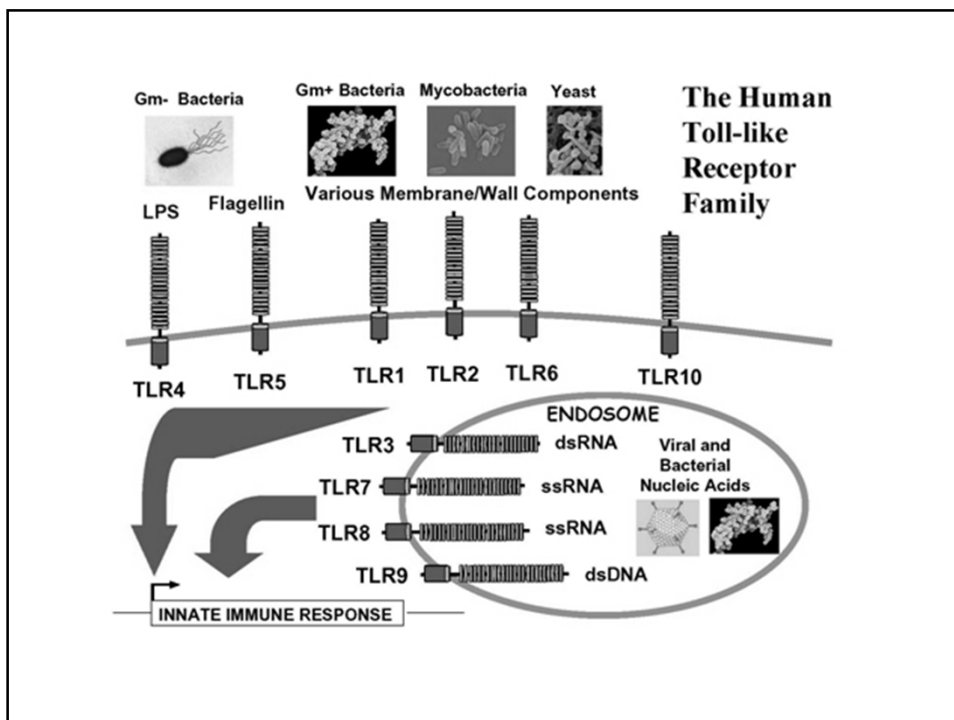
Recognition of PAMPs from different pathogens

	Viruses	Gram-positive bacteria	Gram-negative bacteria	Fungi	Protozoa
PAMPs	GP, DNA, RNA	DNA, LP, PG, LTA	DNA, Porin, PG, LPS, Flagellin	Zymosan, Mannan, β -glycan	GPI anchors, DNA
TLRs:	TLR2, 4, TLR9, TLR3, 7/8	TLR9, TLR2, TLR2, TLR2	TLR9, TLR2, TLR2, TLR4, TLR5	TLR2, TLR2, TLR2,4	TLR9, TLR2,4
RLRs:					
NLRs:	NALP3, NALP3	NALP3, NOD2, NALP1/3	NALP3, NOD2, NALP1/3, IPAF		
DNA sensors:	+	+	+		

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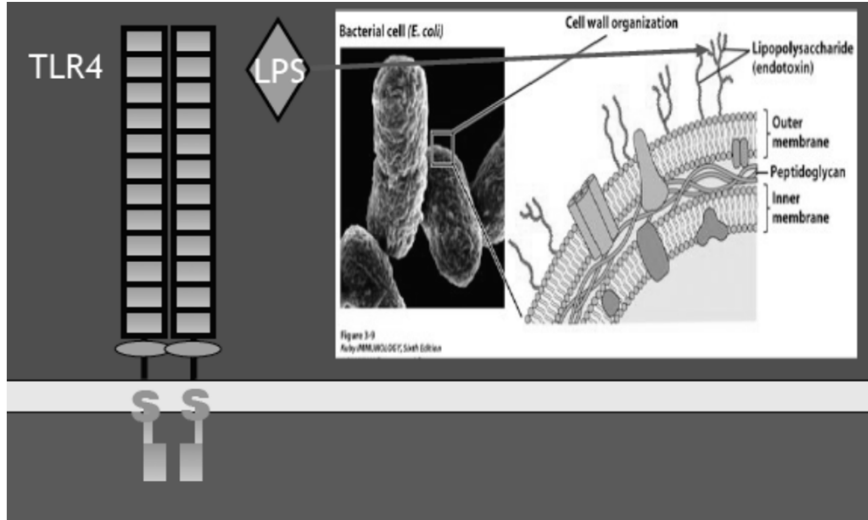


