

# Adaptive Immunity: Cellular mechanisms and signaling

Stephen P. Schoenberger, Ph.D  
La Jolla Institute for Allergy and Immunology  
&  
UCSD Moores Cancer Center

# Learning Objectives

- *To review the functional organization of the immune system*
- *To highlight the fundamentals of the adaptive immune response*
- *To integrate these into principles of cancer immunotherapy*

# ***What is the immune system?***

- A network of organs, tissues, cells, and effector molecules that cooperate to protect the organism from *pathogenic infection*
- Able to *evolve* to match the ever-changing threats of the microbial world
- Immune-related diseases include autoimmunity, allergy, organ graft rejection, & metabolic disorders, among others.

# ***Why is the immune system?***

## Key concepts:

The immune system exists to respond to that which is *both **foreign*** (i.e. non-self) & ***dangerous*** (i.e. capable of causing damage).

The immune system initially 'senses' the presence of an infectious pathogen and mounts a rapid response via its innate arm

A subsequent adaptive response 'learns' the distinguishing molecular features of a given invader and produces effector and memory cells specific for those.



# ***Why is the immune system?***

## Key concepts:

The immune system can 'remember' the identity of a pathogen through its antigen-specific memory cells which mount *faster & stronger* recall responses

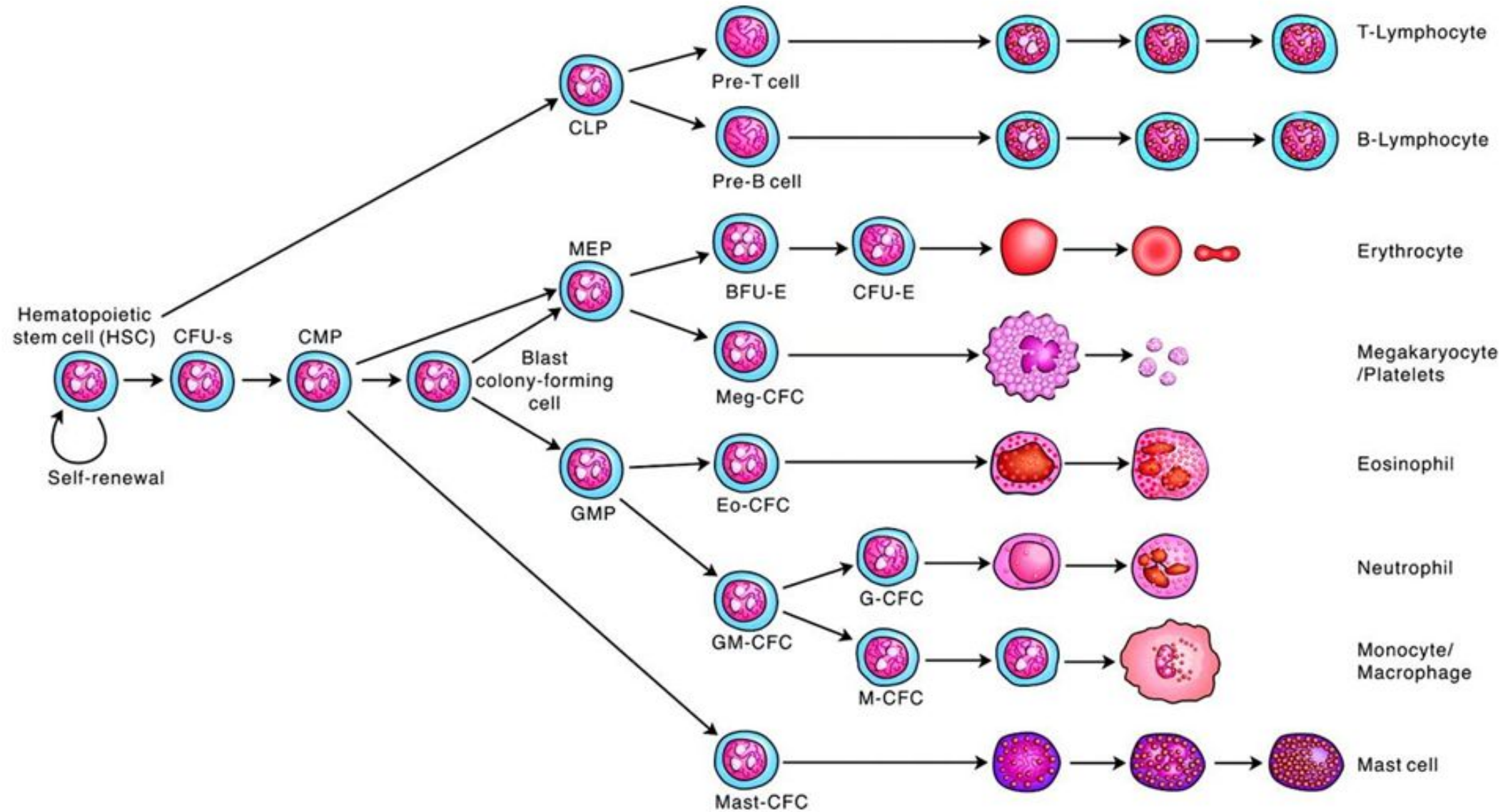
Optimal immune responses require coordination of both *sensing* and *learning* components

# ***Where is the immune system?***

## Key concepts:

- Cellular and molecular components are located throughout the entire body
- Most immune cells are produced in bone marrow from hematopoietic stem cells
- Specialized organizing centers include spleen, lymph nodes, & thymus

# Myelopoiesis and Lymphopoiesis



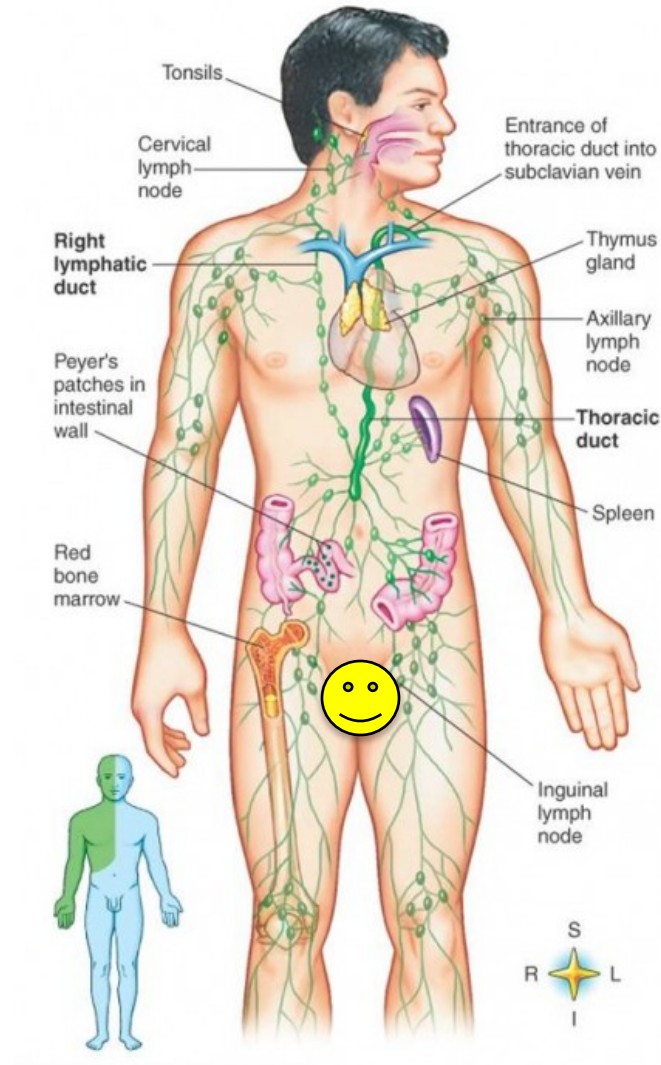
# *How is the immune system organized?*

3 components

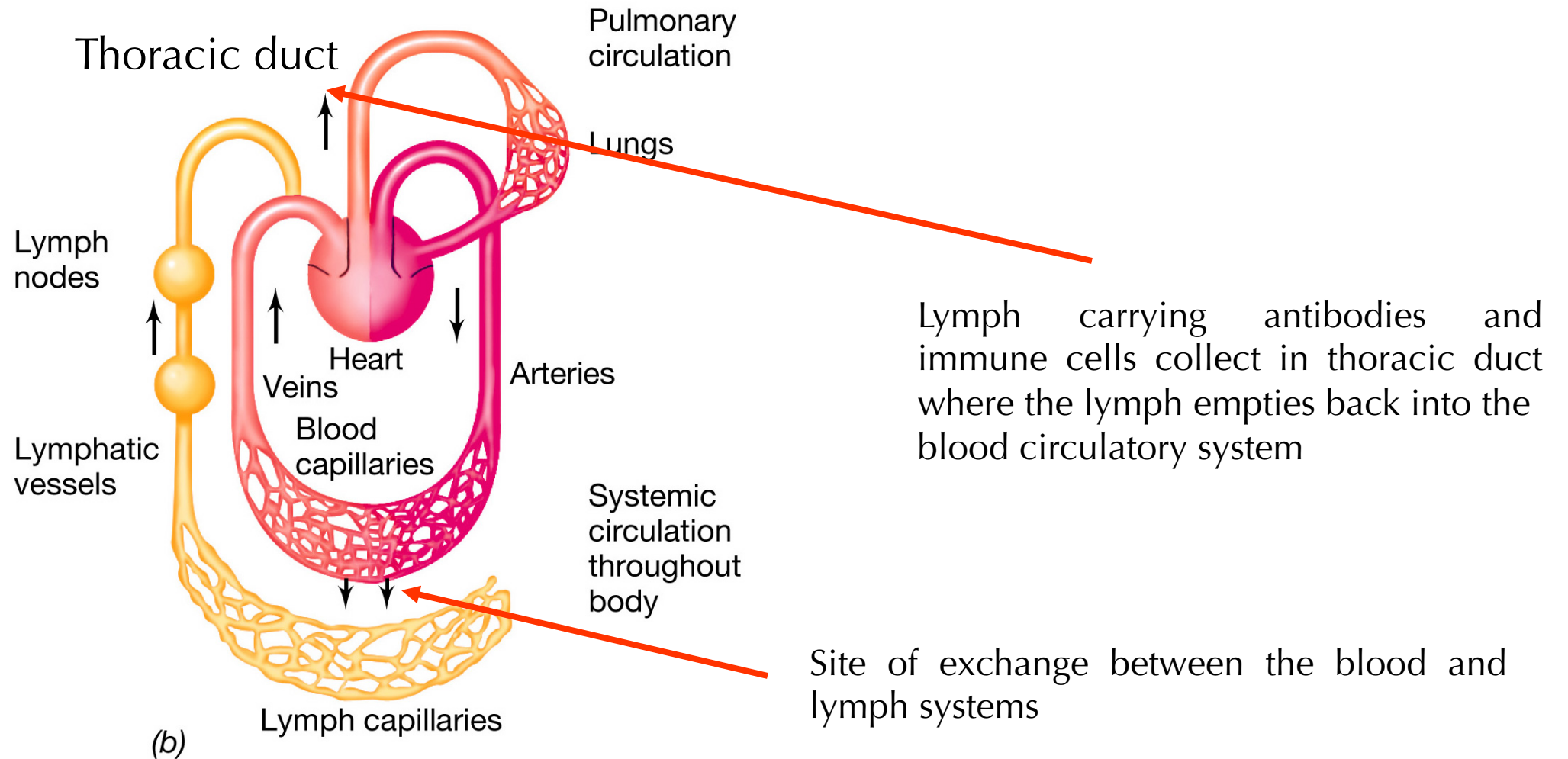
Lymphatic vessels

Fluid (lymph)

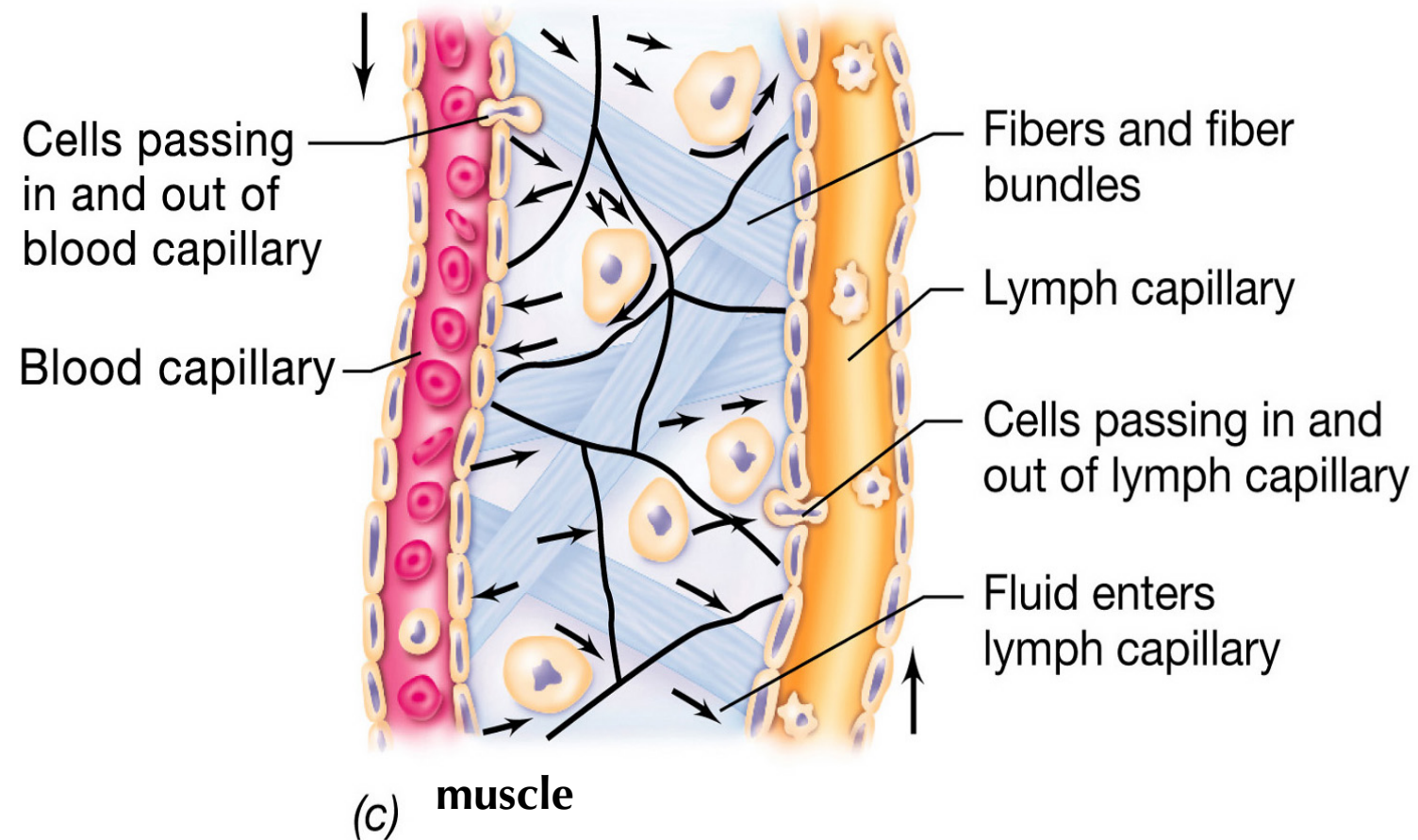
1° & 2° Lymphoid organs



# Overview of blood and lymph system and how leukocytes travel from one system to another



Immune cells travel back and forth from the blood and lymph circulatory systems and interact with extra-vascular tissues in the process—**diapedesis**



# Types of Lymphocytes

- T cells (Thymus dependent)
  - 80% of circulating lymphocytes
  - Cytotoxic T cells
    - Directly attack foreign cells or body cells infected by viruses (cell-mediated immunity)
  - Helper T cells
    - Stimulate activities of both B and T cells
  - Regulatory T cells
    - Inhibit both T and B cells

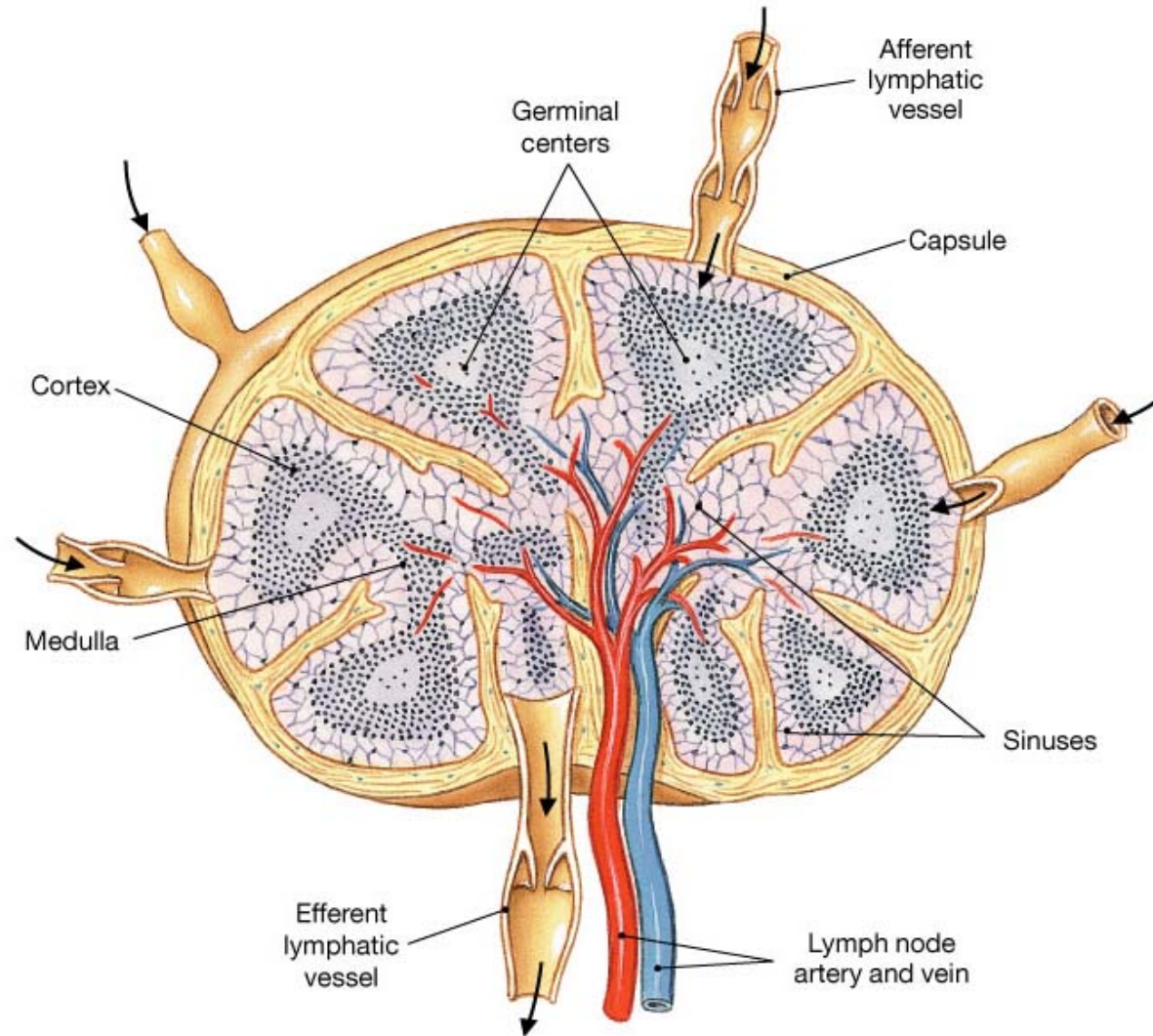


# Types of Lymphocytes

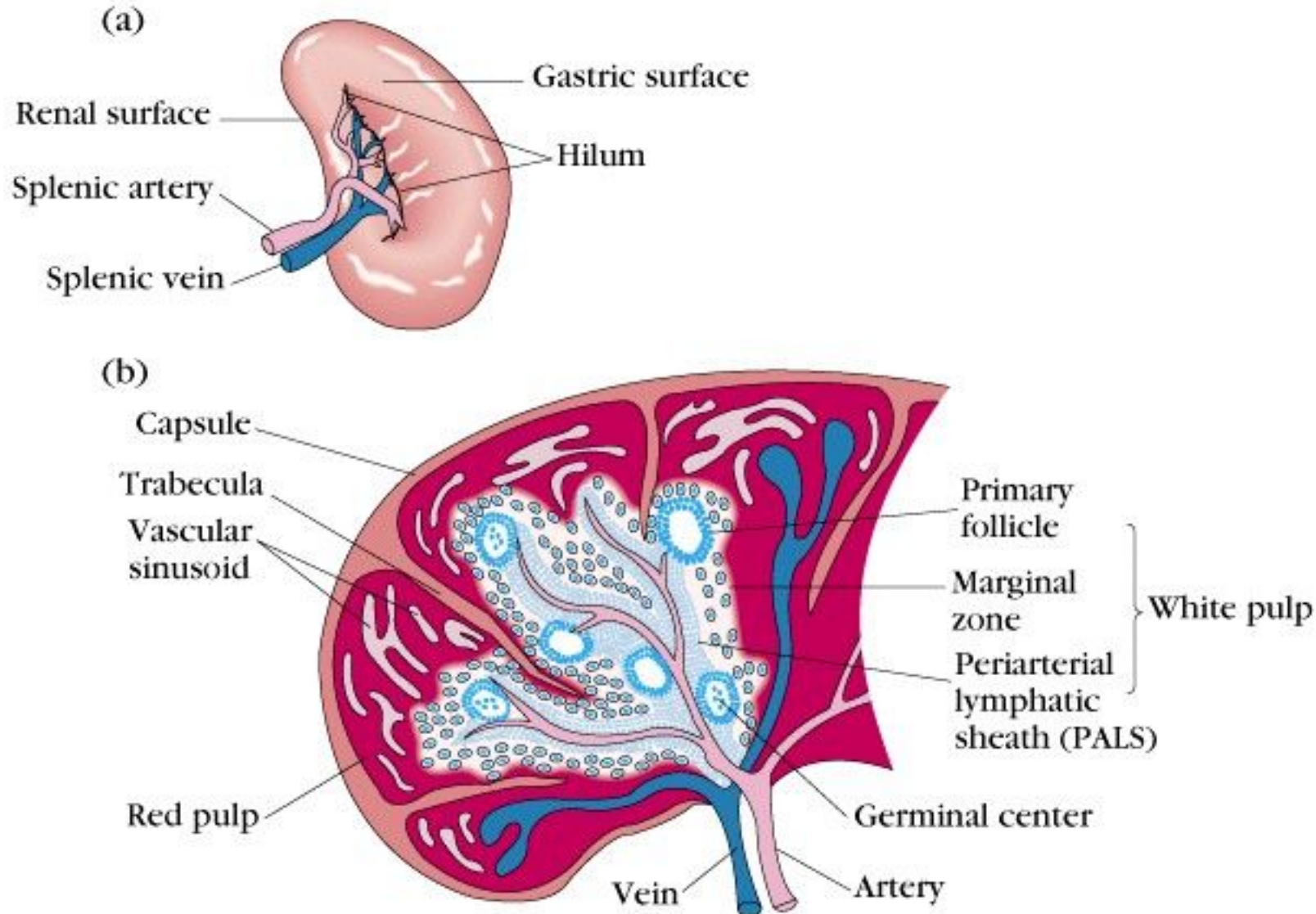
- B cells (Bone-marrow derived)
  - 10-15% circulating lymphocytes
  - Plasma cells
    - Responsible for production and secretion of antibodies (immunoglobulins)
  - Responsible for antibody-mediated immunity
- NK cells (Natural Killer)
  - 5-10%
  - Attack foreign cells, normal cells infected with viruses, and cancer cells
  - Immunological surveillance