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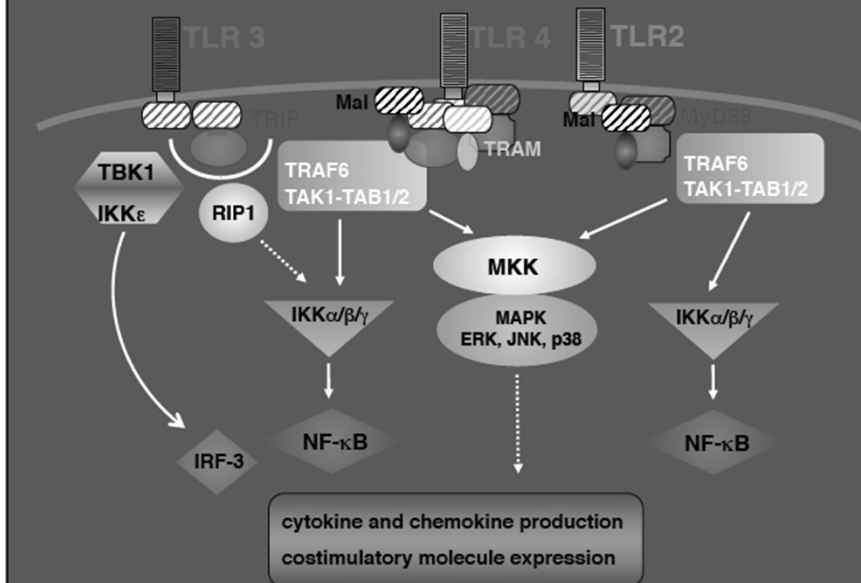
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TLR4 is essential for the recognition of the LPS structure

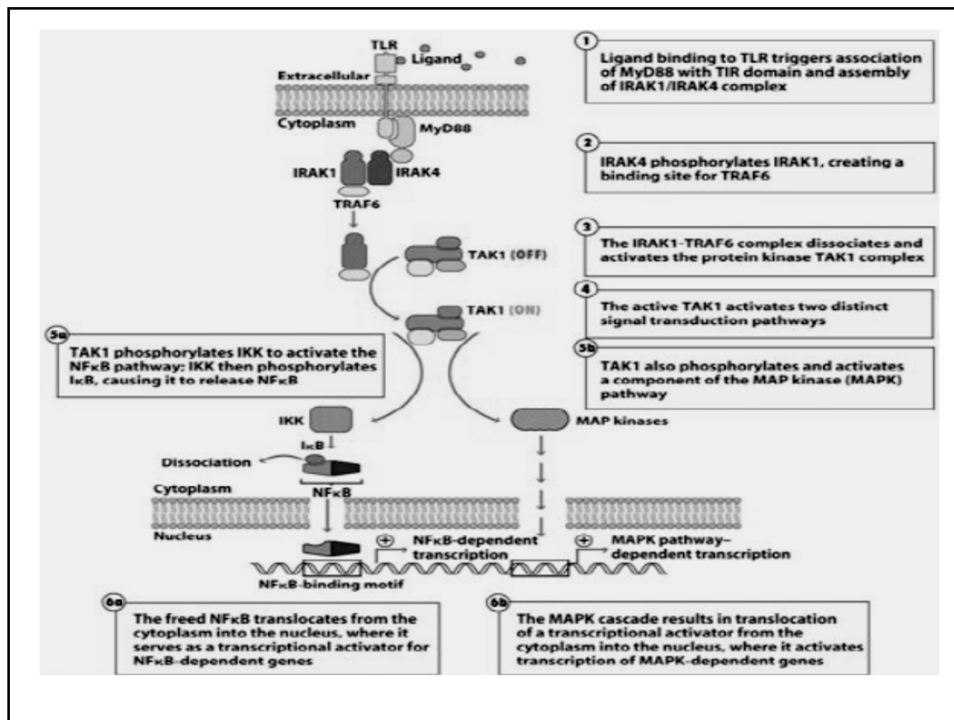


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TLR-INITIATED SIGNAL TRANSDUCTION PATHWAYS!



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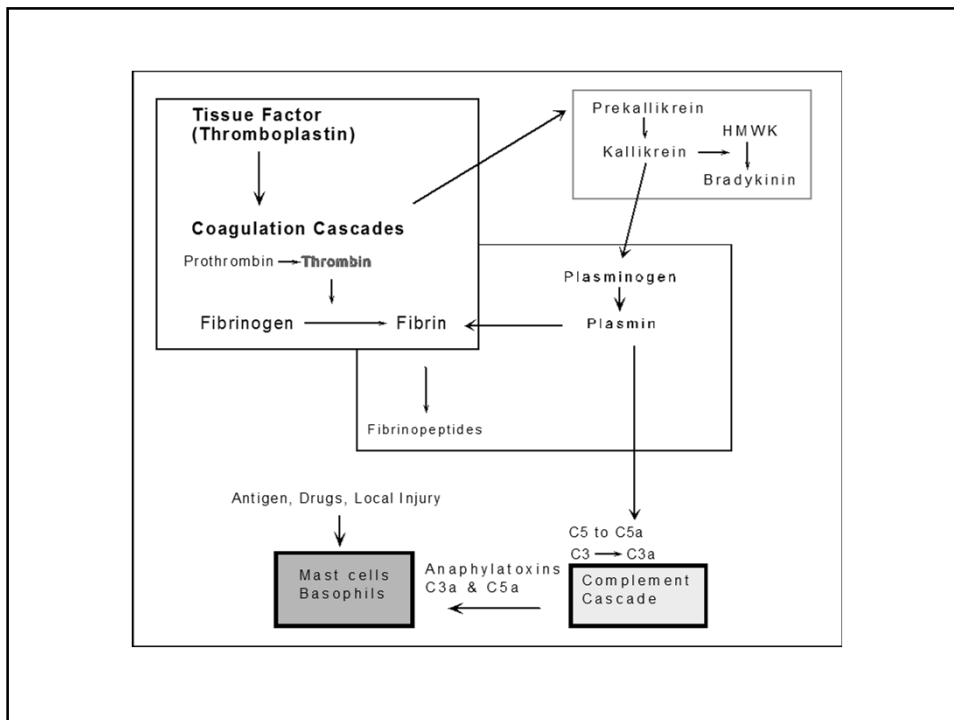
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Interrelated Plasma Enzyme Systems Related to Injury

These cascading enzyme systems are interrelated, proinflammatory, and active during tissue injury:

- Coagulation pathways
- Kinin system
- Fibrinolytic reaction
- Complement fixation

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Complement's role in Inflammation

Cellular interactions

CR1, MCP (CD46), CR3, CR4, CR2, C3aR, C5aR, C9

Host cell

- Adhesion
- Phagocytosis
- Clearance

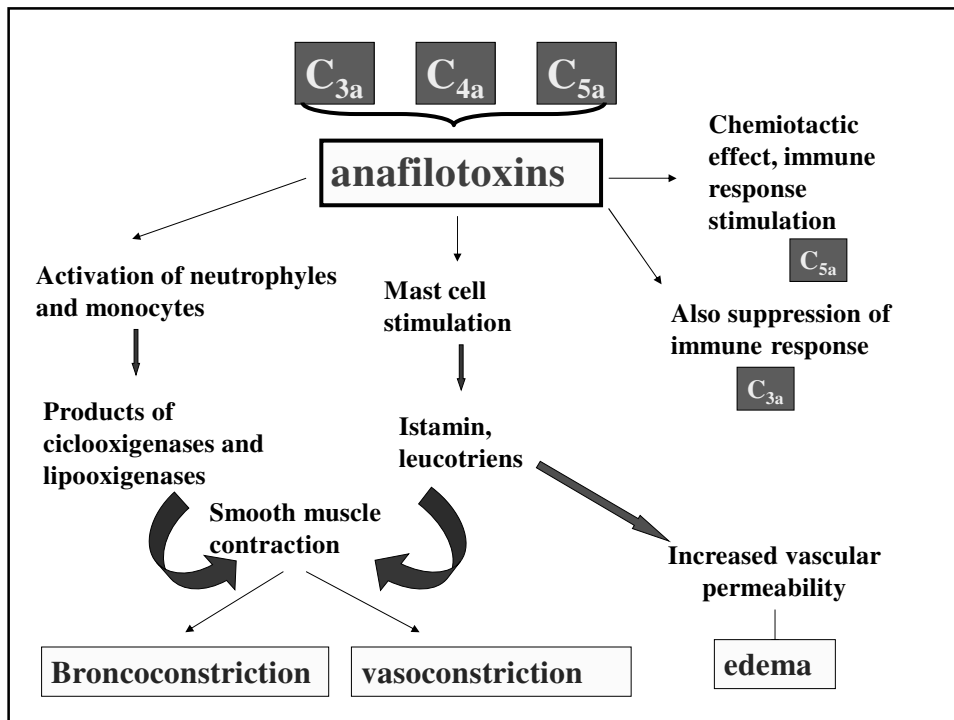
Host cell

- Activation
- Chemotaxis
- Degranulation

C3a, C4a and C5a are also called **anaphylatoxins**: they cause smooth muscle contraction, histamine release from mast cells, and enhanced vascular permeability. They also mediate chemotaxis, inflammation, and generation of cytotoxic oxygen radicals. C4a is less active.

[Back..](#)

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Biological Activities of Complement

- anaphylatoxins/ vascular permeability agents C_{3a} and C_{5a}; mainly act by histamine release from mast cells
- chemotaxin C_{5a}, also activates lipoxygenases of neutrophils and macrophage, and the release of free radicals thus enhancing the inflammation
- opsonin C_{3b}
- cell lysis by MAC (C₅₋₉)

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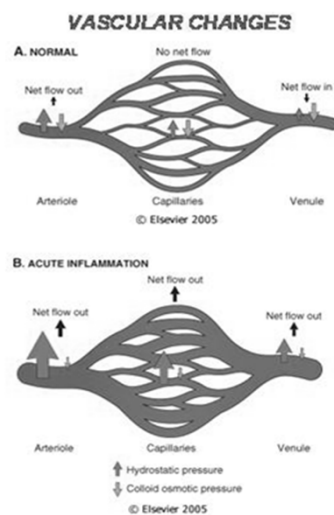
Regulation of the Complement Cascade

Modulating mechanisms are necessary to regulate complement activation and control production of biologically active split products

- First means of control is extreme lability of activated complement
 - If activated complement does not combine within milliseconds the activity is lost or decreased.
 - Active fragments are rapidly cleared from the body.
- Second type of control involves specific control proteins
 - C1 inhibitor blocks activity of C1r and C1s.
 - Factor I inactivator in the presence of certain cofactors inactivates C3b and C4b.
 - A number of proteins act to control membrane attack unit

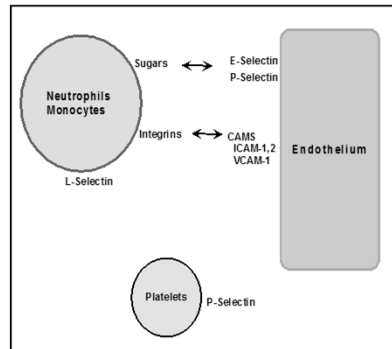
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Activation of Endothelium



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Activation of Endothelium: Receptors



- selectins and addressins (ligands for selectins), and integrins (ICAM and ICAM2) expressed in greater number or active form

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Activated Endothelium Releases Mediators

- PAF (Platelet aggregating factor, thrombosis); IL-1, IL-6/8, TNF- α (liver and brain); reduced amounts of NO (decreases granulocyte and platelet adherence and vascular tone)
- release of alpha chemokines attracts macrophage, e.g. macrophage chemotactic peptide-1; and beta chemokines, e.g. IL-8 are chemotactic for granulocytes.