# Lymphoid Organs: Lymph Nodes

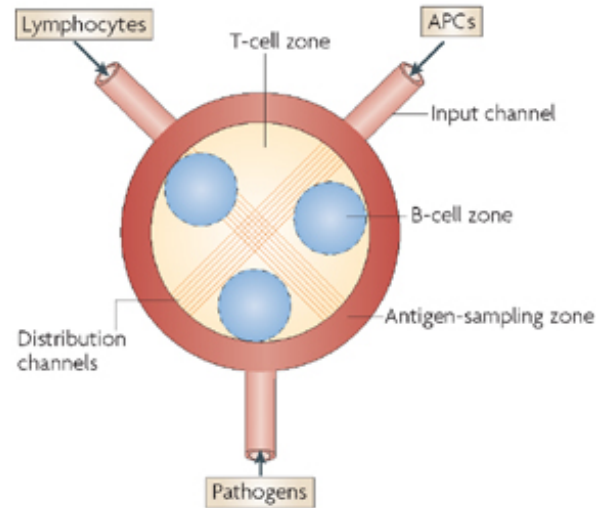


# Lymphoid Organs: Spleen

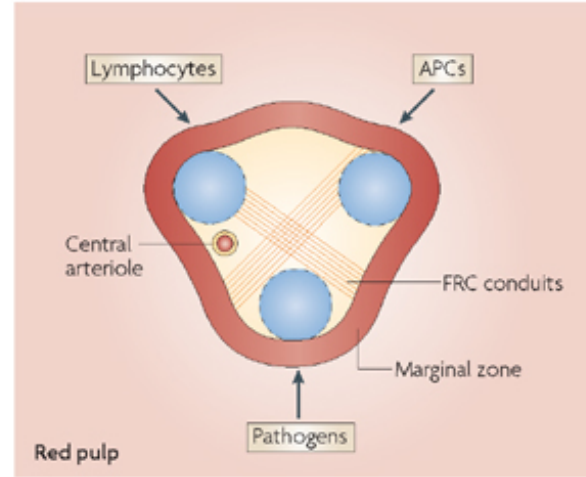


# B and T cells are primed in distinct compartments of secondary lymphoid organs

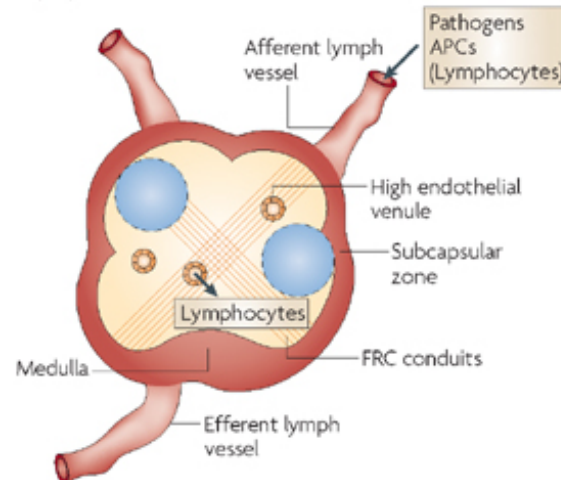
**a** SLO: basic building blocks



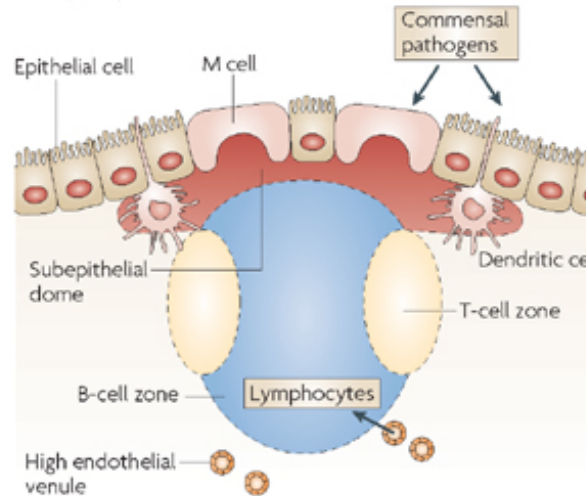
**b** White pulp of the spleen



**c** Lymph node



**d** Peyer's patch



# *How is the immune system organized?*

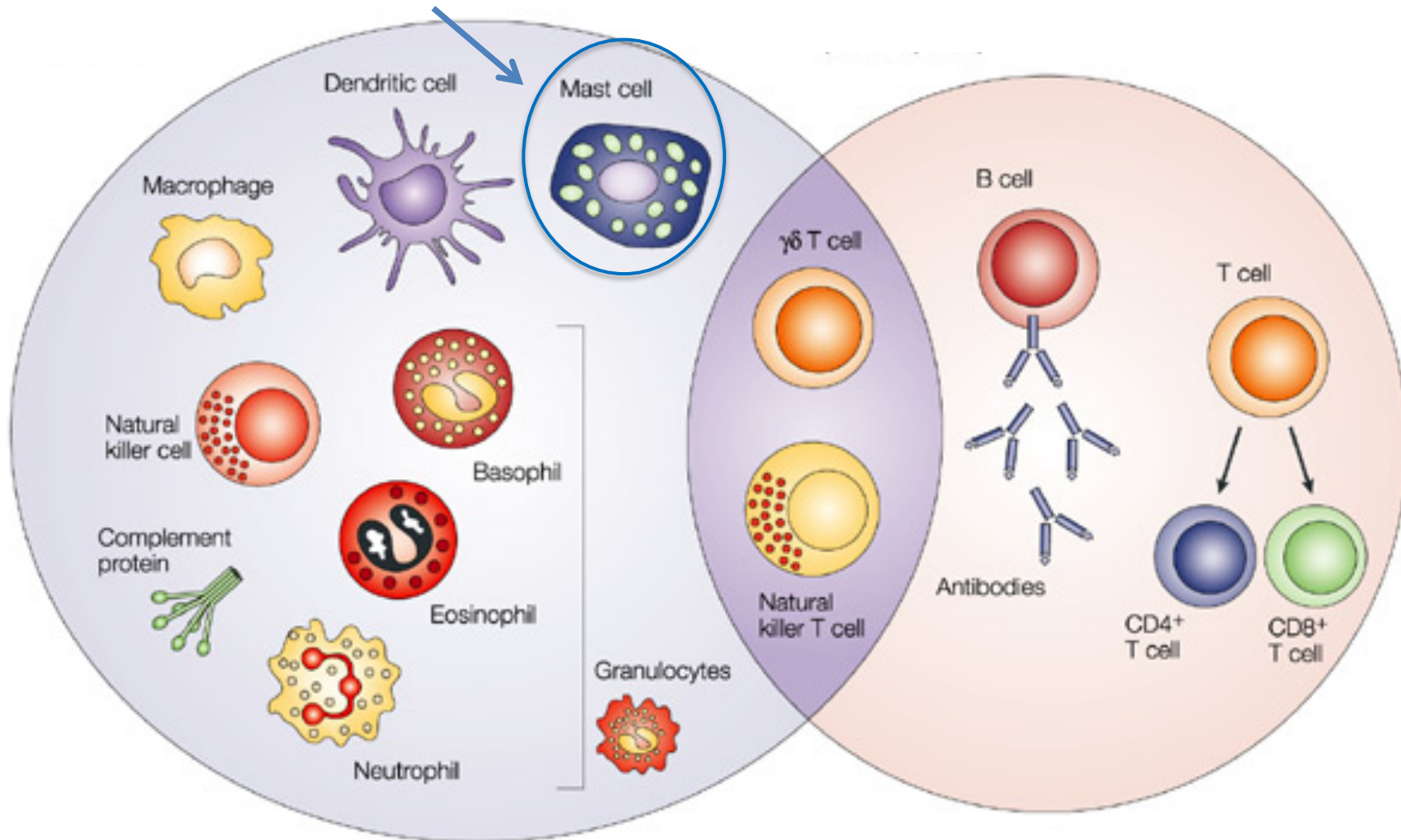
Two main arms: **Innate** and **Adaptive**:

- The **innate system** is always “on” and ready to mount an immediate early response by sensing molecules common to entire classes of microbes
- The **adaptive system** takes days to respond, but can resolve infections and confer immune memory by sensing molecules specific to a particular invader



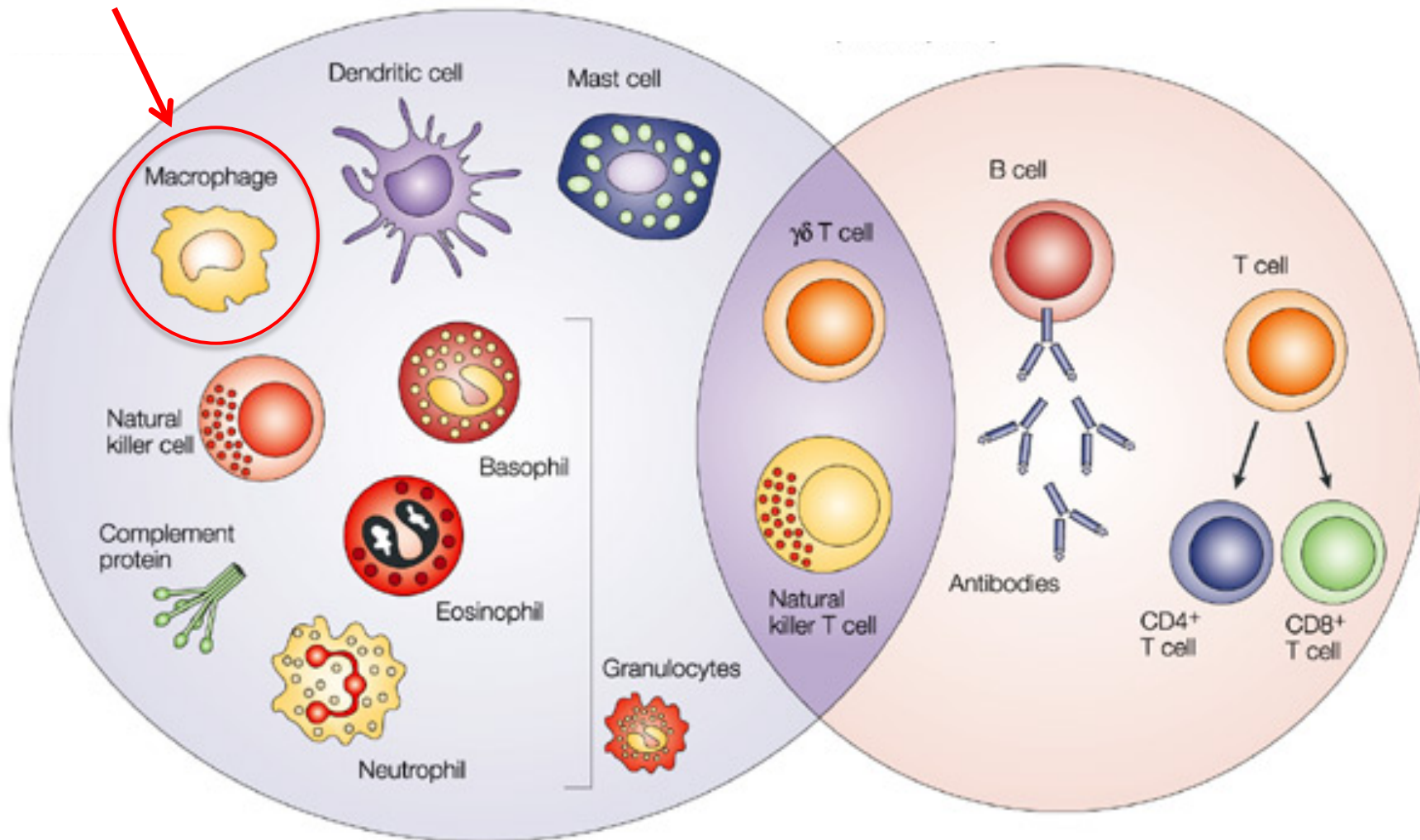
# Innate & Adaptive Immunity

**Mast Cells:** Part of a cellular “early-warning” system, produces histamine and inflammatory mediators in response to direct damage, allergens, or inflammation



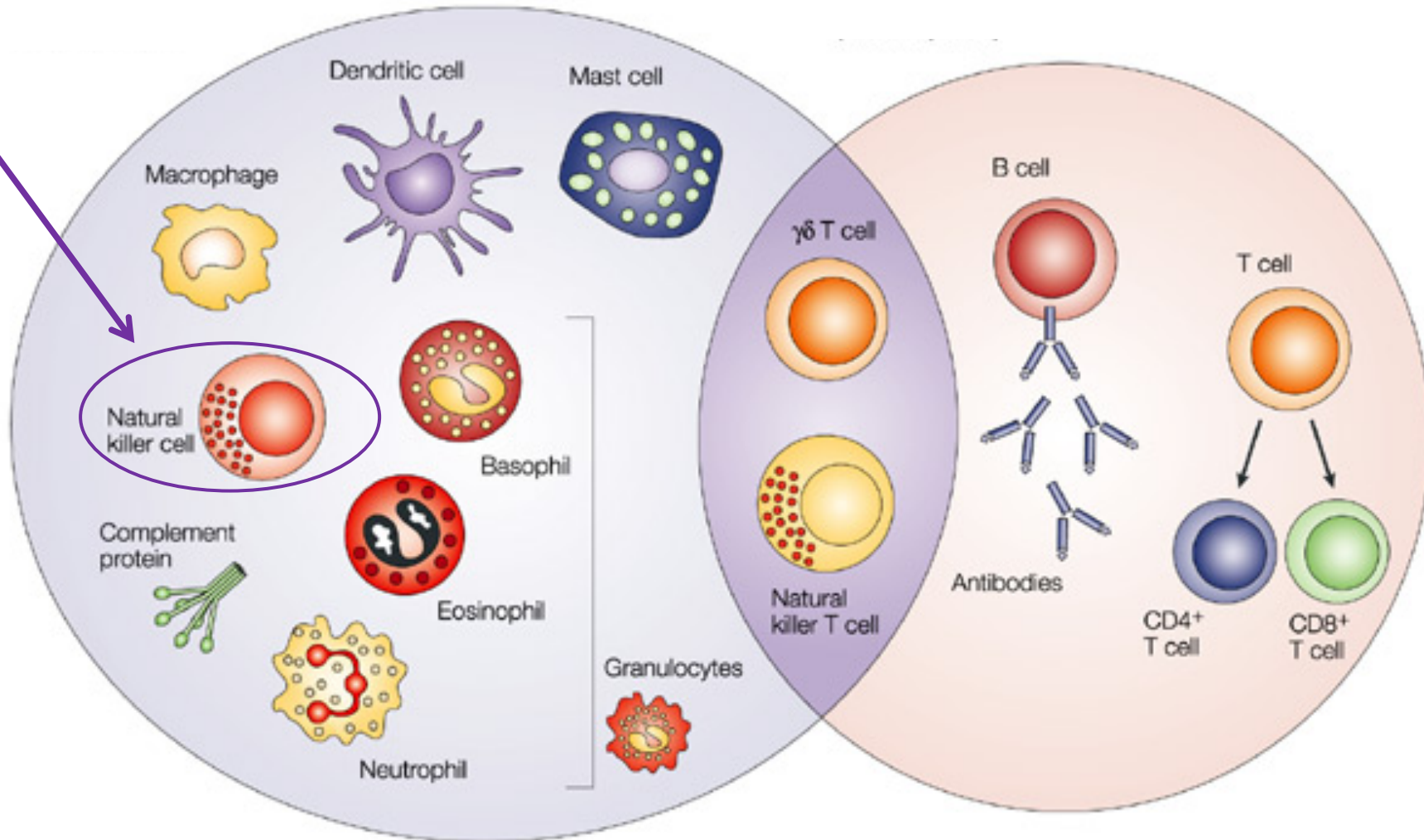
# Innate & Adaptive Immunity

**Macrophage:** Most frequent and active phagocyte ("Big Eater"), ingests and destroys fluid-phase and particulate antigens  
Found in every tissue in distinct phenotypic states



# Innate & Adaptive Immunity

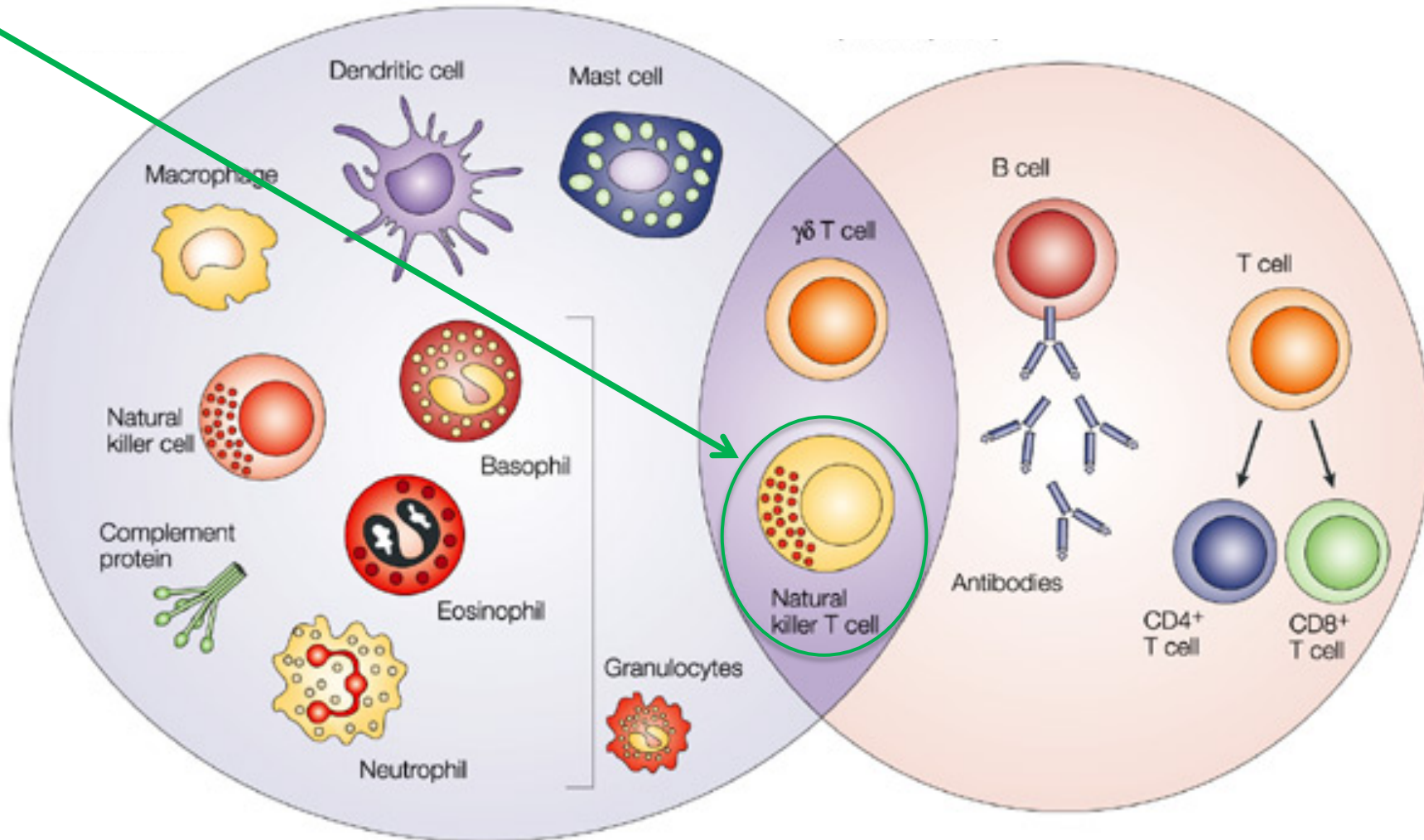
**NK Cell:** Cytotoxic against cells lacking MHC molecules ("missing self") or expressing markers of cellular stress