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Activation of Endothelium: Morphology



- retraction of activated endothelium widens junctions between cells and allowing fluid loss
- fluid creates edema and effusion
- loss of fluid raises the protein concentration in capillary plasma

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Endothelial Retraction Effects

- vWF (Von Willebrand factor (vWF) is a blood glycoprotein involved in haemostasis) is released, subendothelial collagen is exposed
- platelets and fibrinogen adhere
- Damaged tissue releases Tissue Factor (thromboplastin), to initiate the cascade
- Thrombin is formed
 - converts the soluble fibrinogen into insoluble fibrin
 - direct effects on a variety of cells, e.g. activating endothelium
 - activates Complement.

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Endothelium enters a “Procoagulant State”

- reduced levels of factors to discourage platelet aggregation and adhesion create a “procoagulant state” for the endothelium
 - No longer releases factors PGI₂, NO; thrombomodulin decreases, procoagulant tissue factor increases.
- Retraction leaves the subendothelial matrix exposed, to which platelets may pavement
 - onto the collagen/ vWF as does Hageman Factor (Factor XII).
- Aggregated platelets release proinflammatory factors.
 - PAF, ADP; serotonin...

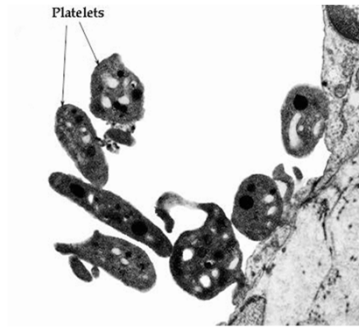
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When Severe Damage of Endothelium Occurs

- Severely damaged vessels can lose endothelium
- thrombi form, may infarct
- healing takes longer

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Platelets



- **adhere** to exposed collagen & VWF, and contribute to the hemostatic plug occluding small vessels.
- **aggregate** and adhere in response to:
 - thrombin, collagen, immune complexes, PAF

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Platelet Released Mediators

- cell growth factors
- serotonin and **histamine** (increased vasodilatation and permeability)
- **epinephrine** (release of neutrophils)
- **Ca⁺⁺** needed in the coagulation sequence, **ADP & PAF**(a potent agent of vasodilatation and increased permeability and platelet aggregation)
- **TXA2** (facilitates aggregation and vasoconstrictor)

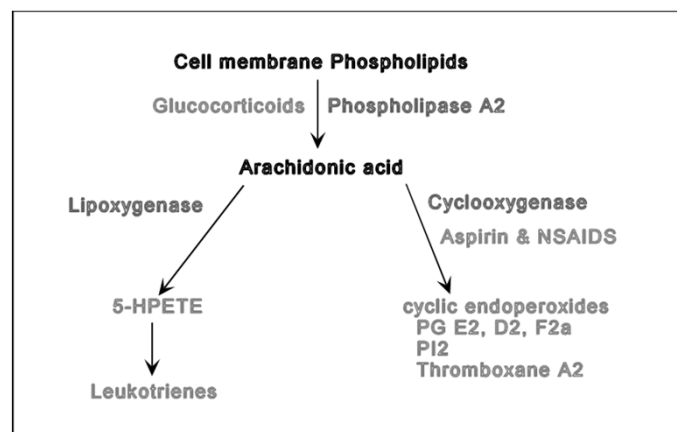
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Blood Clot Terminology

- **Hemostasis** is a response to vascular injury, and leading to arrest of the hemorrhage, involving vasoconstriction, tissue swelling, the coagulation cascade, and thrombosis.
- **Coagulation** is the conversion of soluble plasma fibrinogen to insoluble fibrin polymer as catalyzed by the protease thrombin, and resulting from a cascade of reactions.
- **Thrombosis**, a blood clot in the circulation, is an aggregate of coagulated blood containing platelets, fibrin, erythrocytes, and leukocytes.

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Lipid Mediators of Inflammation



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Arachidonic Acid Metabolites

Phospholipase A₂ releases arachidonic acid from membrane phospholipids (inhibited by steroids), and goes into:

- lipoxygenase pathway
 - 5-HETE (chemotactic)
 - LTB₄: chemotactic for granulocytes and macrophage
 - LTC₄, LTD₄, LTE₄: potent vasopermeability and bronchial spasm
- cyclooxygenase pathway (inhibited by aspirin, indomethacin)
 - PGI₂: vasodilation, inhibits platelet aggregation
 - TXA₂: vasoconstriction, promotes platelet aggregation
 - PGD₂, PGE₂, PGF₂α: vasodilation
- lipoxins (platelet 12-lipoxygenase on neutrophil LTA₄)
 - LXA₄ vasodilation, reduces LTC₄ vasoconstriction