# Innate & Adaptive Immunity

**NKT Cell:** Express invariant receptors specific for lipid antigens bound to non-classical CD1d MHC molecules



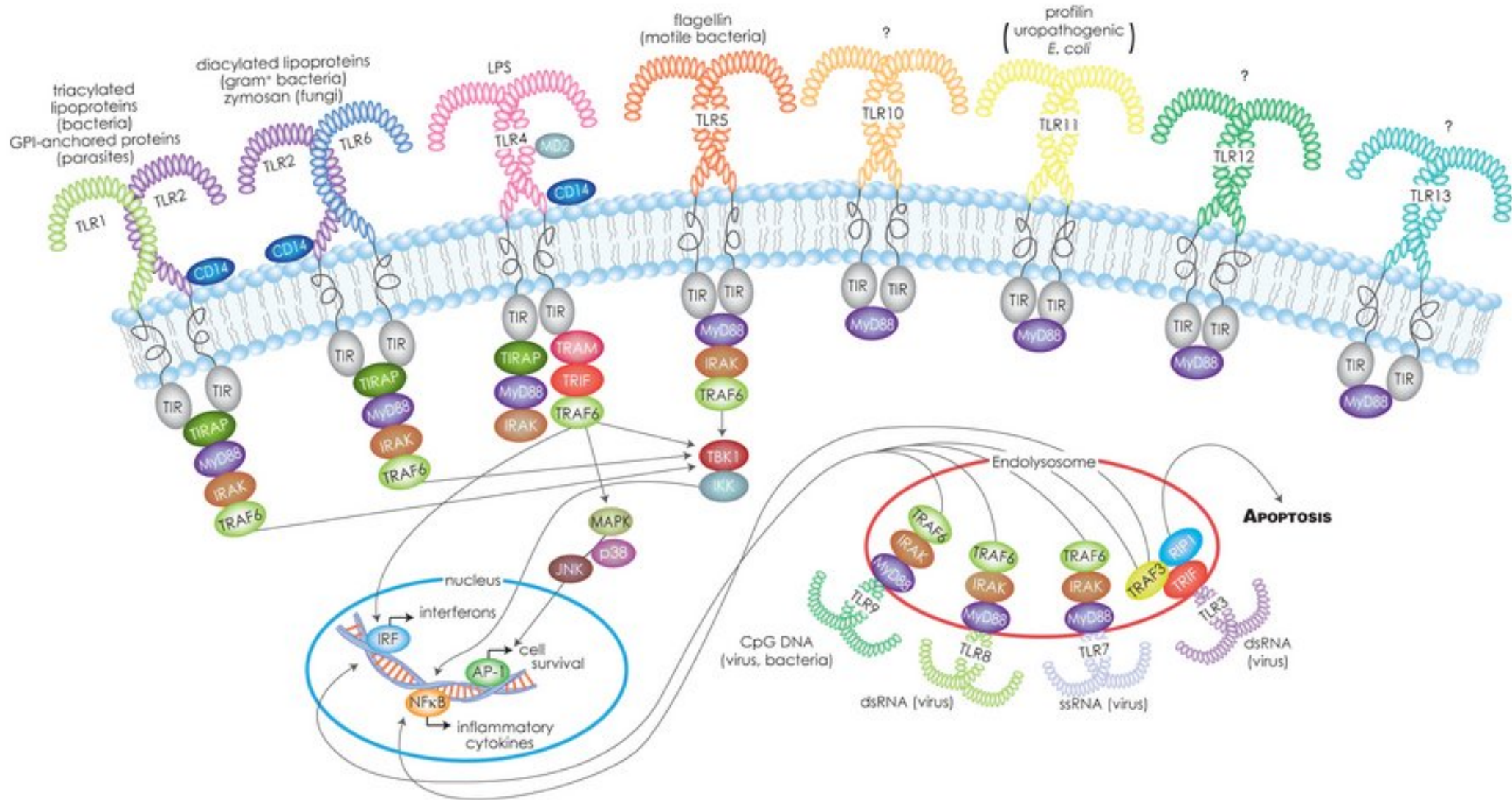


# Innate immune system

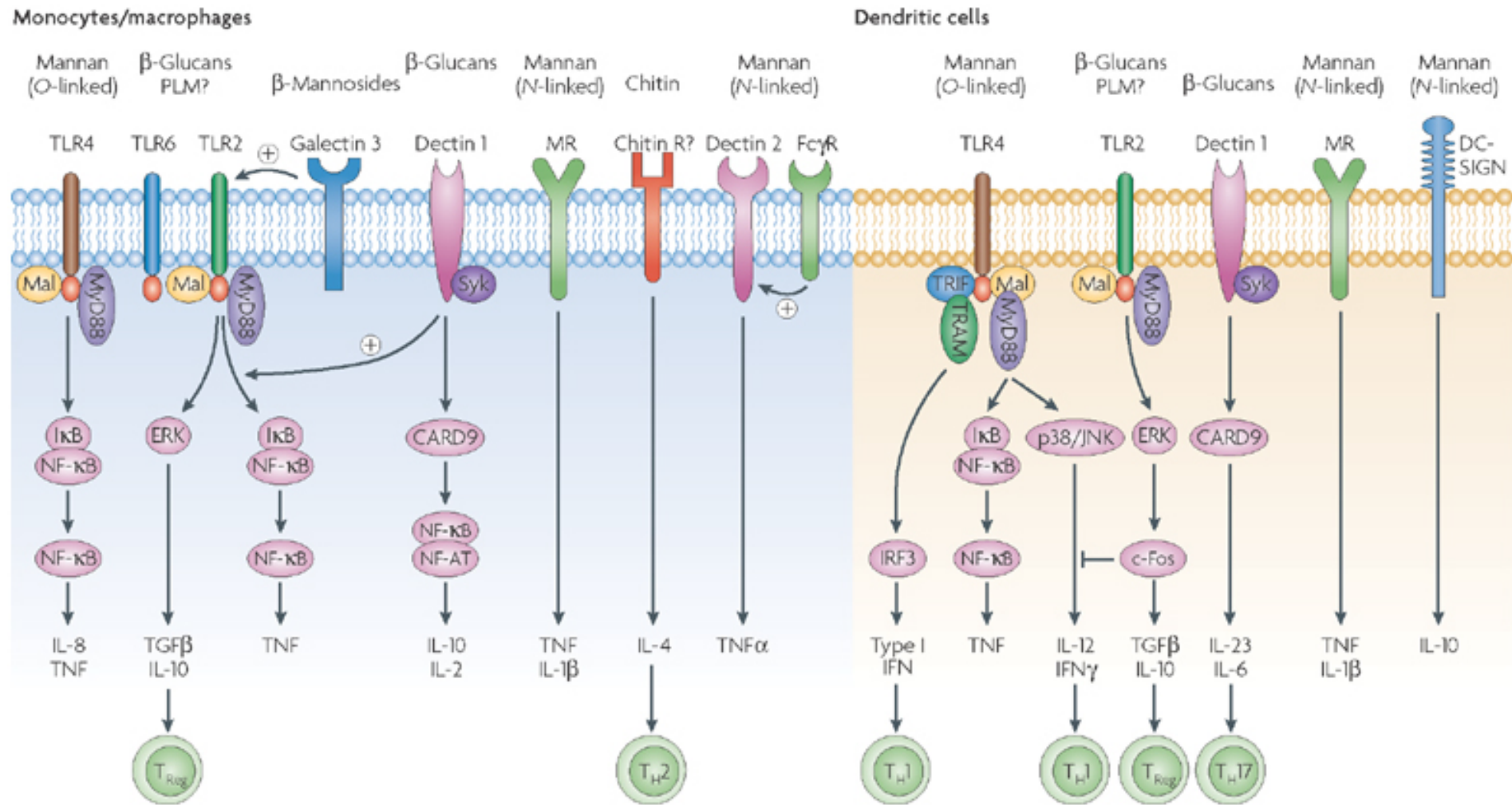
## Notable features

- Response time minutes to hours
- Cells include macrophages, monocytes, neutrophils, dendritic cells, NK cells, mast cells, ILC
- Effector molecules include complement, cytokines, chemokines, among others
- Recognize molecular features common to classes of microbes (flagellin, LPS, dsRNA, etc) or 'alarm' cytokines

# Microbial pathogens are 'sensed' by Toll-like receptors (TLRs)



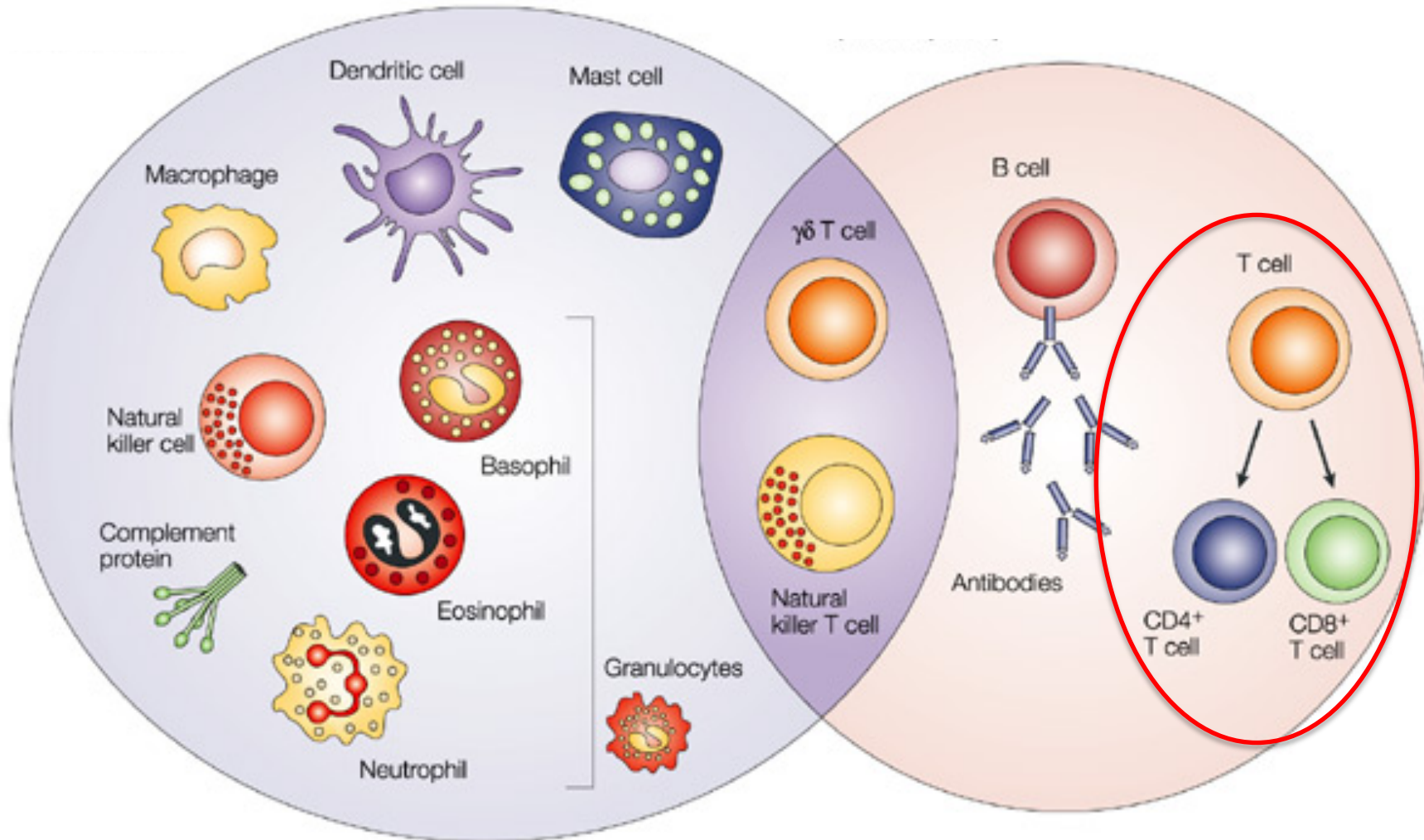
# Multiple signaling/uptake receptors mediate Ag-sensing in Mφ and DC



# Innate & Adaptive Immunity

Innate arm  
(fast and non-specific)

Adaptive arm  
(slower but Ag-specific)



# Adaptive immune system

## Notable features

- Response time days to weeks
- Cells express clonally distinct Ag receptors:
  - CD4<sup>+</sup> *'helper'* T cells
  - CD8<sup>+</sup> *'killer'* T cells
  - CD25<sup>+</sup> FoxP3<sup>+</sup> *'regulatory'* T cells
  - B cells

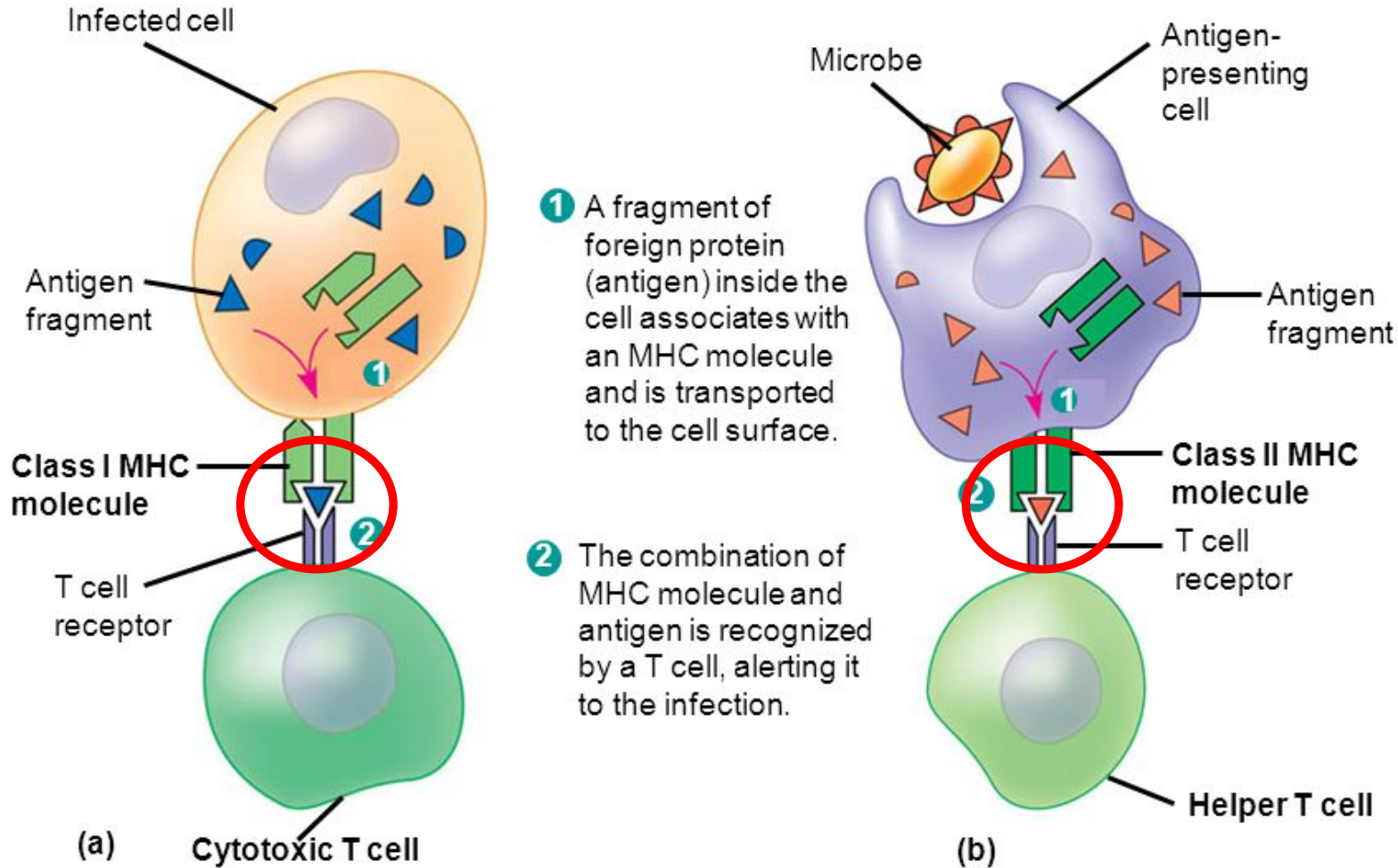


# Adaptive immune system

## Notable features

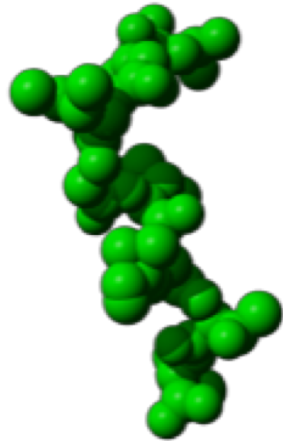
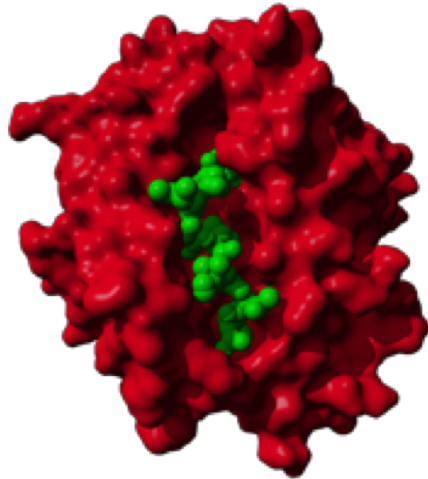
- Effector molecules include inflammatory cytokines, chemokines, growth factors, *cytotoxic molecules and antibodies*
- Response of a single clone involves short-lived effector cells and long-lived memory cells
- Memory cells can undergo rapid expansion upon re-exposure to same Ag

# T cells recognize protein fragments bound to surface MHC molecules



# Structure of a MHC class I/peptide complex

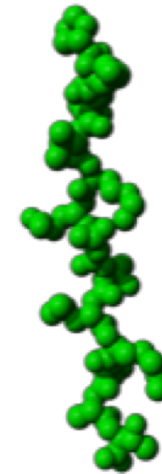
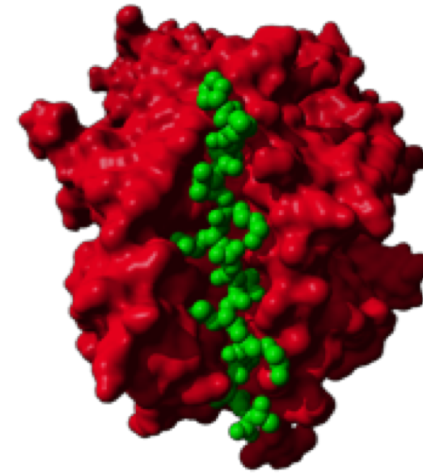
Class I  
HLA-A2.1



Peptide-bound complex

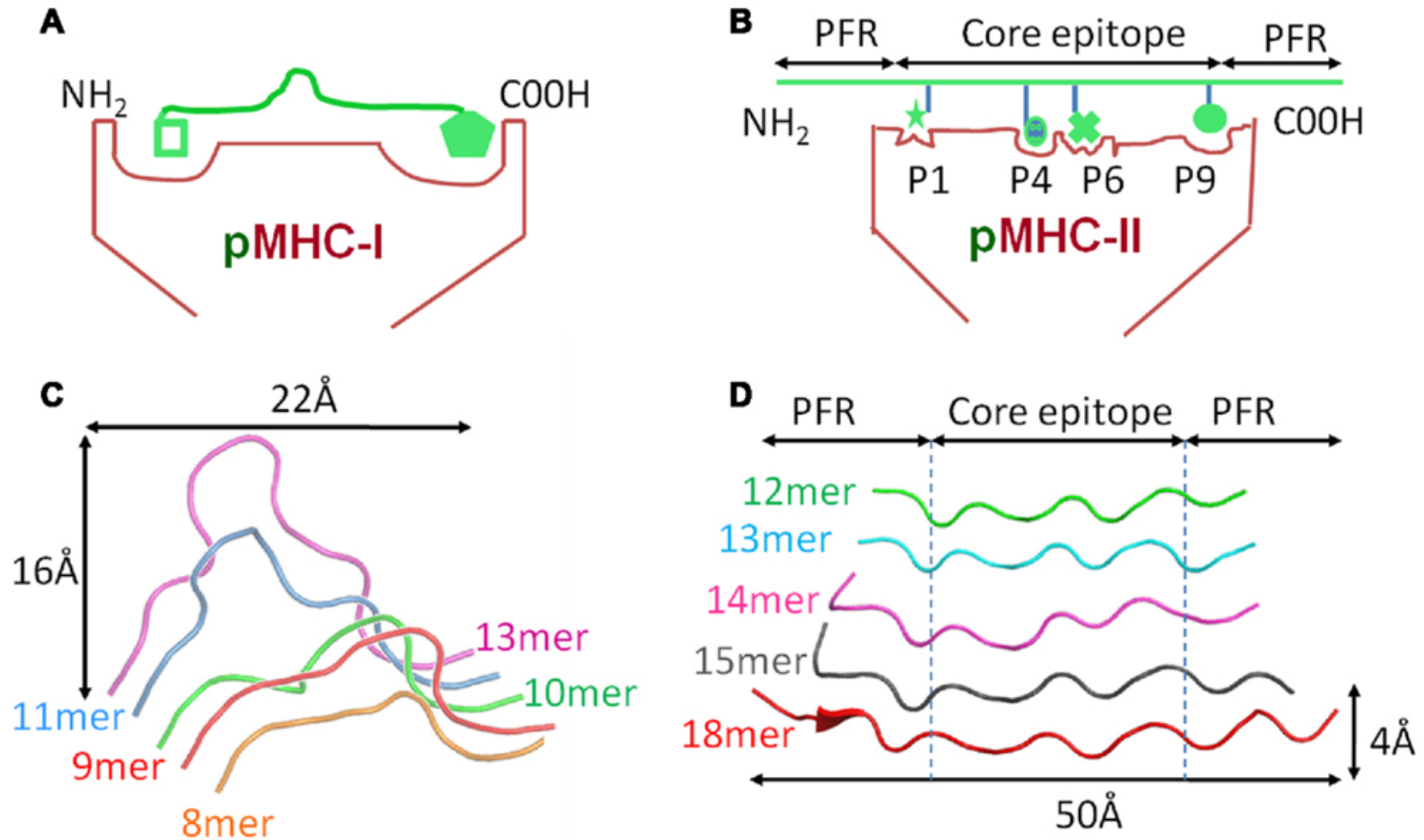
Peptide alone

Class II  
HLA-DR1

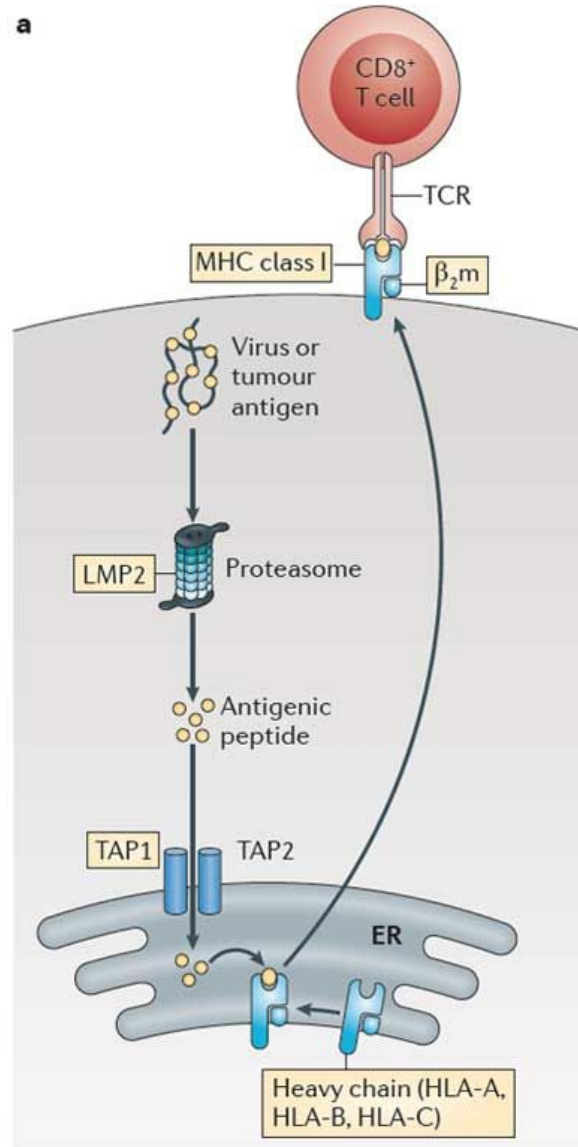




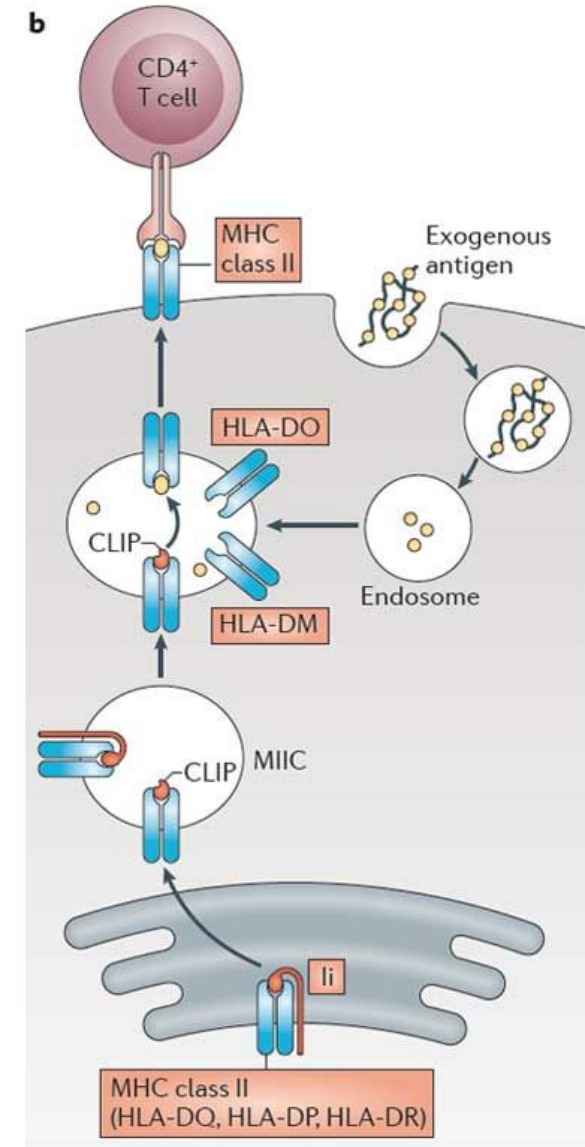
# Comparing class I and II peptide binding