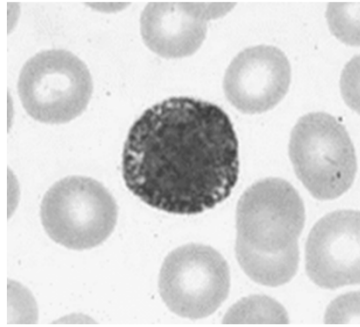
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Inhibition of Arachidonic Acid Metabolism

- glucocorticoids: inhibit genetic expression of cyclooxygenase, cytokines e.g. (IL-1 and TNF-α), and iNOS, and upregulate anti-inflammatory proteins e.g., lipocortin 1, an inhibitor of PLA₂
- dietary fish oil, linoleic acid, makes less potent mediators than those from AA.
- specific COX-2 inhibitors
 - COX: aspirin, indomethacin, etc.
 - COX-1 (homeostatic) and COX-2 (inflammatory)

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Basophils and Mast cells



- Similar to each other, but functional differences exist in responses of basophils, & serosal and connective tissue mast cells

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Actions of Mast cells (and basophils)

- triggered by allergens, drugs, C3a & C5a, cationic peptides, injury, ...
- primary mediators, in granules immediate reactions,
 - edema, mucus, bronchial constriction, recruitment of granulocytes.
- newly synthesized secondary mediators from mast cells and infiltrating granulocytes, and direct effects of the granulocytes (neutrophils and eosinophils) constitute the “late phase reaction” in 2-3 hours.

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Lipid Mediators from Mast Cells

PAF platelet activating factor: aggregates platelets, histamine release, bronchial spasm, vascular permeability, vascular dilatation, chemotactic for eosinophils and neutrophils

Arachidonic acid products

- lipoxygenase pathway
 - LTC₄, LTD₄: potent vasoactive and spasmogenic
 - LTB₄: chemotactic for granulocytes and macrophage
- cyclooxygenase pathway
 - PD₂: vasoactive, mucus production

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Non lipid Mediators from Mast Cells

- **Biogenic amines:**
 - histamine: bronchial spasm (smooth muscle contraction), vascular permeability, mucus secretion
 - adenosine: bronchial spasm, decreased platelet aggregation
- **Chemotaxins/cell activators:**
 - eosinophil chemotactic factor, neutrophil chemotactic factor
- **Enzymes**
 - proteases and acid hydrolases that activate kinins and C'
- **Cytokines**
 - **TNF-alpha**, chemotactic for neutrophils and eosinophils; IL1,3,4,5,6, gm-csf, chemokines

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Molecules involved in Vasodilation

- smooth muscle relaxes
 - rapid: histamine, serotonin;
 - slower: nitric oxide, kallikrein, PGE2, PGI2, PGD2 (mast cells)
- opening of precapillary arteriole sphincters causes more flow and pooling of blood (hyperemia) in post capillary venules (creates flare on skin)
 - Prostaglandins, histamine
- (veinules relax as well)

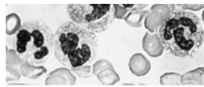
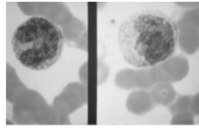
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Molecules involved in Vascular Permeability and Inflammatory Exudate

- activation/retraction of endothelium leads to increased vascular permeability
 - histamine (and serotonin), PAF, bradykinin, LTC4, LTD4, LTE4: often begins in 10-15 minutes
- extravascular protein-rich exudate osmotically draws water
 - includes fibrinogen (clotting and opsonin), globulins (antibodies), albumen
 - fluid accumulation produces edema (and cutaneous wheal).
 - edema (extravascular interstitial fluid) (or effusion in cavities) with cutaneous wheal

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Vascular changes alter blood cell movement



- Flow slows and stasis develops
 - Instead of “trains” of wbc leading rbc, axial flow develops with a plasmatic zone
 - activated leukocytes marginate and adhere to endothelium
 - smaller vessels become packed with rbc (“stasis”)
- capillary fluid is lost, plasma becomes, high in protein (albumen and fibrinogen), viscous, increases erythrocytes’ tendency to form rouleaux (coin-like stacks)
 - reduced dielectric constant due to increased albumin and fibrinogen (asymmetrically charged) coating
 - cells associate