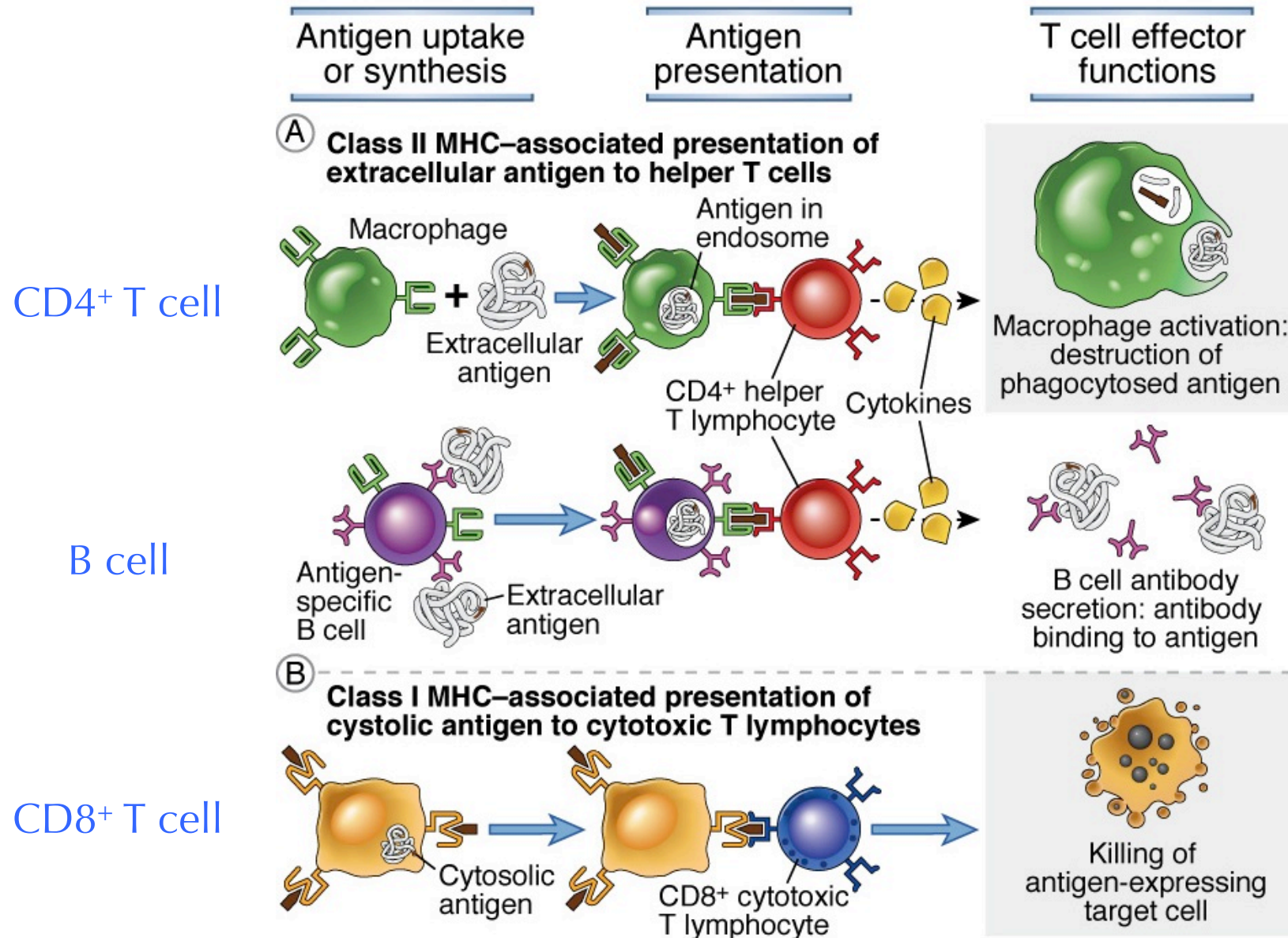
Endogenous Ag > MHC class I > CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells



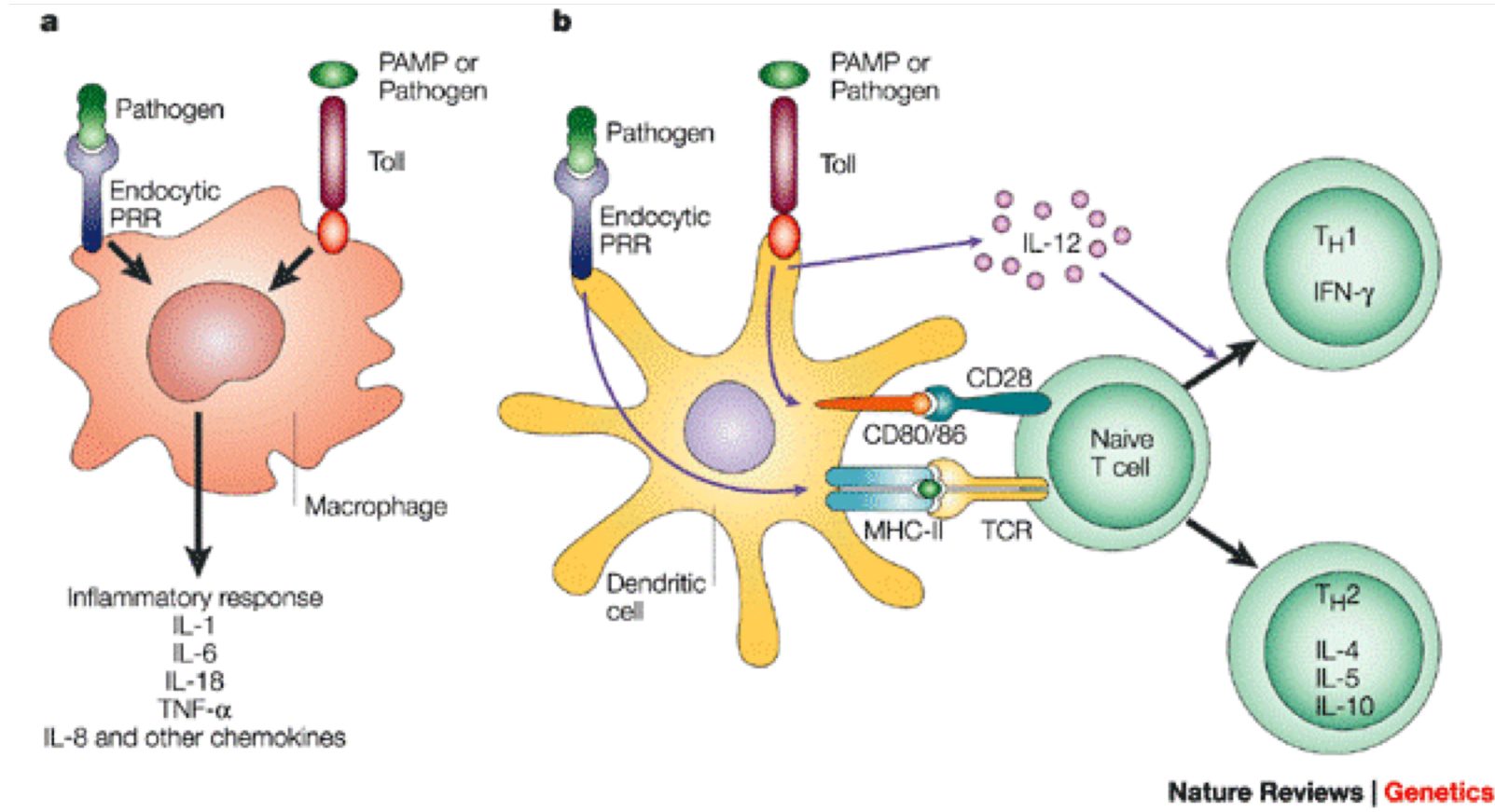
Exogenous Ag > MHC class II > CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells



# How class I- and class II-associated antigen presentation influences the nature of the T cell response

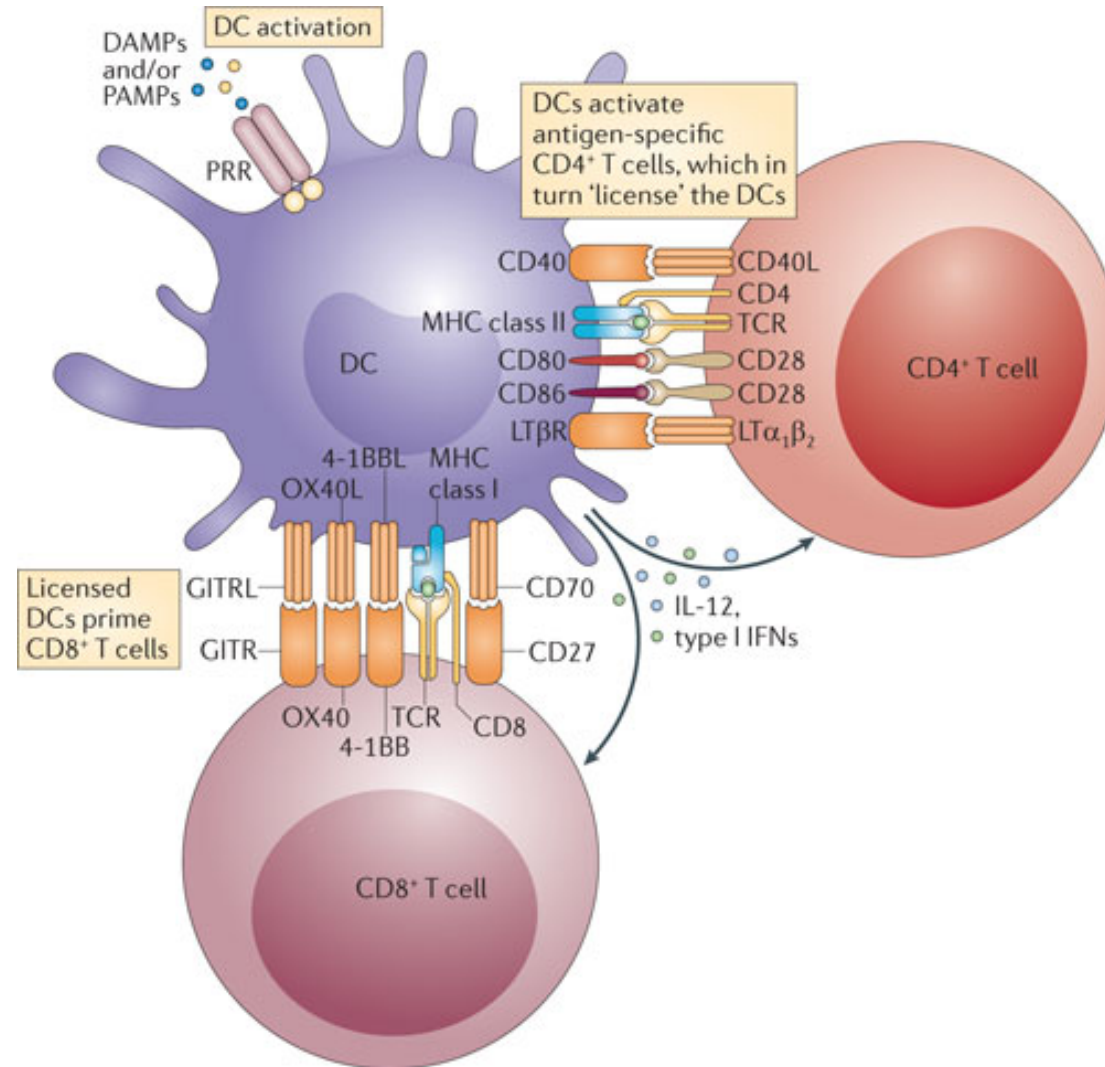


# TLR engagement leads to activation of both innate and adaptive immunity

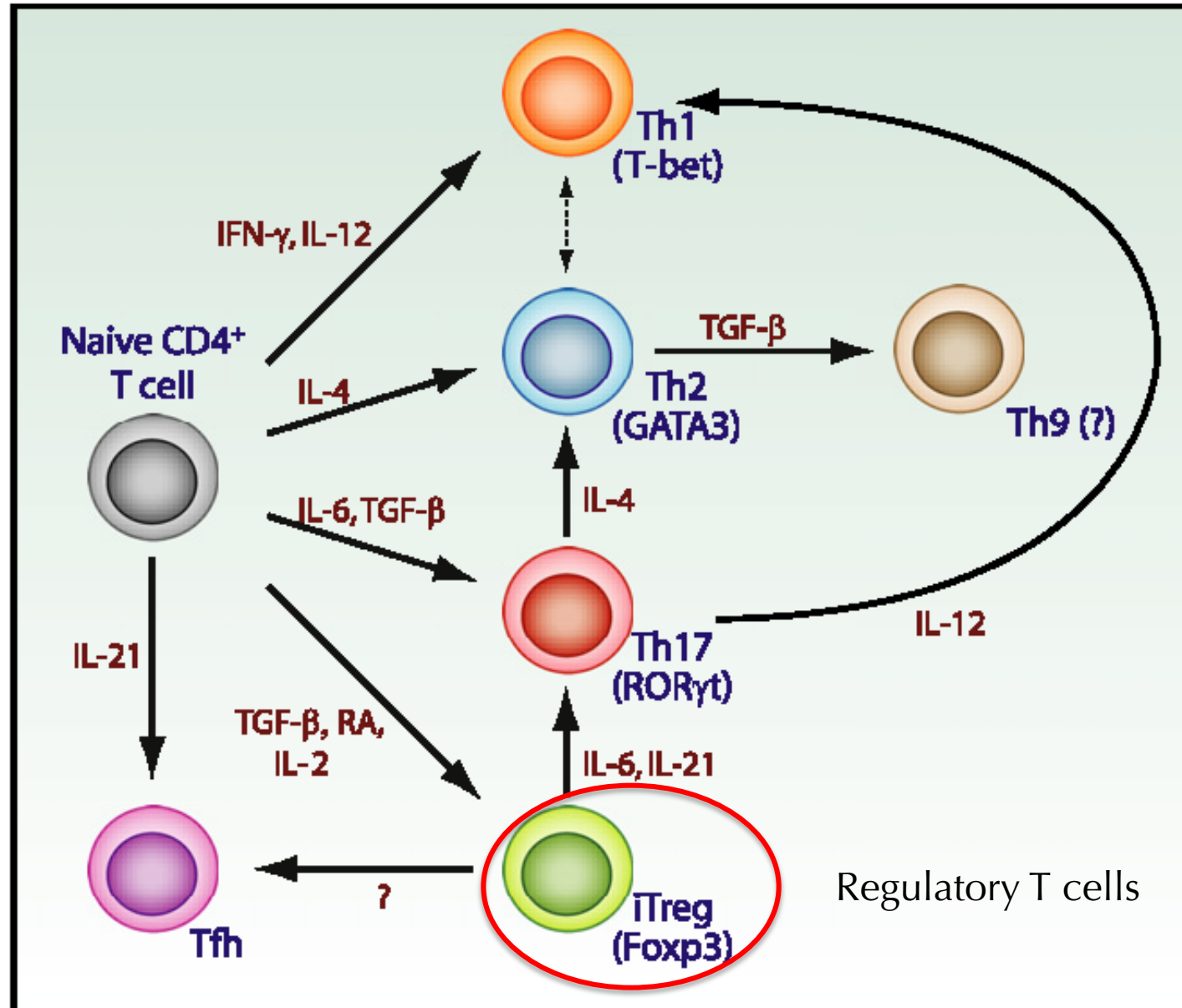




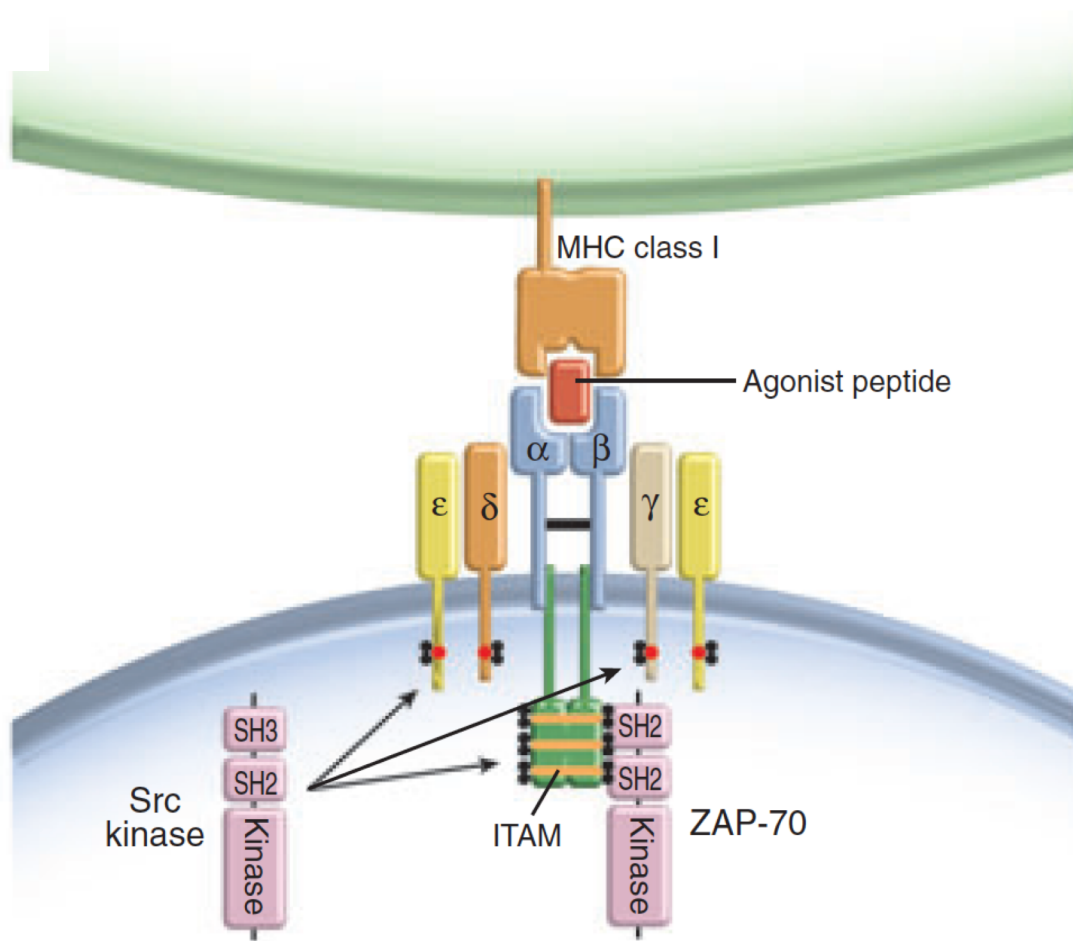
T cell priming involves antigen presentation, costimulatory & cytokine signals



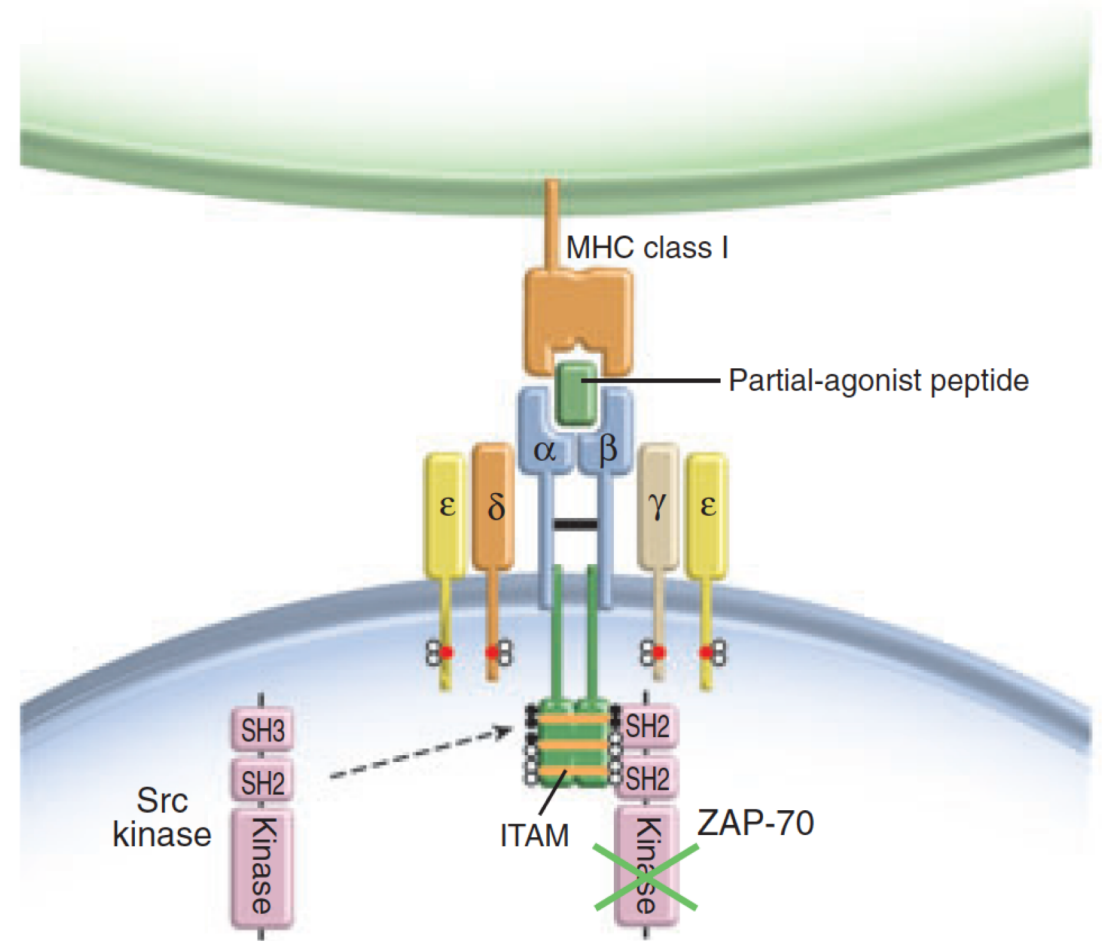
CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell plasticity one cell > many possible functional fates