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Leucocytes Migration

Margination

Adhesion Expression of Adhesion molecules

- endothelium: Selection (stimulated by IL-1, TNF)
- leucocytes : integrins

Migration

- (first 6 – 24 h : neutrophiles
- 24 – 48 h : monocites

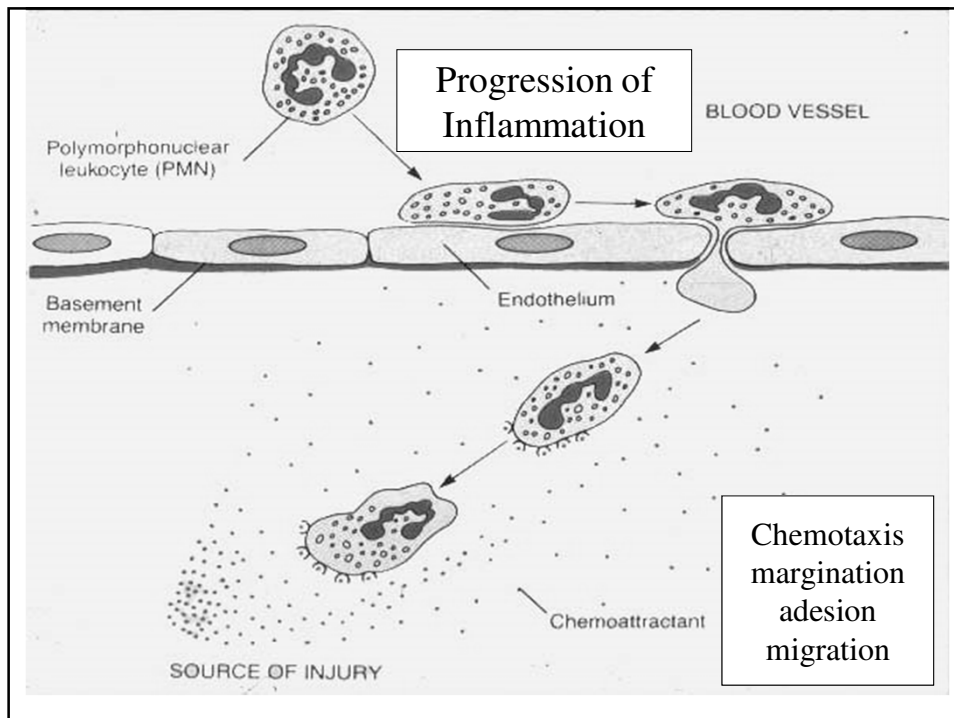
CHEMOTAXIS : movement along a chemical gradient (chemical mediators)

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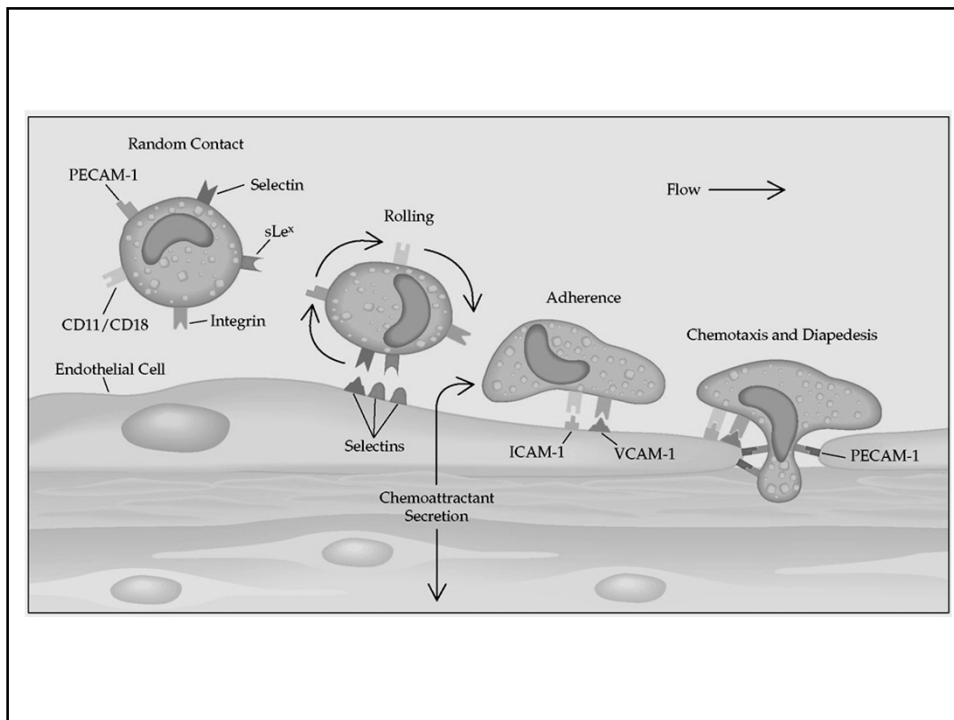
A neutrophil-dominated infiltrate develops

- Mediators initiate neutrophil activation and chemotaxis
- neutrophils become the hallmark cell of the early acute inflammatory infiltrate.
- Neutrophils are attracted mainly by:
 - C5a, LTB₄; and later by chemokines, TNF- α
 - Bacterial infections provide n-formyl peptides e.g. FMLP.
- **Neutrophil infiltration** peaks at 6-24 hours, often release contents of lysosomes and secrete lipid mediators, which contribute to the clinical "late phase reaction (4hrs.+)" along with mast cells .

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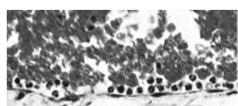
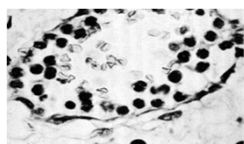


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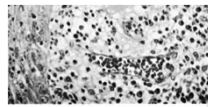
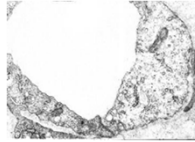
Margination and Pavementing



- leukocytes localize outside the axial flow and become activated express cell adhesion molecules
- marginating neutrophils adhere due to increased contact and sticking to endothelial selectins on activated endothelium
- pavementing over an endothelial gap (neutrophil integrins) leads to extravascularization