The TCR is a 'rheostat', rather than a binary sensor



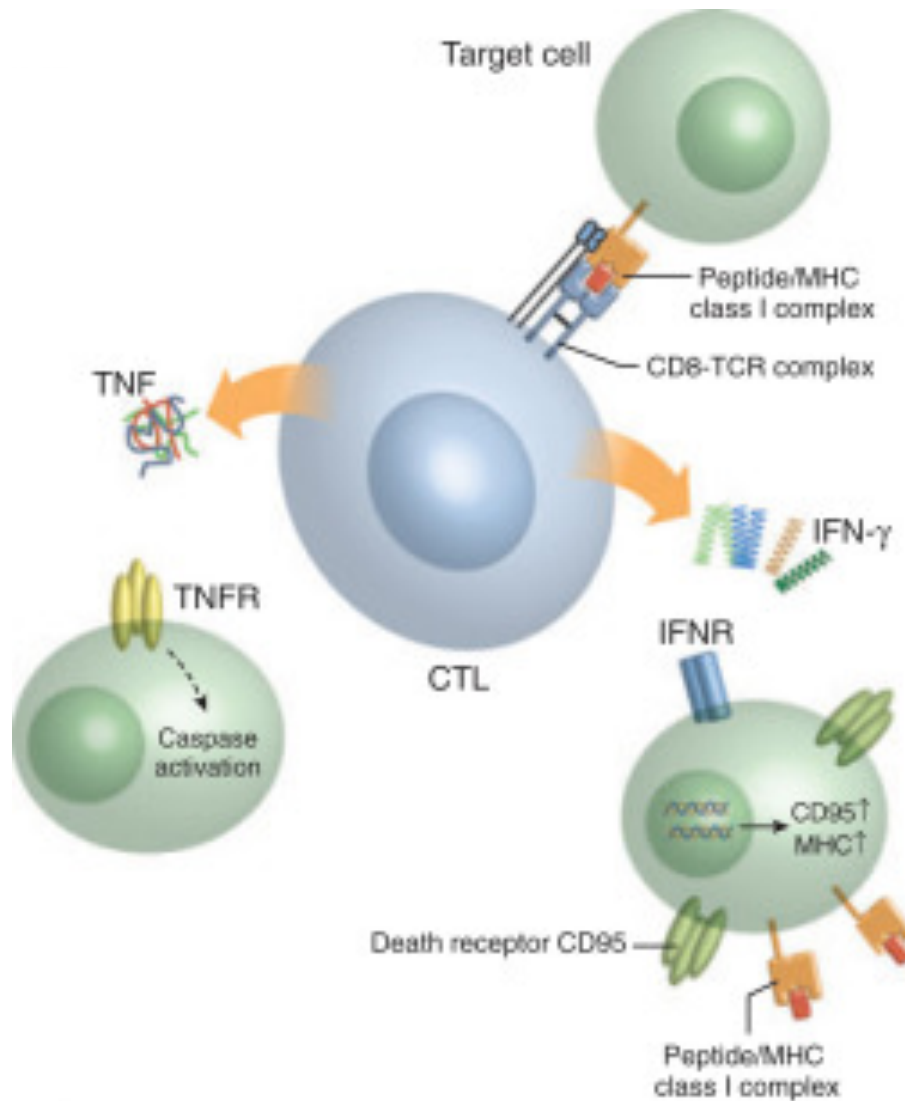
Full activation



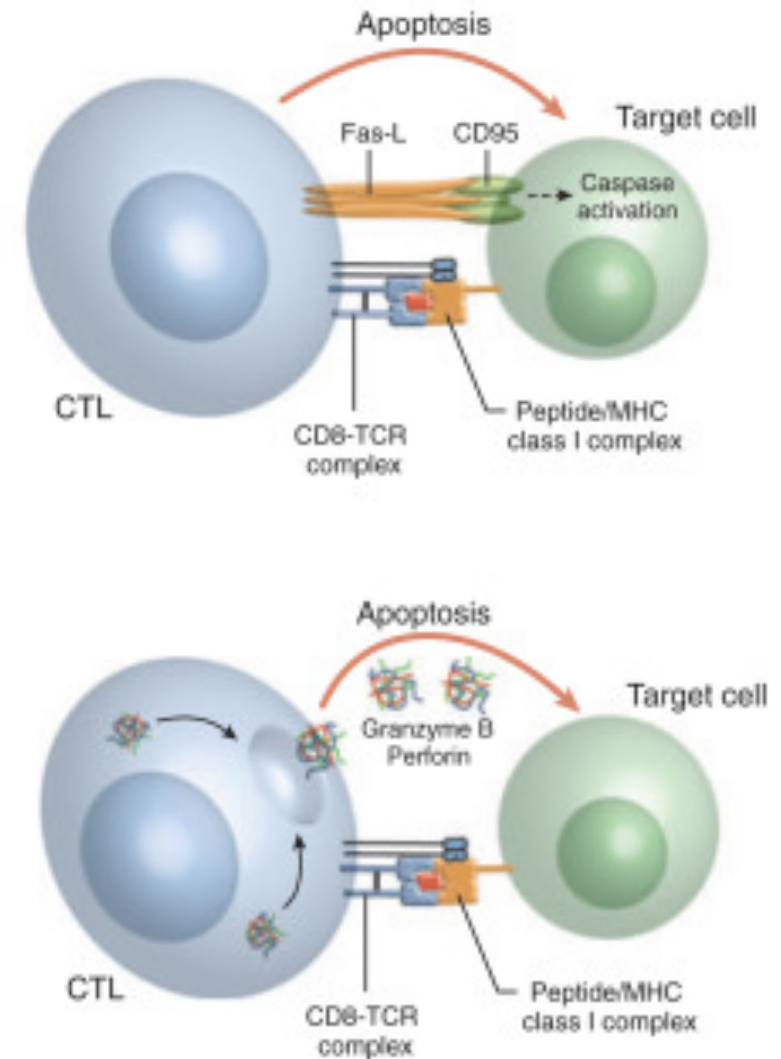
Partial activation

# Effector Mechanisms

## Cytokine mediated

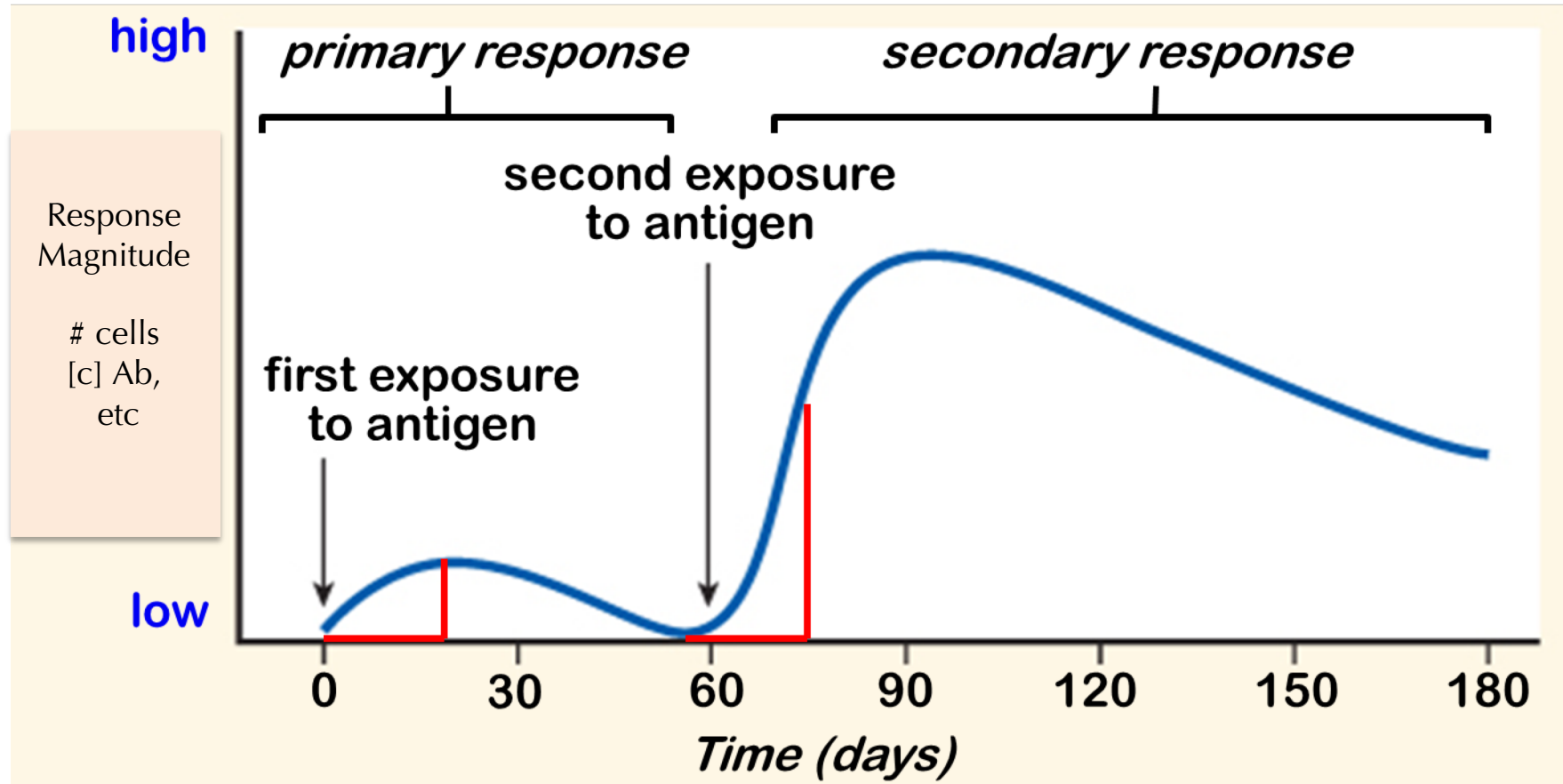


## Contact-dependent





## Immune memory: a faster and stronger secondary response



# The concept of immune memory

The Plague of Athens, 2<sup>nd</sup> Peloponnesian War

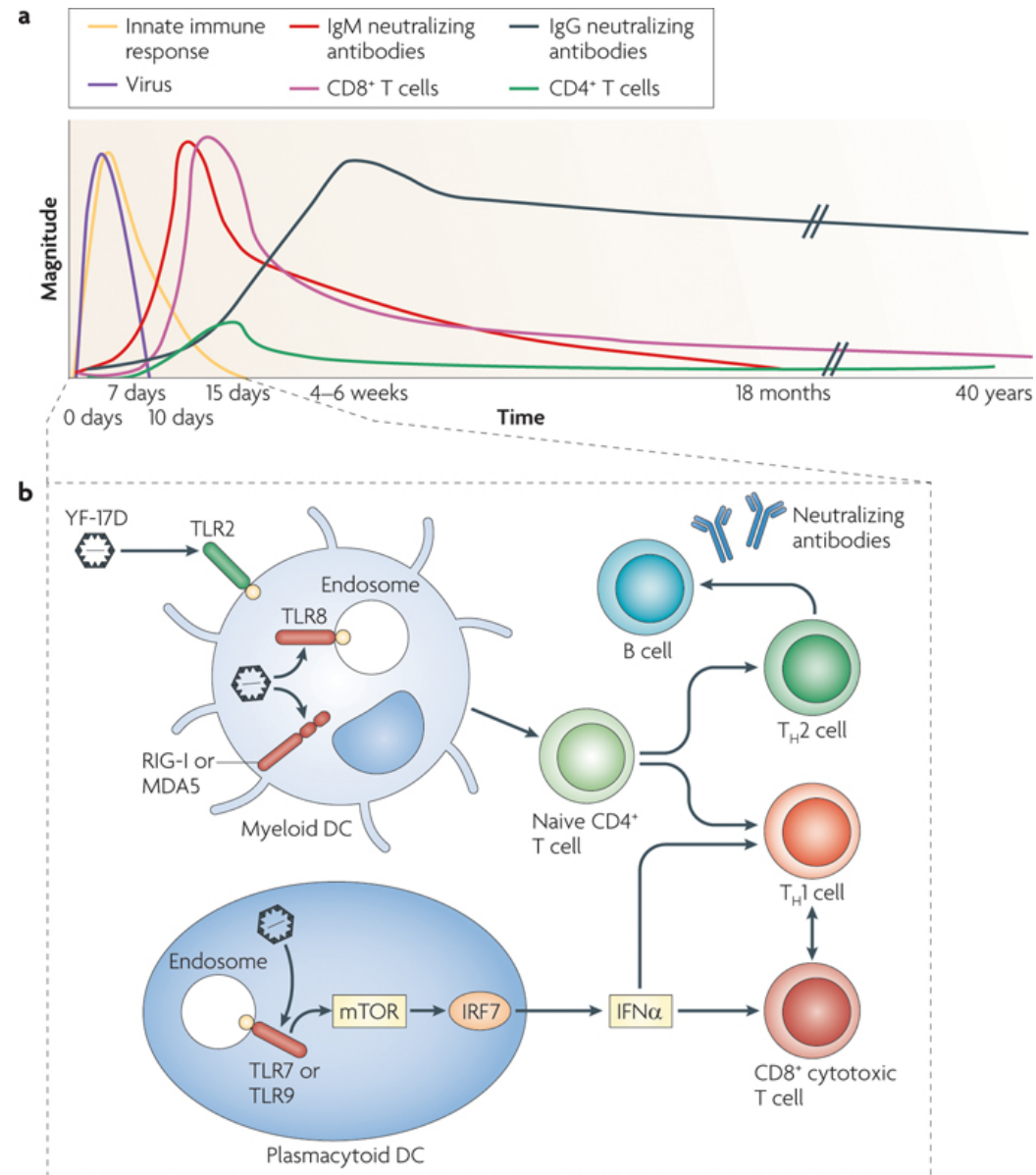
*“The sick and the dying were tended by the pitying care of those who had recovered, because they knew the course of the disease and were themselves free from apprehensions.*

***For no one was ever attacked a second time, or not with a fatal result”***

Thucydides, 400 B.C.

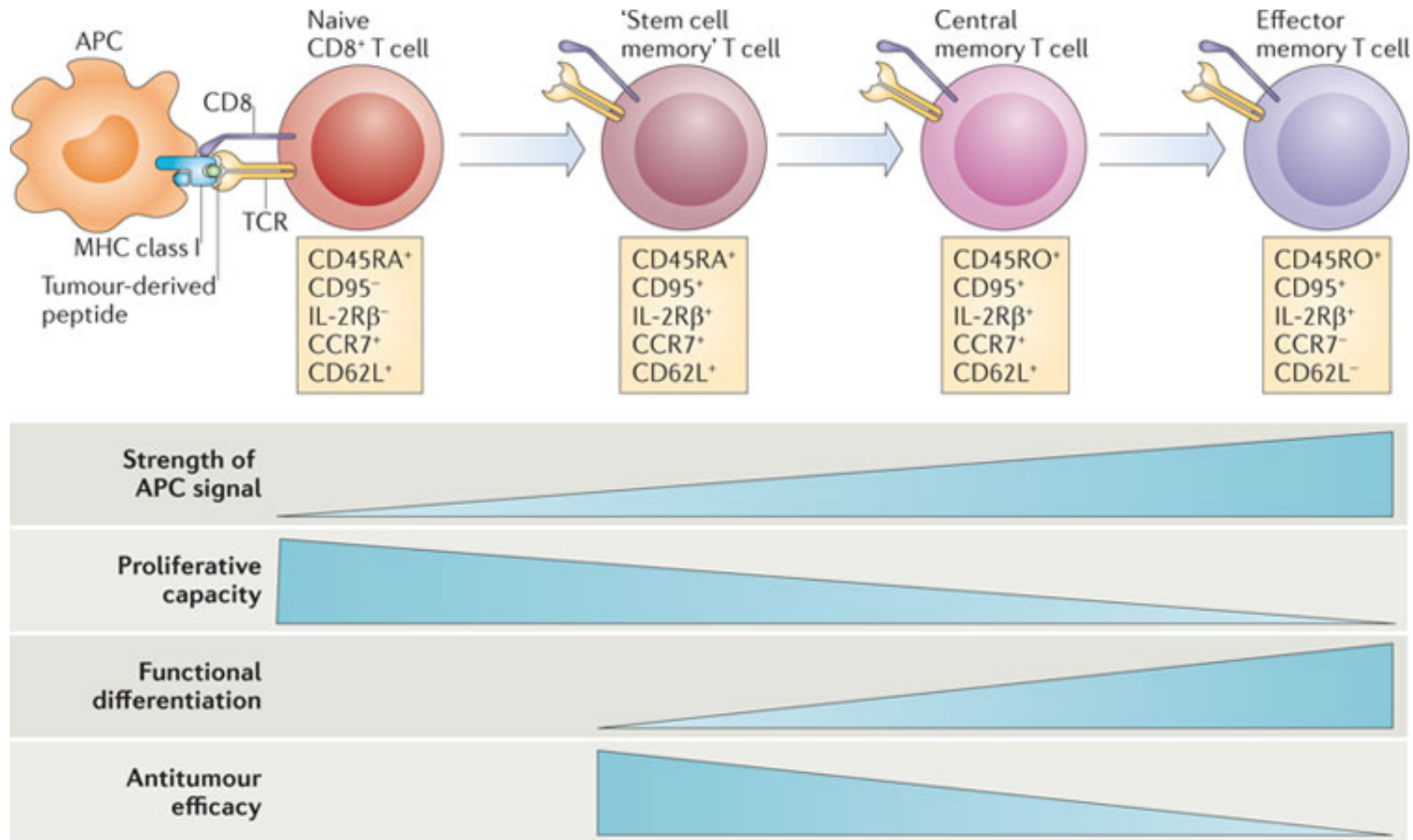


# Vaccination with Yellow Fever YF-17D induces long-lived immunity in humans



Adapted from B. Pulendran,  
Nature Reviews Immunology 2009

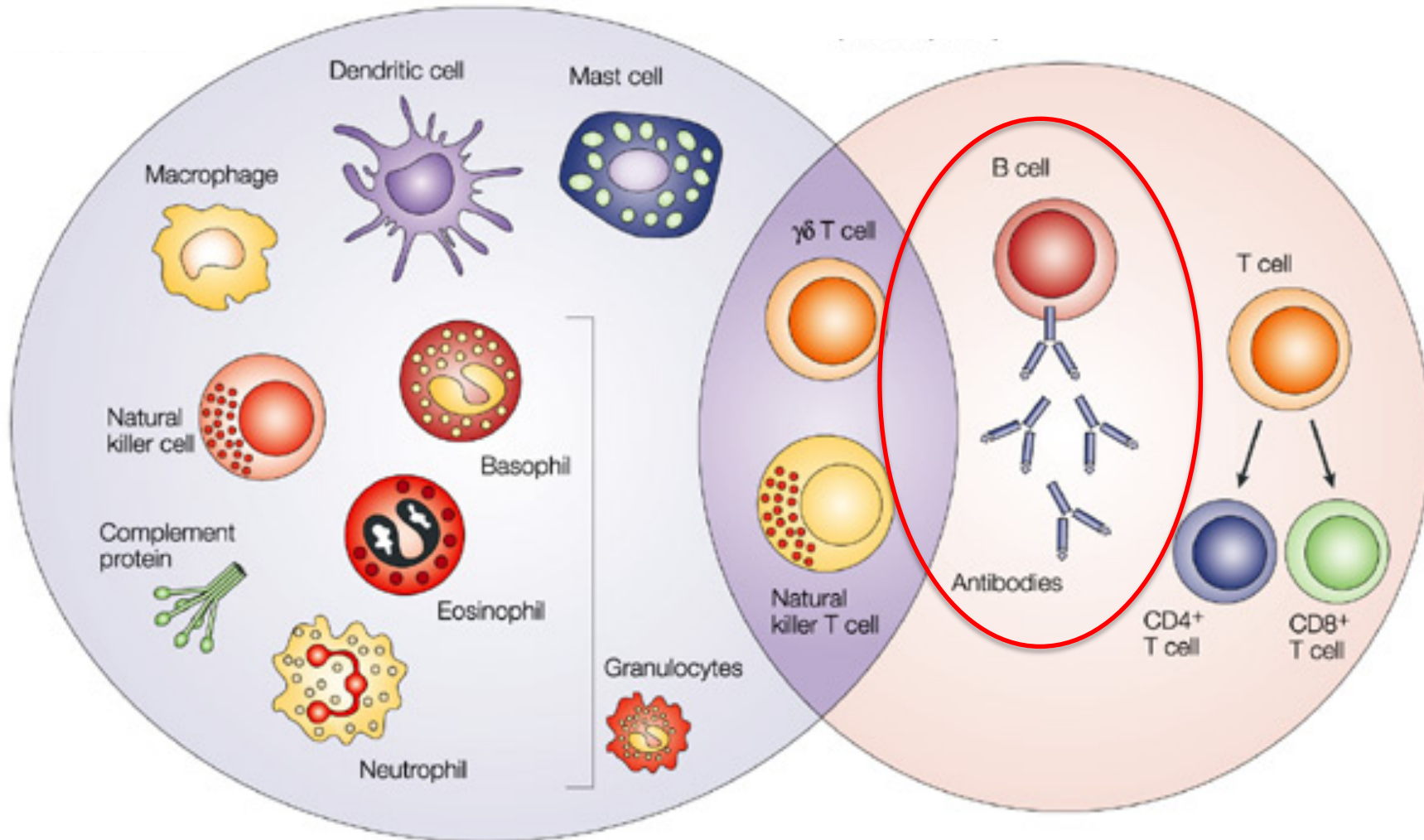
# Memory T cell subsets: $T_{CM}$ $T_{EM}$ $T_{RM}$ & $T_{SCM}$



# Innate & Adaptive Immunity

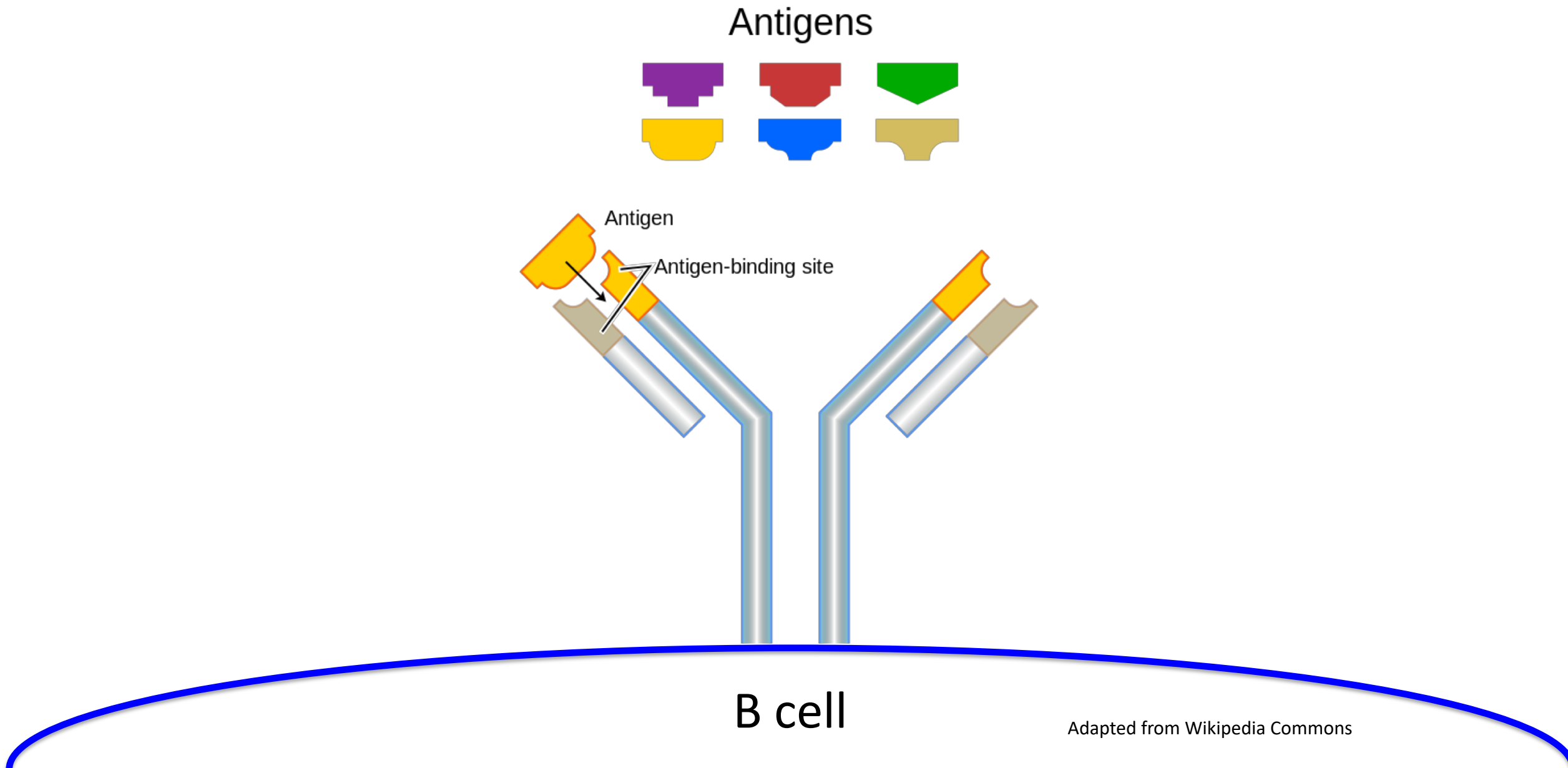
Innate arm  
(fast and non-specific)

Adaptive arm  
(slower but Ag-specific)

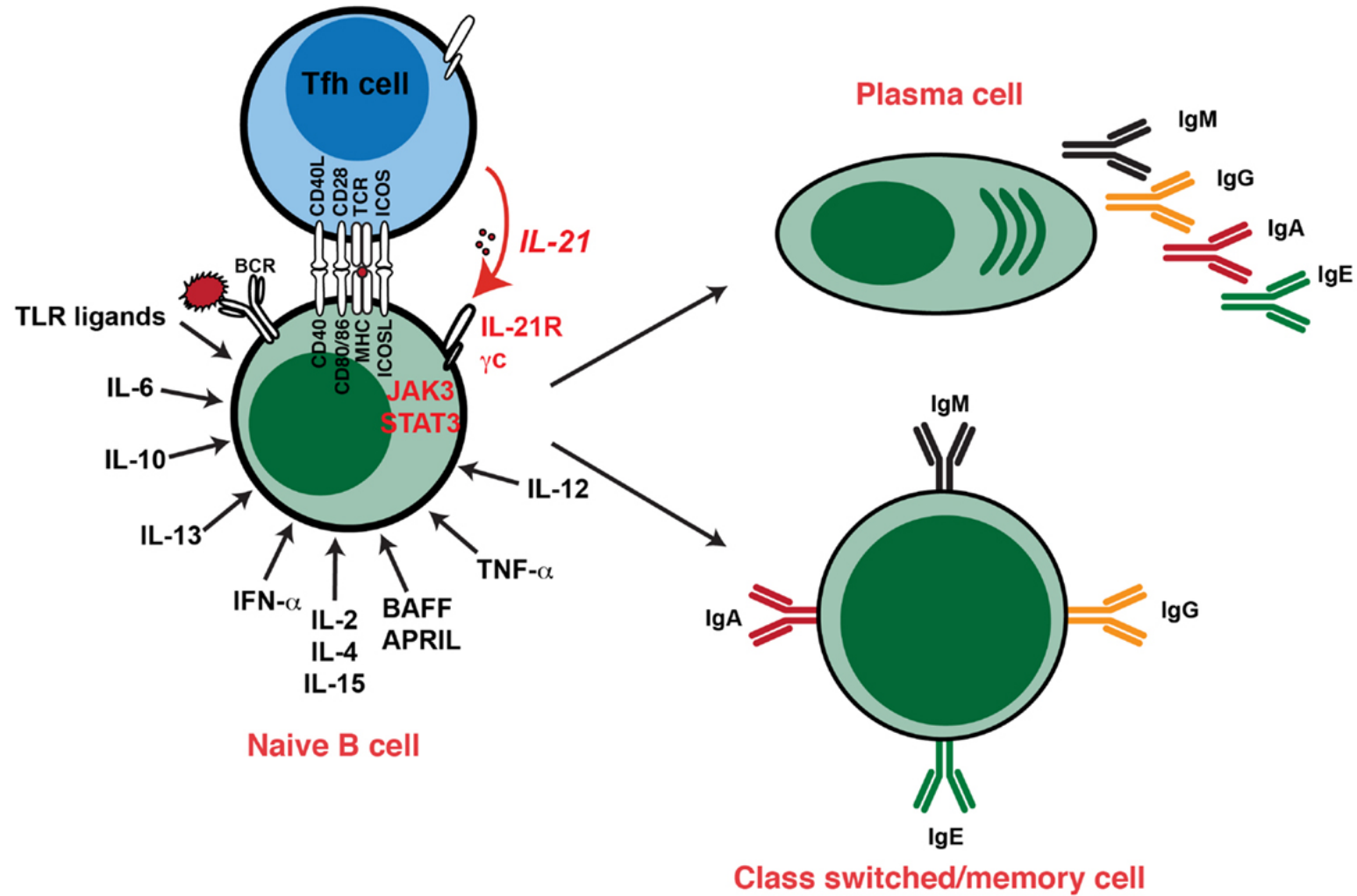




B cells recognize specific fragments of intact proteins via antibody receptors

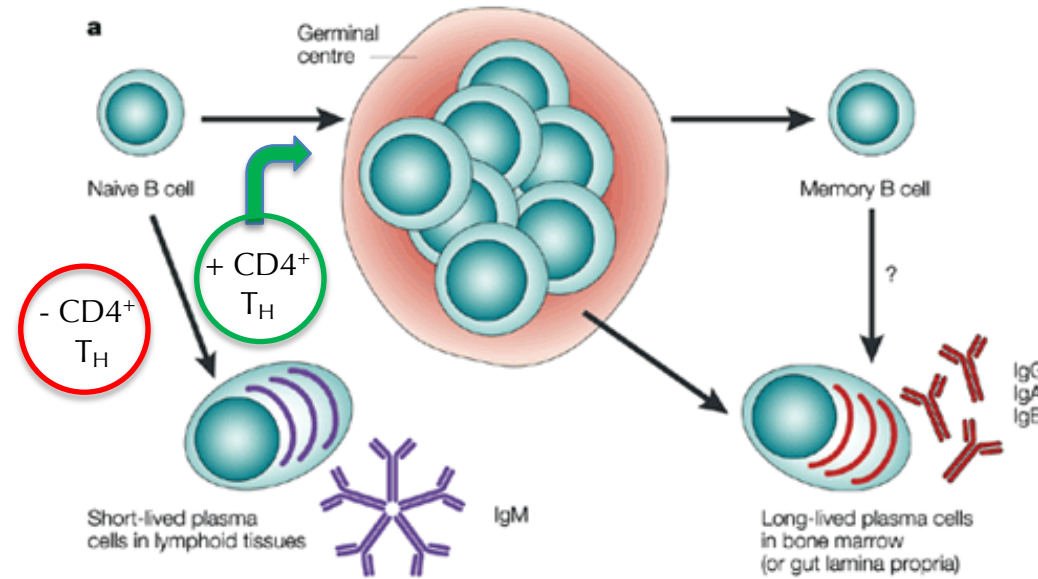


# Antibodies can be membrane-bound or secreted

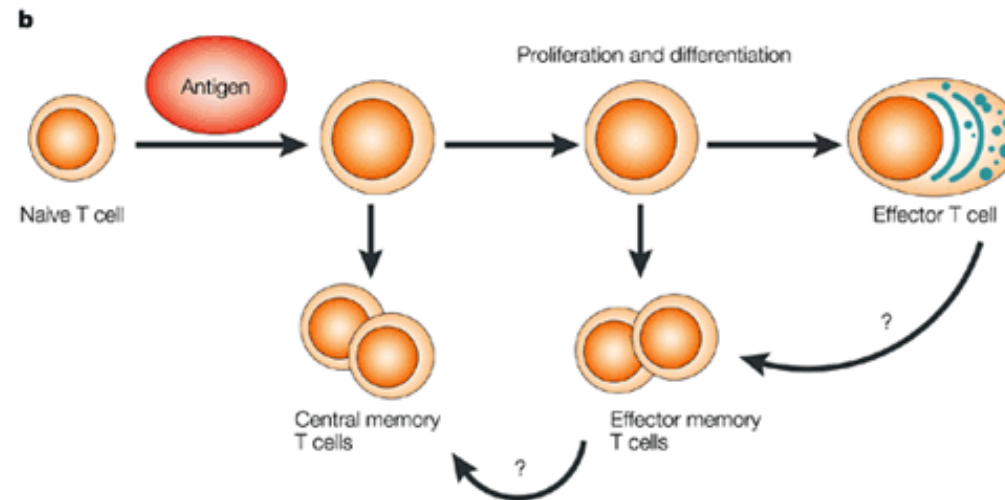


# B and T cell responses proceed via distinct pathways

B cells



T cells





# B cell development

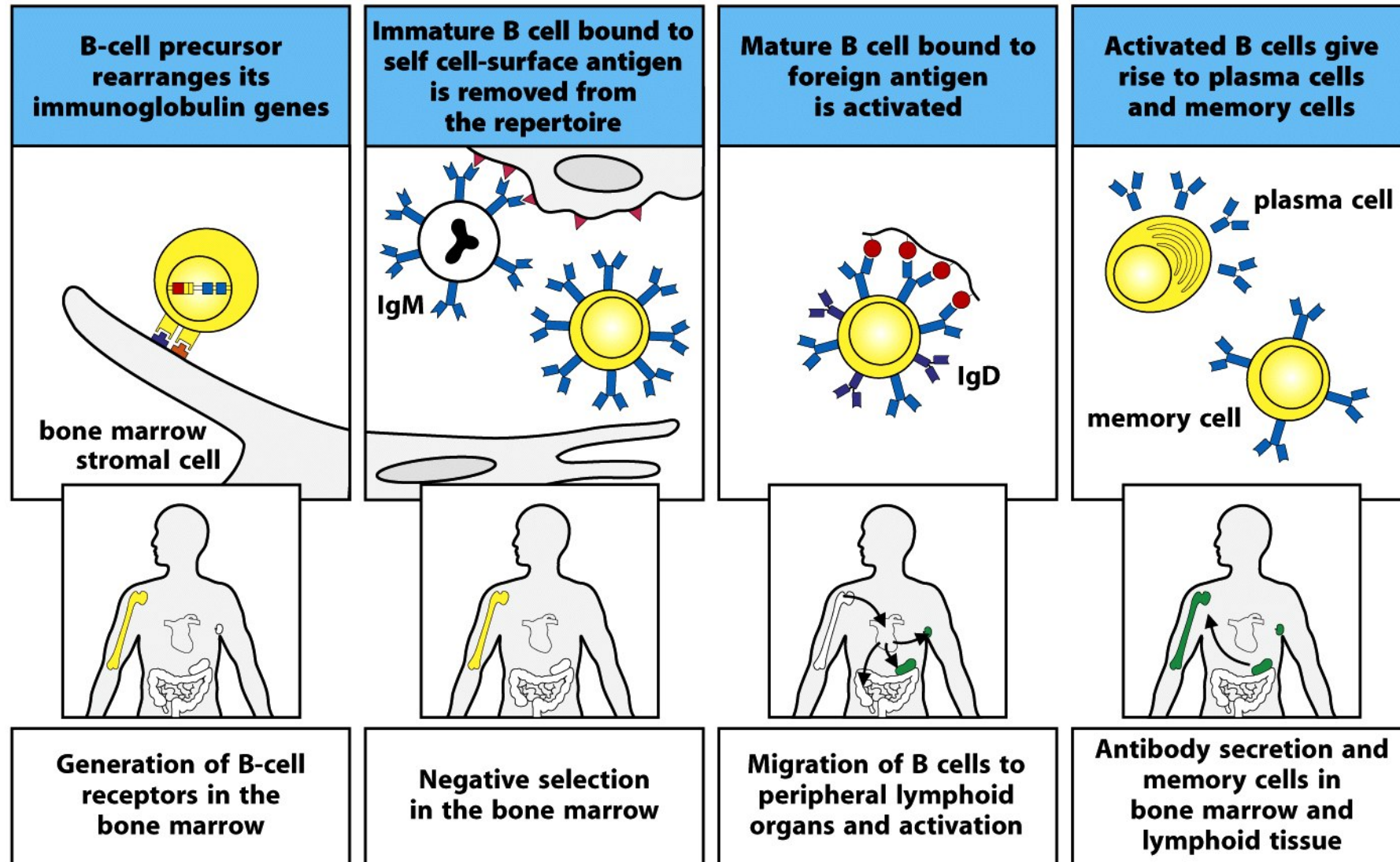
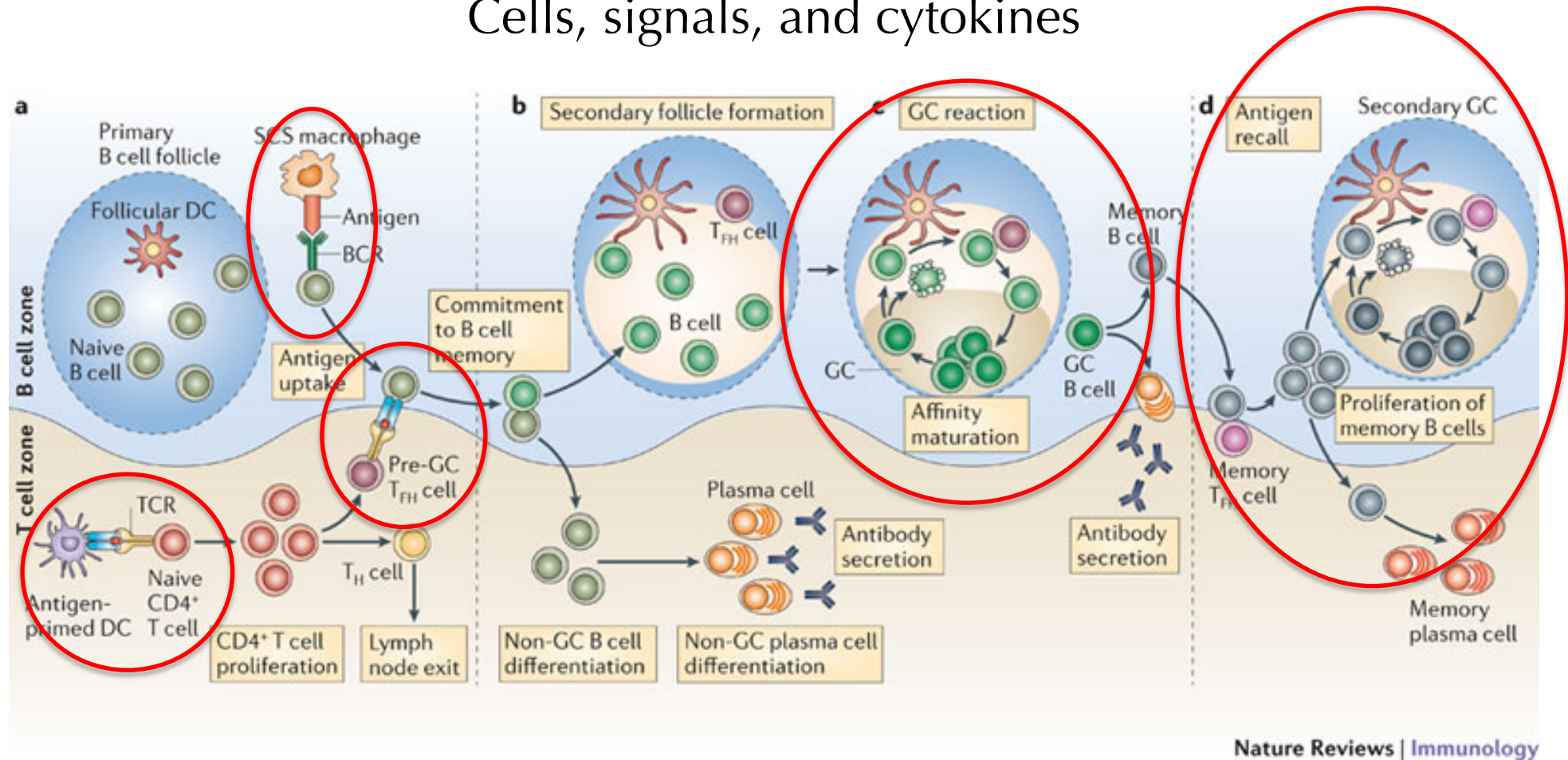
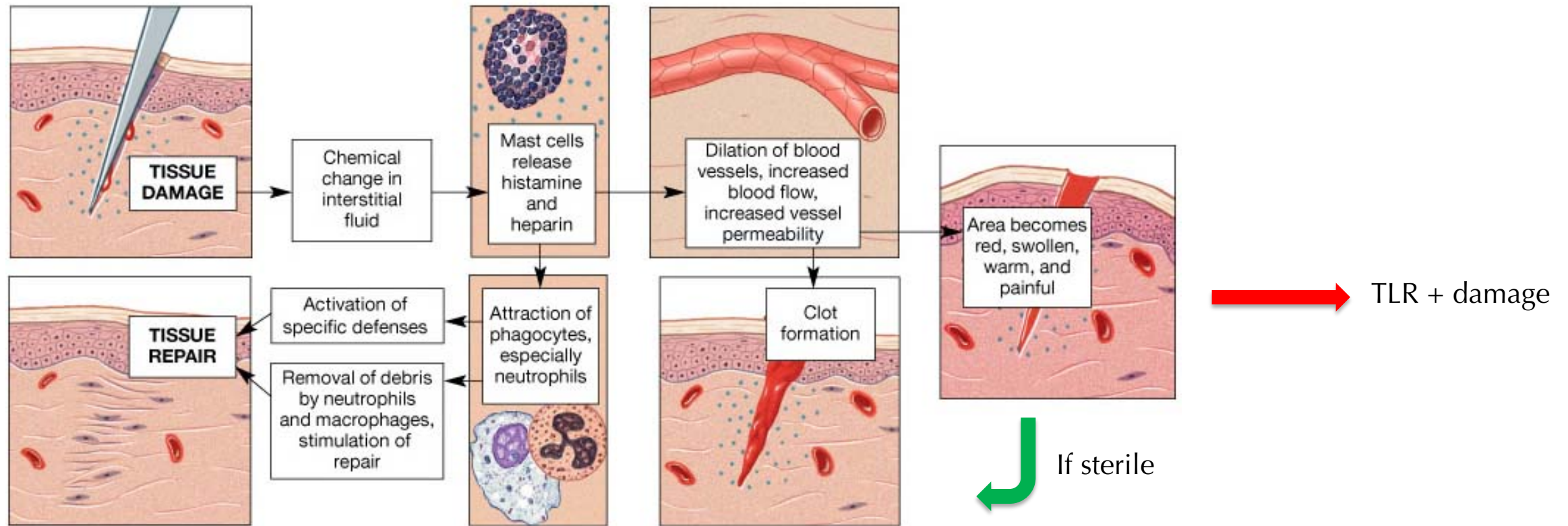


Figure 7-1 Immunobiology, 7ed. (© Garland Science 2008)

# Multistep progression to B cell memory: Cells, signals, and cytokines

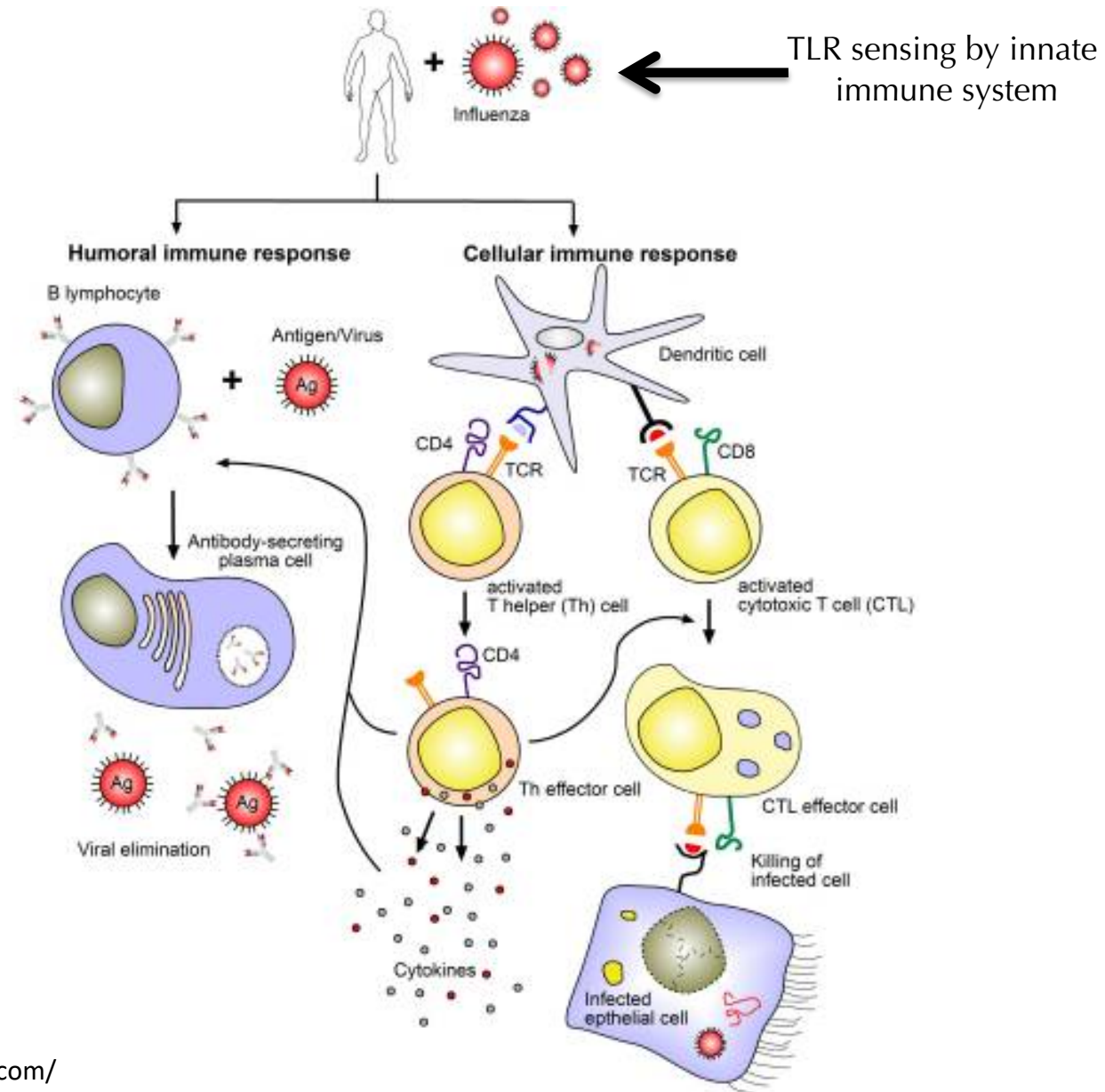


How does an immune response against an infectious pathogen begin?