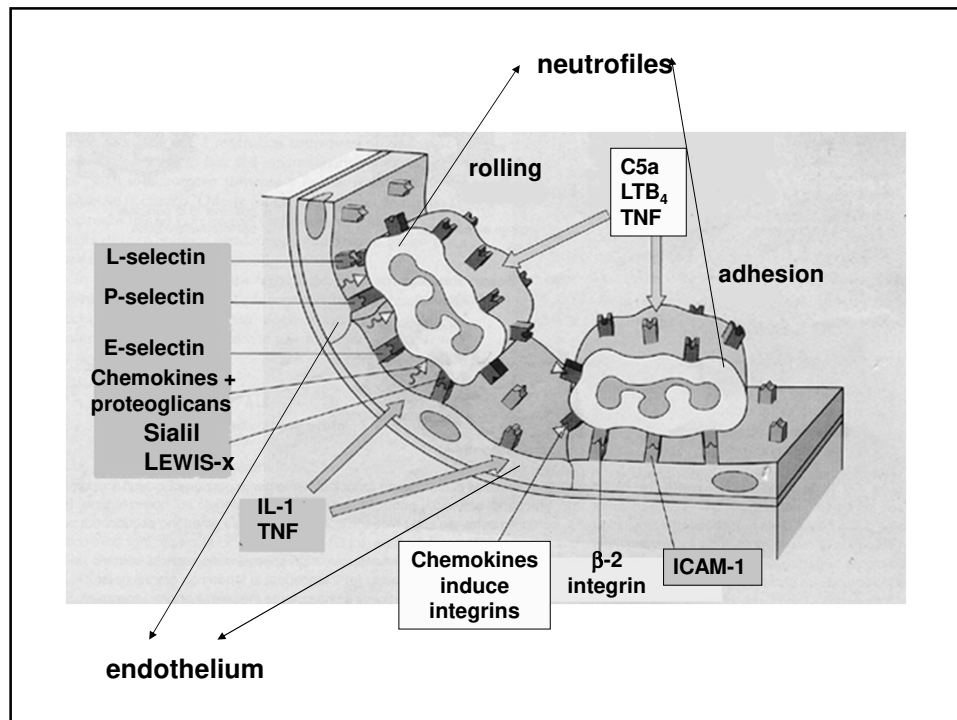
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Emigration and Infiltration



- Diapedesis
 - pseudopods lead, dissolving basement membrane and the neutrophils leave the vasculature through open gaps
- Transmigration (emigration)
 - chemotactic signals draw leukocytes into tissues; **haptotaxis**, movement along insoluble gradient, e.g. attractants on ECM

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Products from Neutrophils and Macrophage

- **Eicosanoids**
 - 5-lipoxygenase:LTB₄ (chemotactic), LTC₄, LTD₄, LTE₄ (vasoconstriction, bronchospasm, and vascular permeability)
- **from Lysosomes**
 - PLA₂, proteases, myeloperoxidase, defensins, cationic proteins

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Products from Activated Macrophage

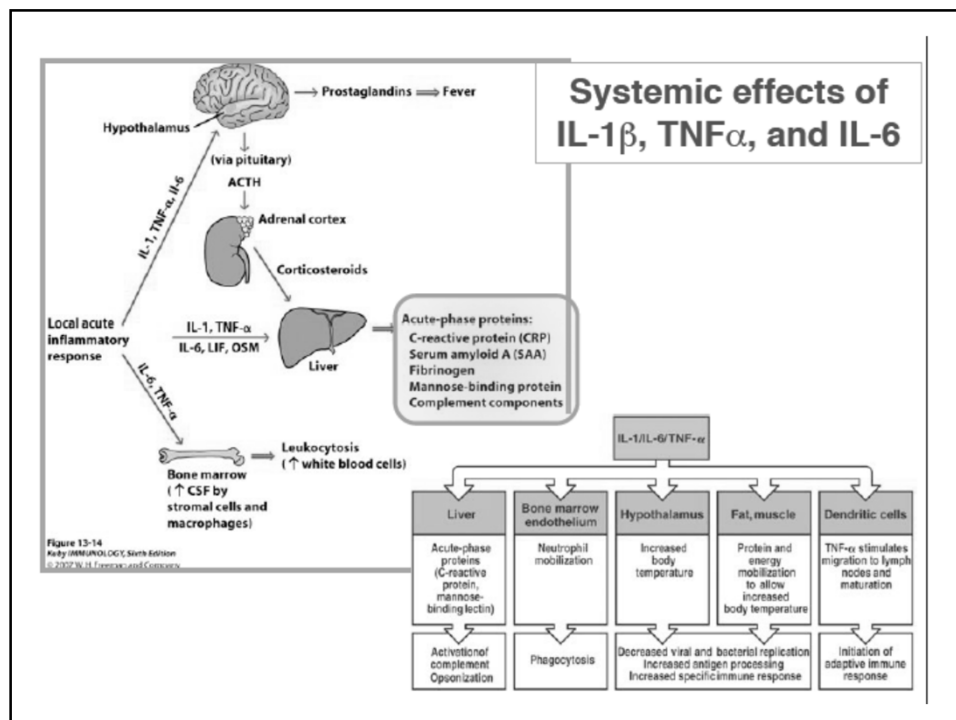
- **Cytokines**
 - IL-1, IL-6, TNF, chemokines e.g. IL-8
 - activate endothelium, liver (IL-1 and 6, TNF- α), brain (IL-1), IL-8 is chemotactic for neutrophils, and especially TNF, contribute to toxic shock.
- **Other**
 - proteases, hydrolases, coagulation factors, Complement, growth factors (PDGF, EGF, FGF, TGF- β), eicosanoids, nitric oxide, reactive oxygen metabolites
- **Nitric oxide**
 - from macrophage and endothelium, relaxes smooth muscle (vasodilation), reduces platelet and neutrophil aggregation and adhesion