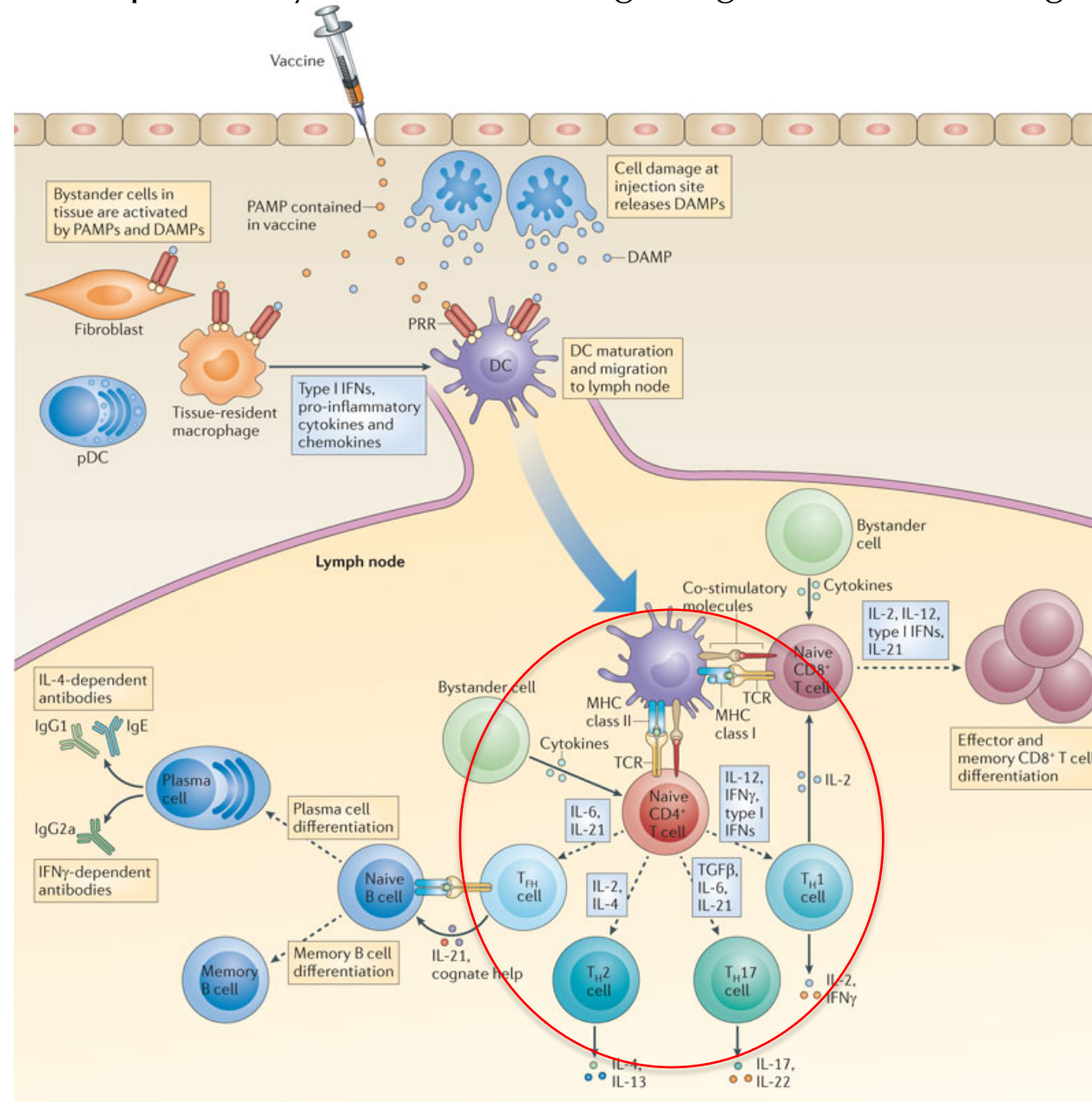




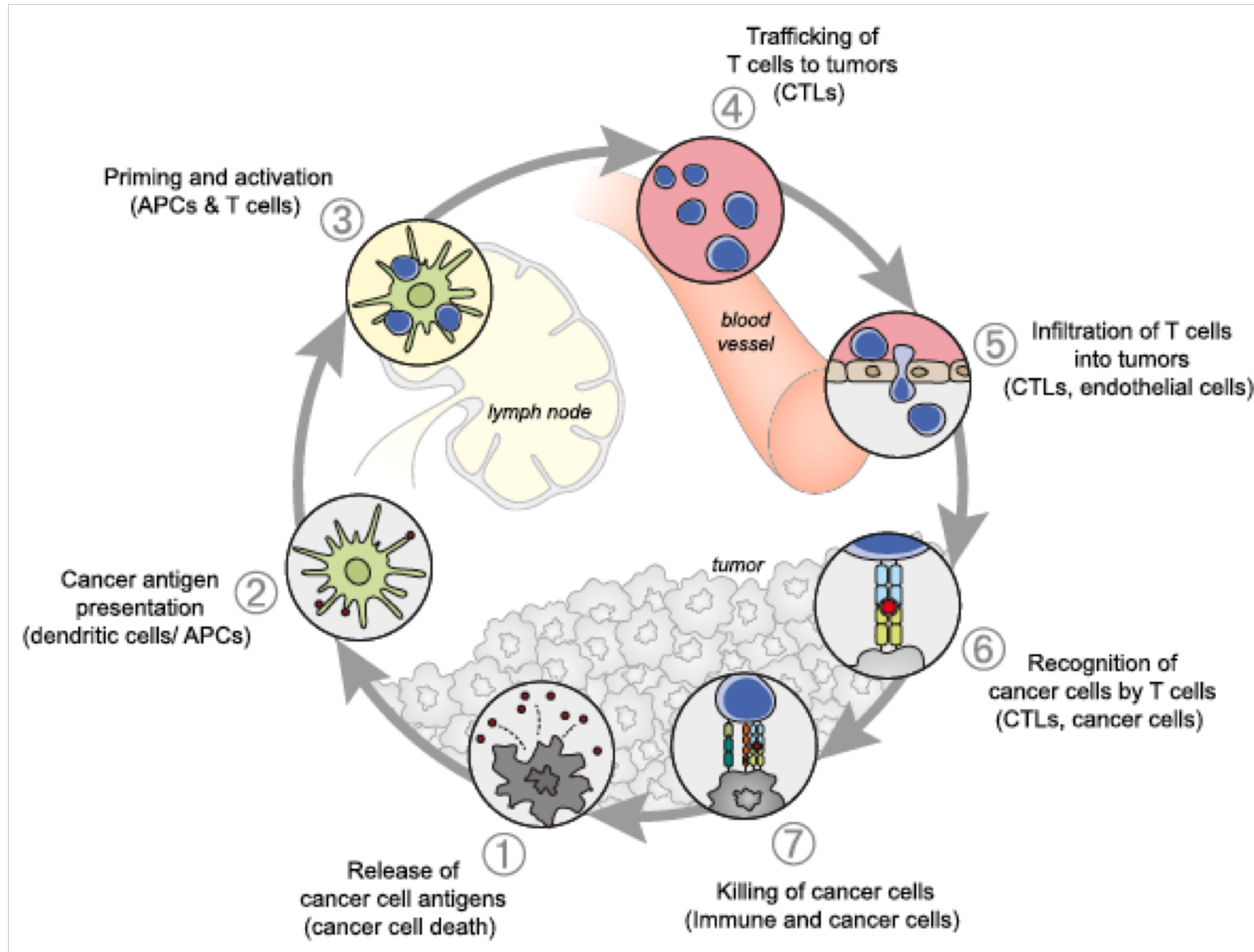
# The infection-immunity cycle



B and T cells are primed by activated DC migrating from sites of antigen uptake

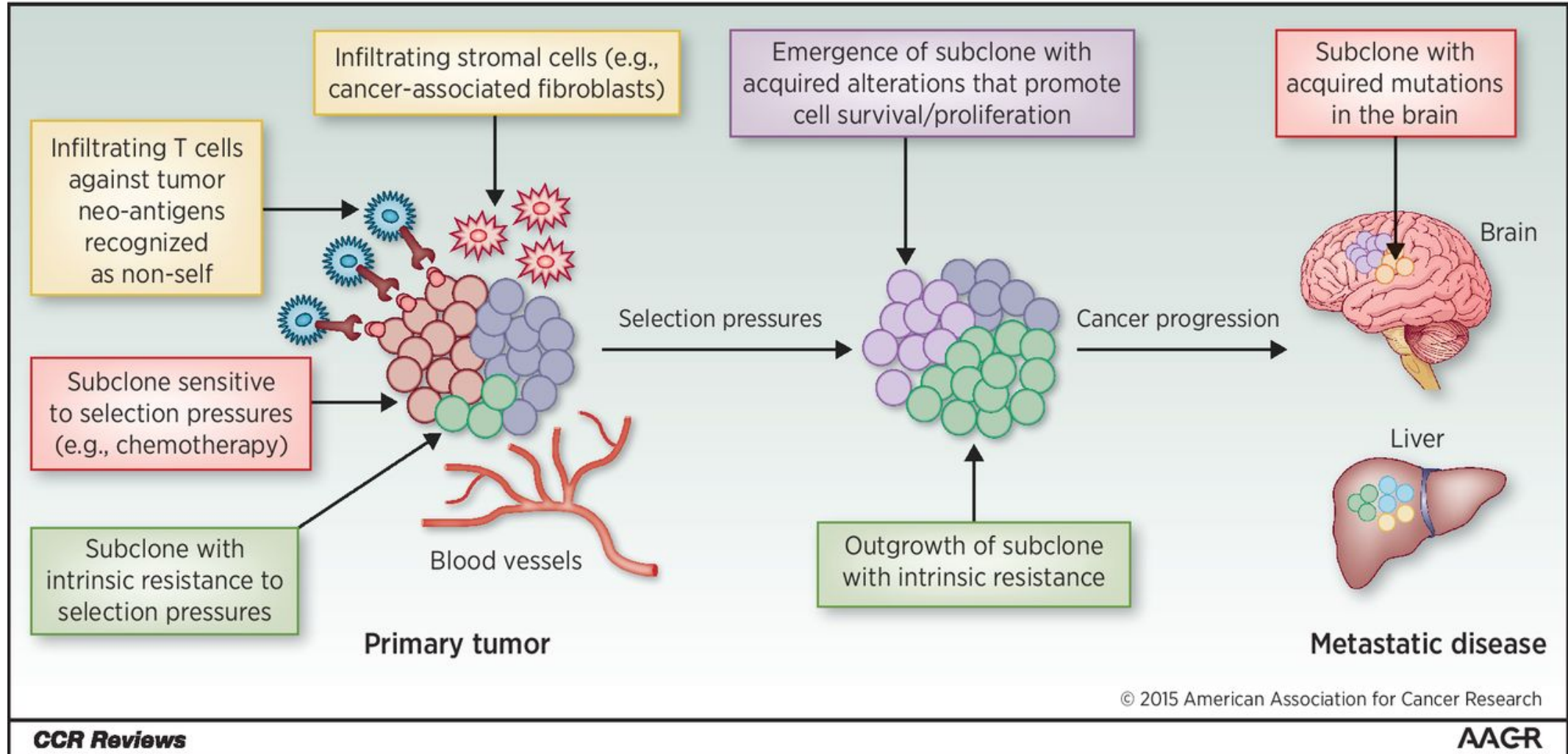


# The Cancer-Immunity cycle

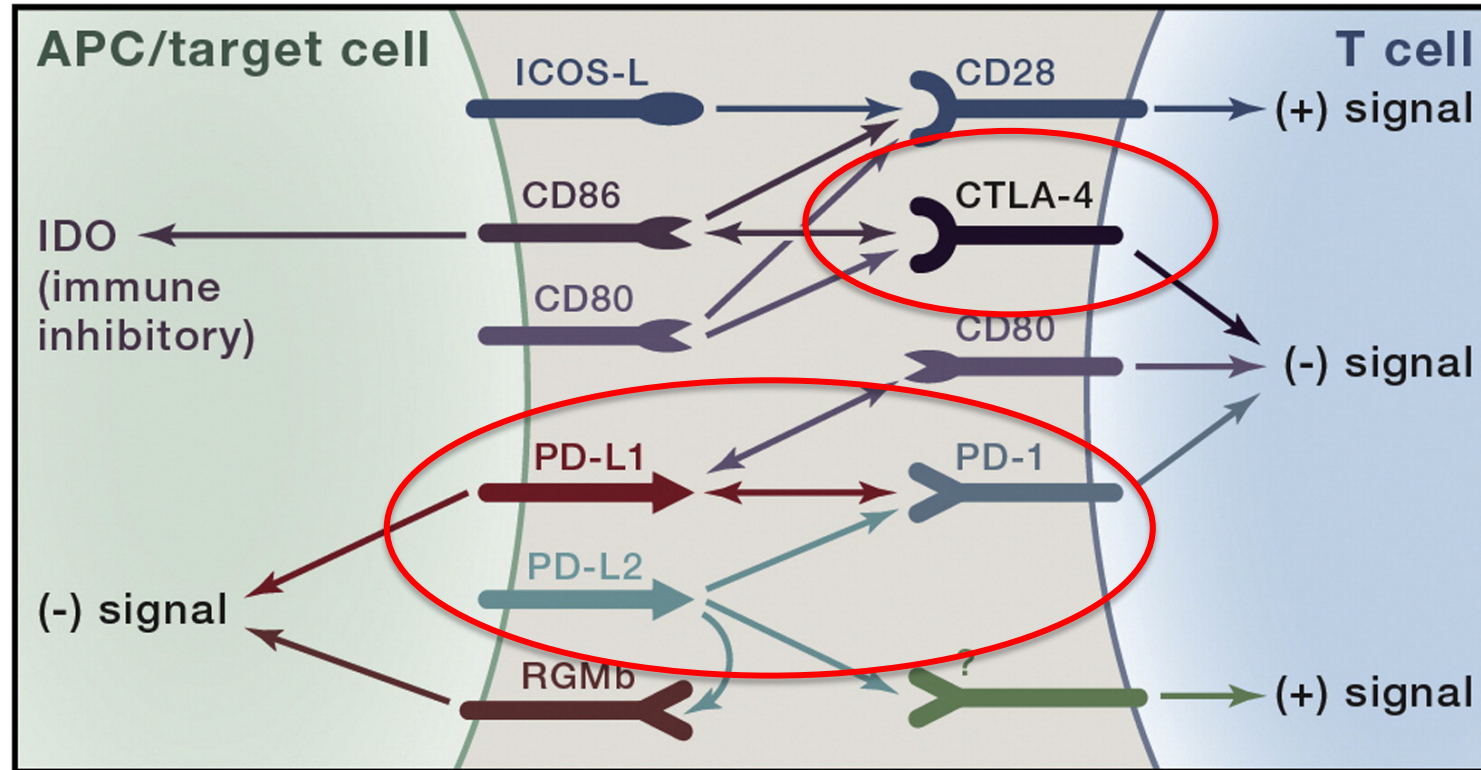




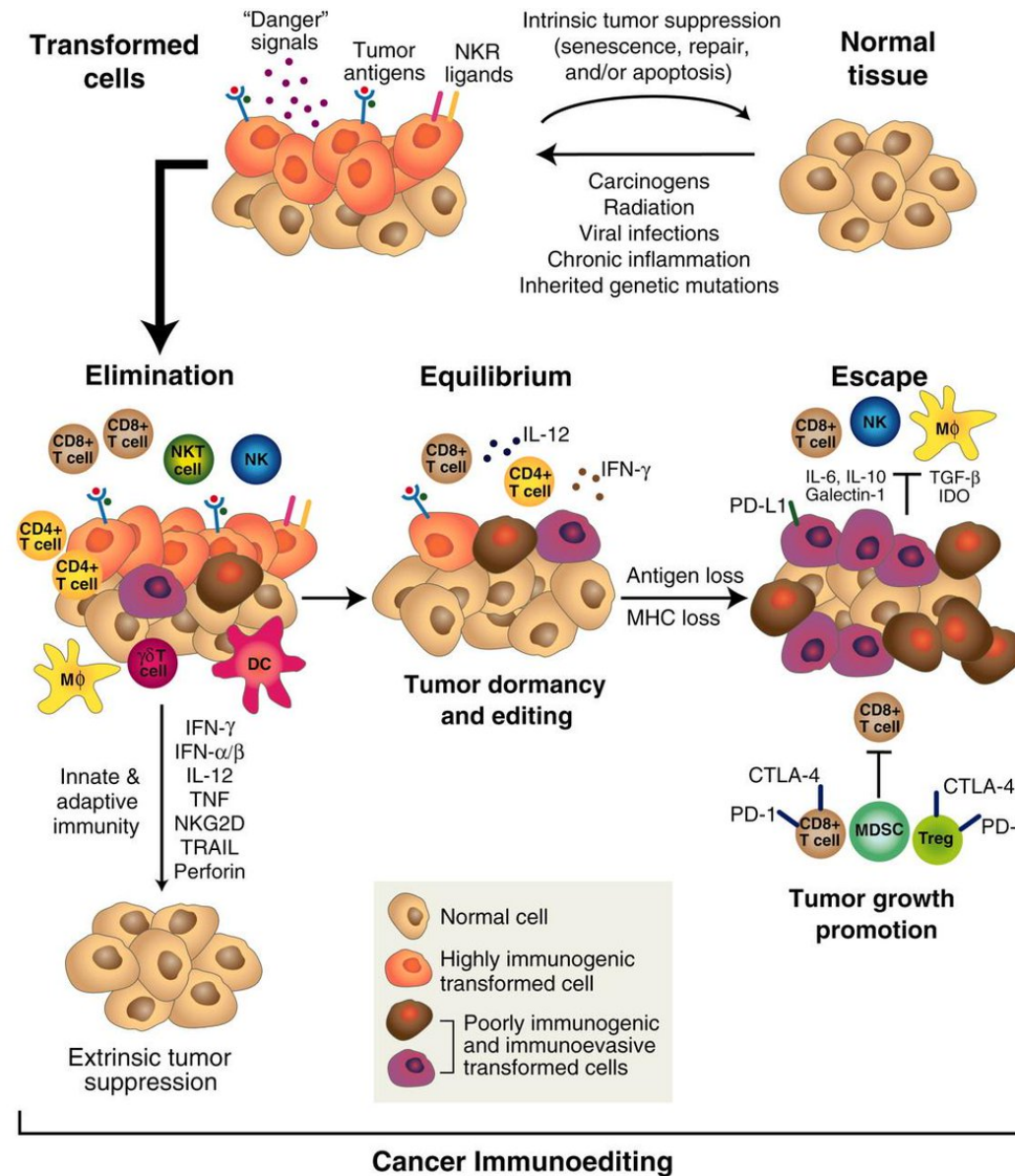
# Tumors evolve, adapt, progress, and escape



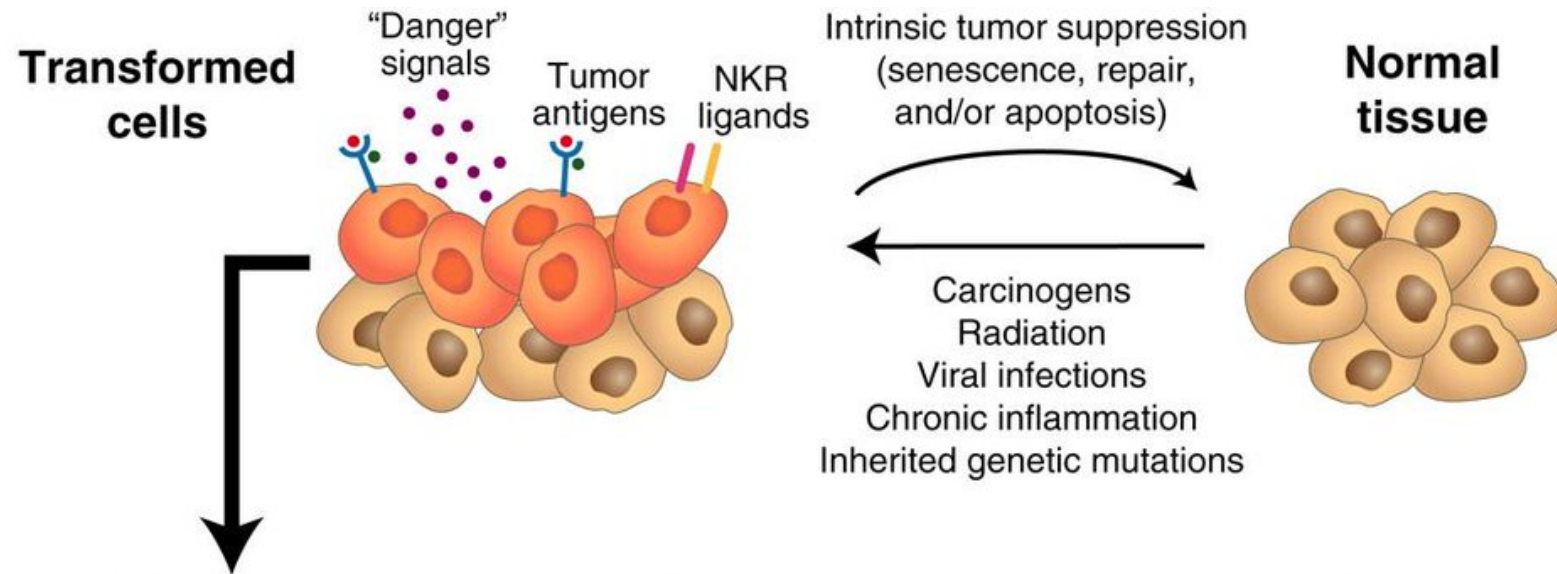
T cells responses are regulated by both positive and negative signals



# Tumors 'edit' the immune response to avoid destruction

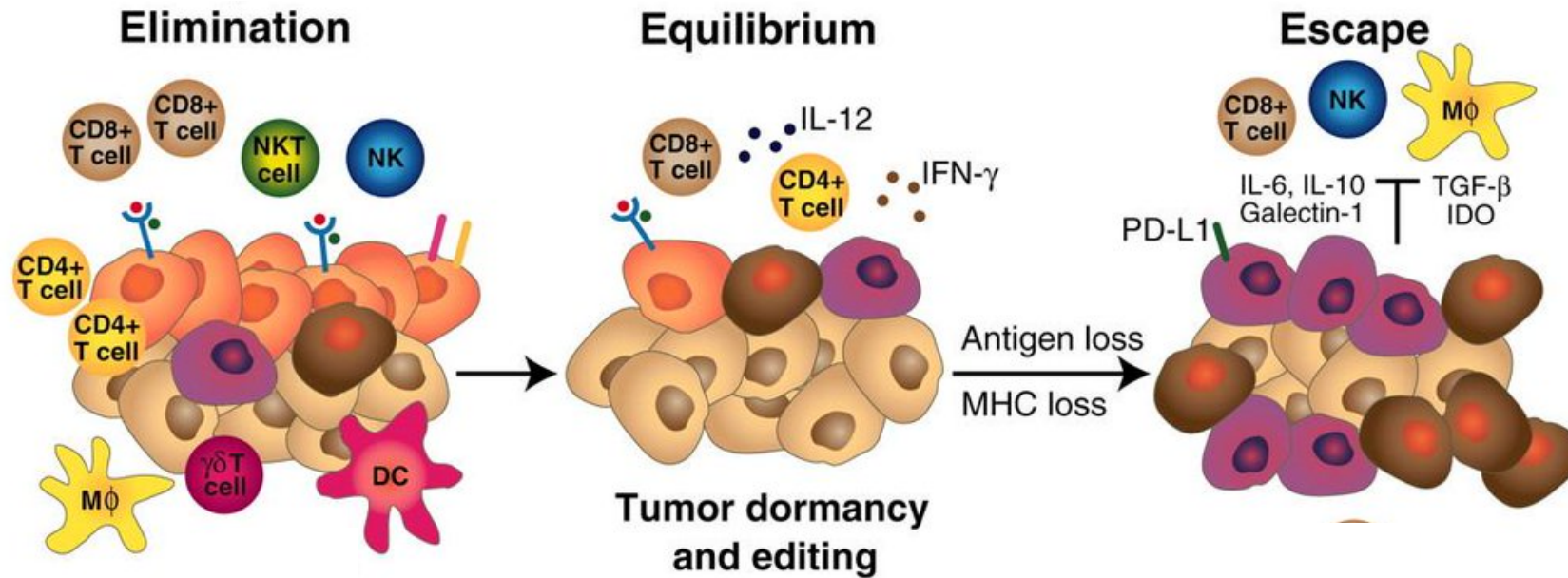


# Tumors 'edit' the immune response to avoid destruction

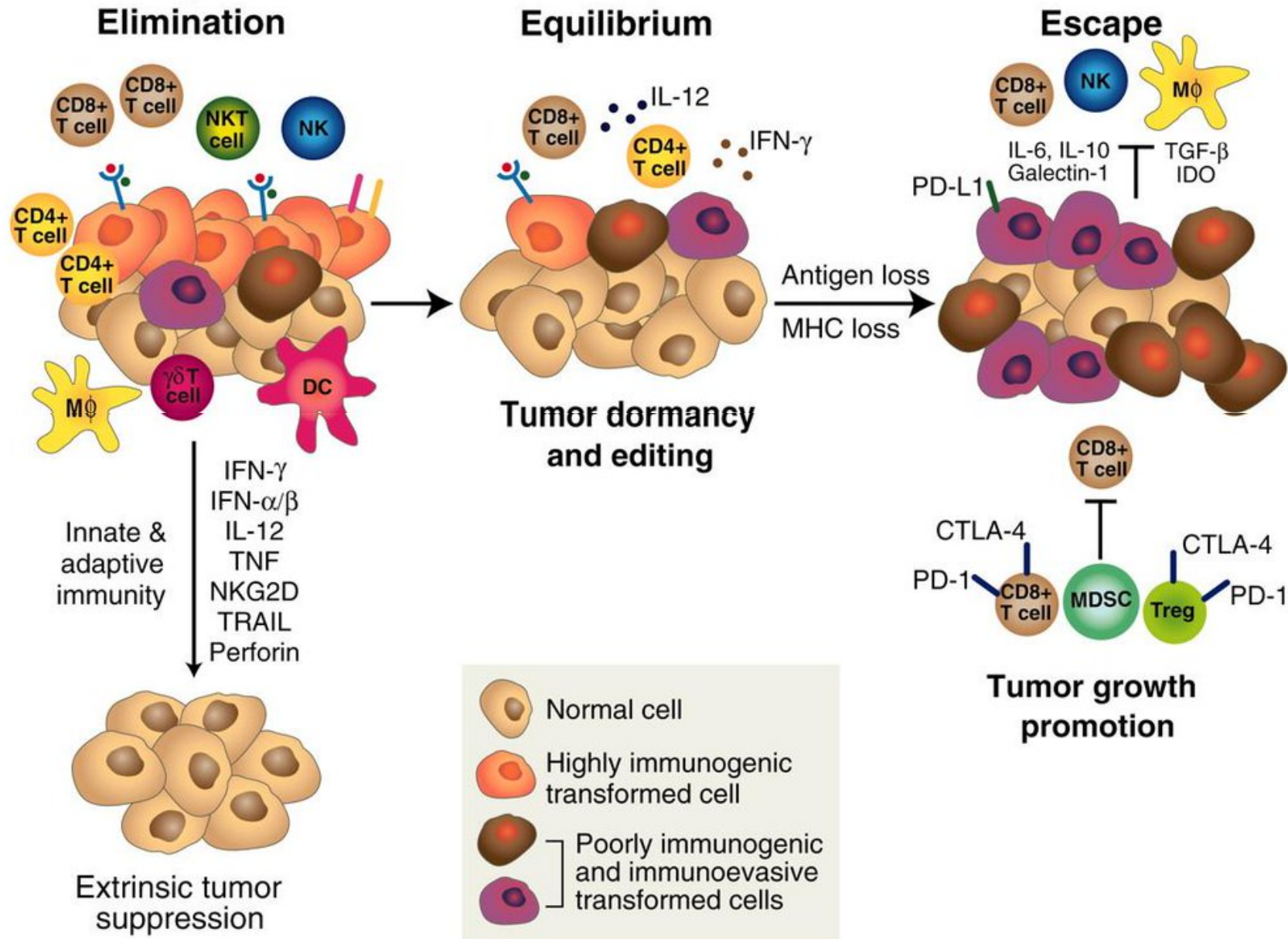




# Tumors 'edit' the immune response to avoid destruction



# Tumors 'edit' the immune response to avoid destruction

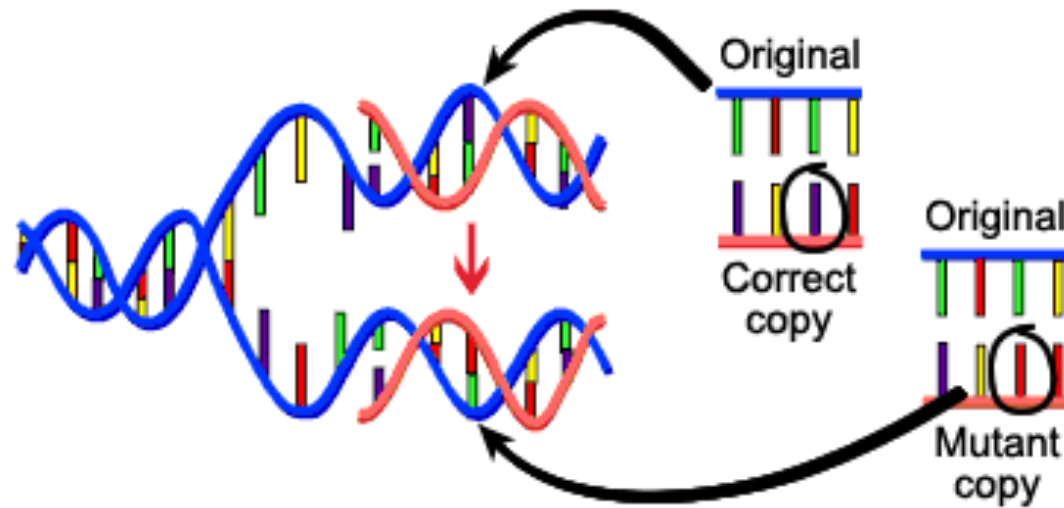




# What are the target antigens for anti-tumor immune responses?

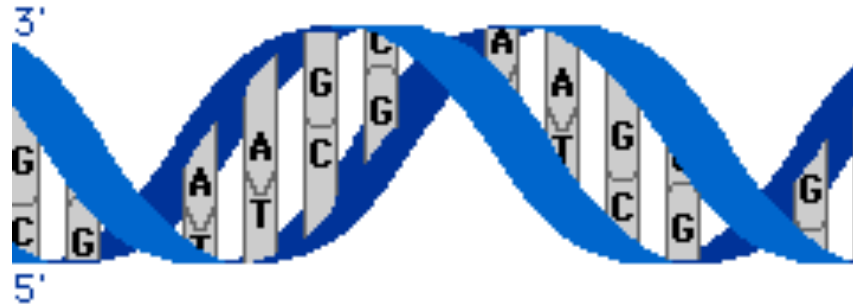
- For NK cells: missing MHC and/or stress ligands
- For mAB and CAR-T cells: appropriately-targeted surface proteins (usually non-mutated)
- For CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells: tumor-specific mutations  
(neoantigens)

The accuracy of DNA replication is crucial,  
but mistakes, called mutations, do happen\*\*



\* 1 in  $10^{-8}$  per site/generation \* 50-70 billion cells divide per day

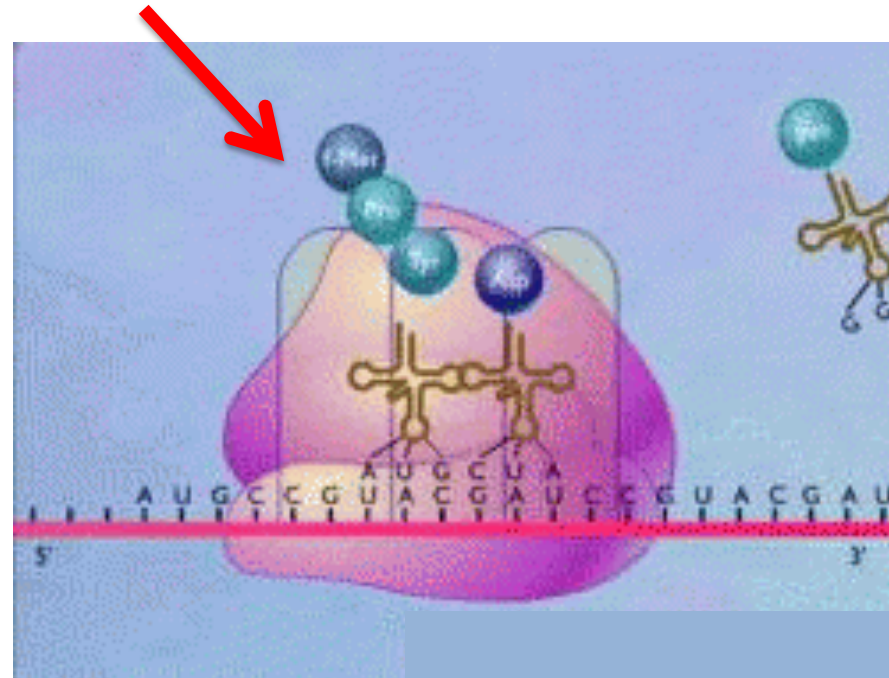
DNA copied to RNA



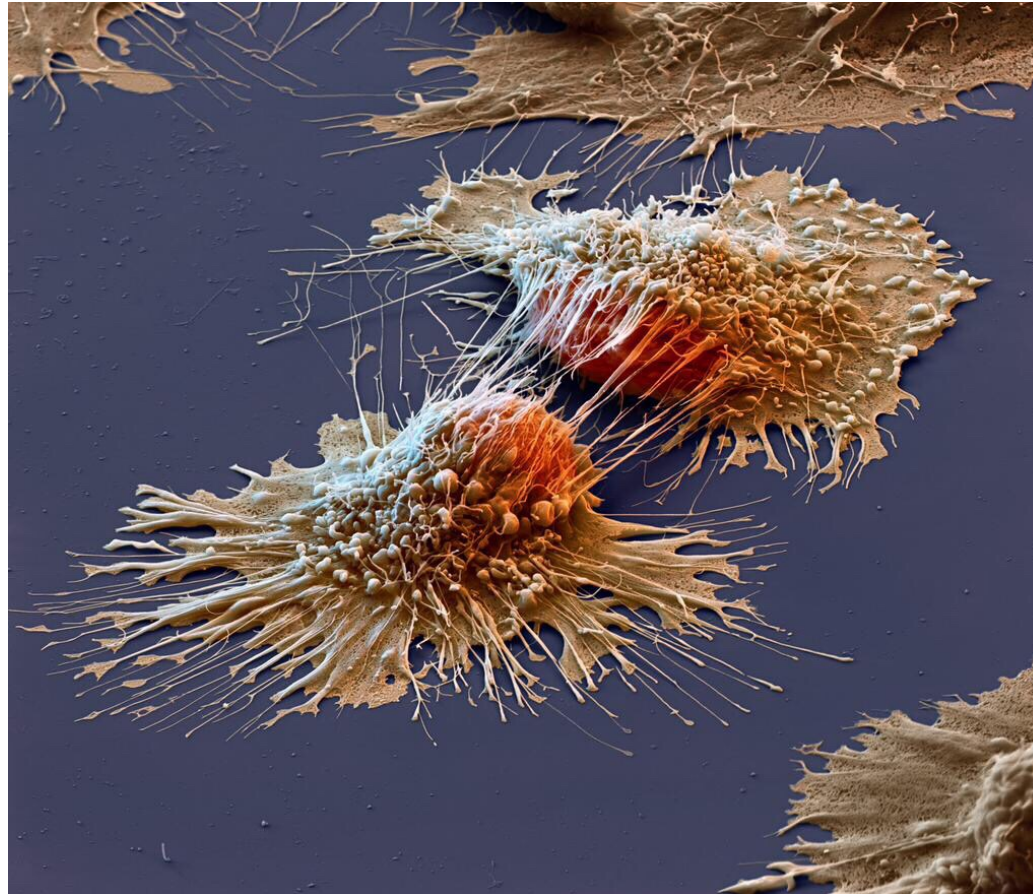
Mutations in protein

RNA instructs protein synthesis

Mutations in DNA/RNA



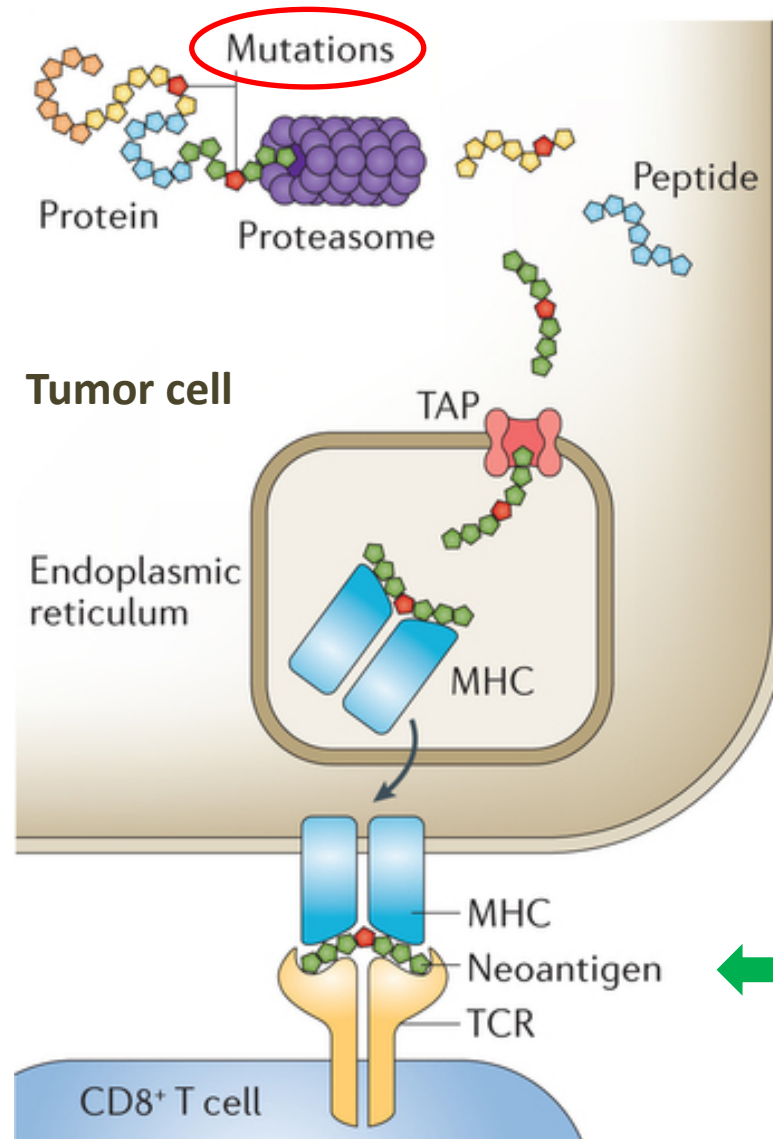
Cancer results from *function-altering mutations*  
in the genes controlling cellular life & death



# Tumor mutations create targets for T cell recognition = Neoantigens (NeoAg)

## NeoAg ID useful for:

- 1) Vaccines
- 2) Cellular Therapy
- 3) Immune monitoring
- 4) Patient selection for ICB



## 2 classes of mutations:

“Driver” mutations:

Enable cancer  
(Eg: Ras, P53, PIK3CA, etc)

“Passenger” mutations:

Along for the ride?

T cells can ‘see’ both types

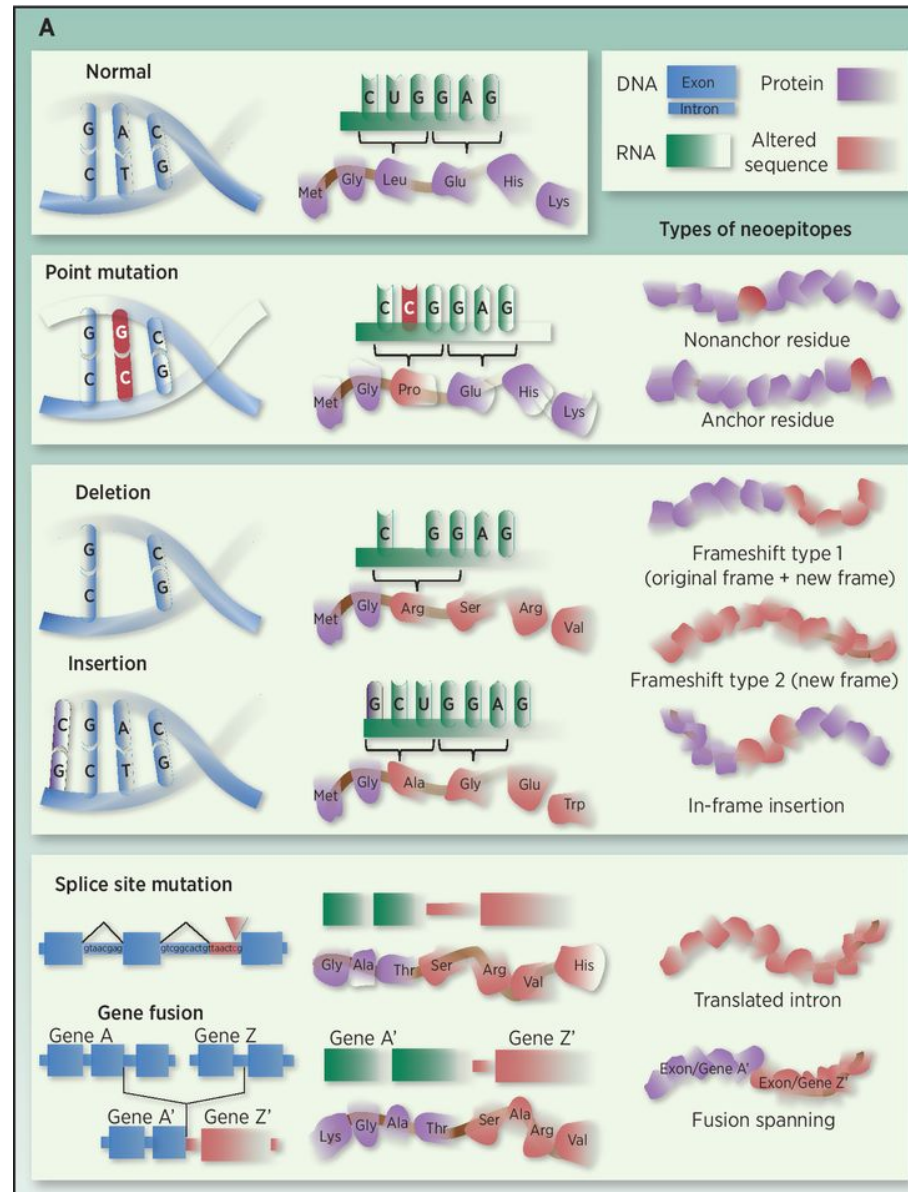
# Sources of NeoAgs

## Somatic mutations

Missense

Frameshift

Splice variants





# The problem with neoantigen prediction

Personalized immunotherapy is all the rage, but neoantigen discovery and validation remains a daunting problem.

re. All rights reserved.

Last December, the newly minted Parker Institute for Cancer Immunotherapy and its venerable East Coast counterpart, the Cancer Research Institute, announced the formation of the Tumor Neoantigen Selection Alliance. This initiative, involving researchers from 30 universities, non-profit institutions and companies, aims to identify software that can best predict mutation-associated cancer antigens, also known as neoantigens, from patient tumor DNA. The hope is that solving the shortcomings of current *in silico* methods for identifying neoantigens will galvanize a new wave of personalized cancer immunotherapies. But,

for a particular allele to build a model with sufficient accuracy. But as many MHC alleles lack such data, ‘pan-specific’ methods—capable of predicting binders based on whether MHC alleles with similar contact environments have similar binding specificities—have increasingly come to the fore.

Today, a raft of software tools for predicting MHC binders are now available (<http://cancerimmunity.org/resources/webtools/>). But each of these packages has its own idiosyncrasies, strengths and weaknesses. What’s more, it has proven difficult to benchmark which tools and com-

# *Can immune responses to pathogens be instructive for anti-tumor immunity?*

- Tumors are not infections, generally do not express TLR
- NeoAg are altered self, rather than non-self
- $T_H$  requirement: neoantigens for both subset?
- Tumors utilize many physiological mechanism to suppress immune response