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Oxygen Derived Products (neutrophils)

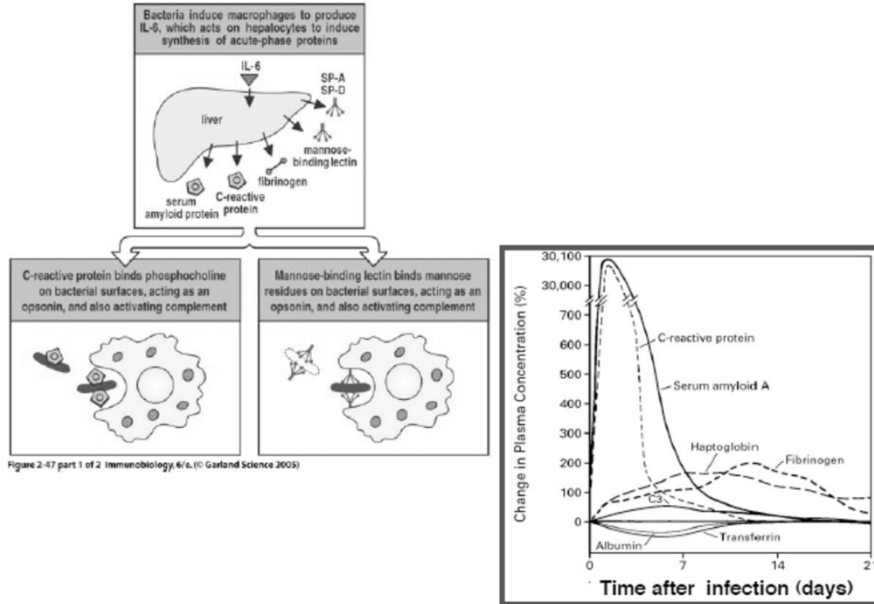
- kill microbes, damage endothelial, rbc, and parenchymal cells; inactivate antiproteases (which can lead to destruction of the ECM).
- A respiratory burst of oxygen consumption and HMP shunt support NADPH oxidase generation of superoxide (O_2^-), which is converted to H_2O_2 by superoxide dismutase.
- H_2O_2 reacts with myeloperoxidase plus halide (Chloride) to form hypochlorous acid (HOCl), the major bactericidal agent made by phagocytes (neutrophils, not monocytes).
- Enhanced by Fe^{2+} , H_2O_2 forms the potent hydroxyl radical ($\bullet OH$).
- Nitric oxide (NO) reacts with oxidants to form a variety of toxic NO derivatives.
- Oxygen derived radicals are **detoxified** by ceruloplasmin, transferrin, superoxide dismutase, catalase & glutathione peroxidase (H_2O_2), produced by various cells.

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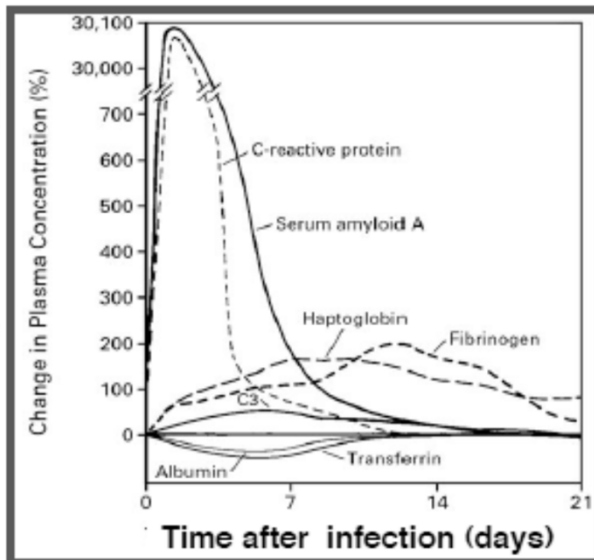


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The acute phase response



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What are the “The Five Cardinal Signs of Acute Inflammation” ?

- heat (Calor)
 - dilatation causes hyperemia, which raises extremities to core body temperature
- redness (Rubor)
 - hyperemia pools rbc in capillaries
- pain (Dolor)
 - pressure and mediators (bradykinins, PG--) stimulate nerves
- swelling (Tumor)
 - exudate causes edema in interstitial tissues
- loss of function (Functio Laesa)
 - changes in microenvironment interfere with function

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Systemic Acute Phase Reactions

- IL-1, IL-6, TNF from macrophage and endothelium at higher levels stimulate the liver, brain, muscle; and indirectly other tissues
- sustained increase in CSFs e.g. GM-CSF, G-CSF, M-CSF, FGF stimulates marrow production of new cells
- liver metabolism changes blood protein levels
 - rapid ↑CRP and SAA, SAP
 - slow ↓transferrin, albumin, transferrin
 - slow ↑fibrinogen, protease inhibitors
- acute phase proteins e.g. fibrinogen elevate the Eritrocyte Sedimentation Rate
- fibrinogen and Creactive Protein act as opsonins

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