

BIOTECHNOLOGY

UNIT 3 NOTES

- TYPES OF IMMUNITY
- STRUCTURE OF IMMUNOGLOBULINS
- STRUCTURE & FUNCTIONS OF MHC
- VACCINES
- HYBRIDOMA TECHNOLOGY
- BLOOD PRODUCTS & PLASMA SUBSTITUTES



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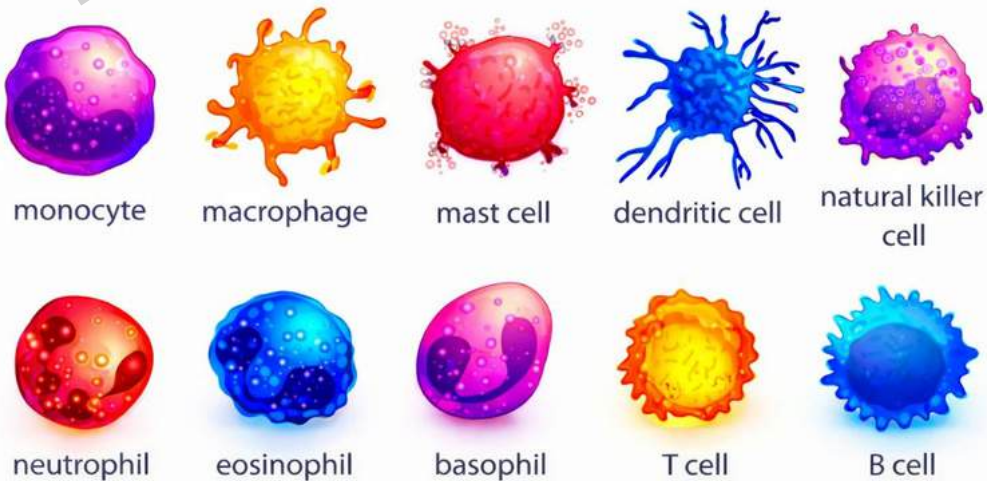


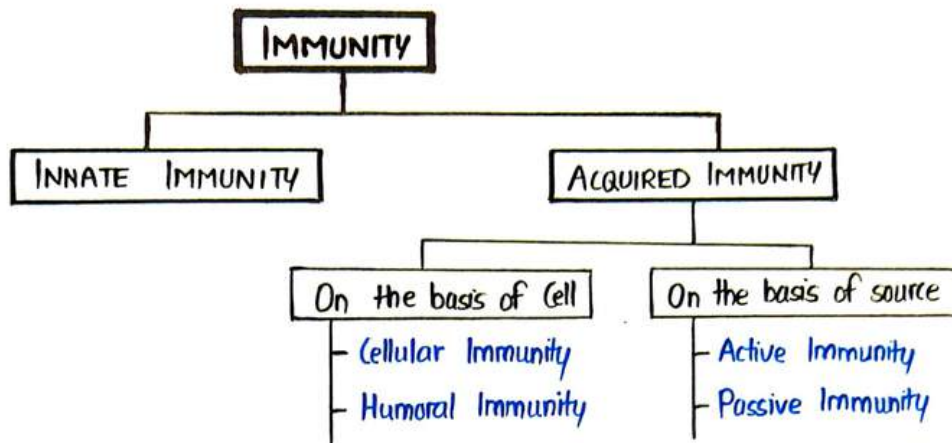
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IMMUNITY

- Immunity is the ability of the body to recognize, resist & destroy harmful substances like bacteria, viruses, toxins & parasites.
- These harmful substances are called antigens.
- The body defends itself using the immune system.
- The branch of science deals with the study of immune system is known as Immunology.
 - Organs: Bone Marrow, Thymus, spleen, lymph nodes
 - Cells: WBCs (Leukocytes)

IMMUNE SYSTEM CELLS





INNATE IMMUNITY

- Innate immunity is the first line of defense of the body.
- It is present from birth & provides immediate protection against pathogens.
- It is non-specific because it doesn't target a particular antigen.
- It doesn't have any memory (does not remember previous infections).

COMPONENTS OF INNATE IMMUNITY

① PHYSICAL BARRIERS

- These are the first protective layer that prevents entry of pathogens.
- It includes:
 - Skin: acts as a tough barrier
 - Mucus: traps microbes
 - Cilia: push microbes out (respiratory tract)
 - Tears & saliva: contain enzymes (lysozyme)
 - Stomach acid (HCl): kills pathogens

② CHEMICAL BARRIERS

- These are chemical substances that destroy pathogens such as:
 - Lysozyme: breaks bacterial cell wall
 - Acidic pH: skin, stomach
 - Interferons: Prevent viral infection
 - Complement proteins: destroy microbes

③ CELLULAR COMPONENTS

- These are the immune cells that directly attack pathogens.

CELL	MAIN FUNCTION
Neutrophils	First to arrive, kill microbes (Phagocytosis)
Macrophages	Eat pathogens + start inflammation
Dendritic Cells	Show antigen to T cells
NK cells	Kill virus - infected & tumor cells
Mast cells	Release histamine (inflammation, allergy)
Basophils	Help in allergy
Eosinophils	kill parasites

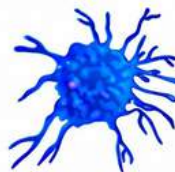
INNATE IMMUNITY CELLS



macrophage



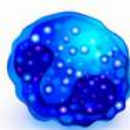
mast cell



dendritic cell



neutrophil



eosinophil



basophil



NK cell

MECHANISM OF INNATE IMMUNITY

Pathogen entry

Barrier Cells (Skin/Epithelium)

Recognition by PRRs (PAMPs detected)

Early Cellular Response

Neutrophils - Phagocytosis

Macrophages - Cytokines

Mast Cell - Histamine

Inflammation (Redness, Heat, Swelling)

Recruitment of Cells

NK cells → kill infected

Eosinophils → Parasites

Basophils → Allergy

Dendritic Cells capture Antigen

Migration to Lymph nodes

Activation of adaptive Immunity (T-cells)

ACQUIRED IMMUNITY

- It is also known as Adaptive or Specific Immunity
- Acquired immunity is a type of immunity that develops after exposure to an antigen & provides a specific response against that antigen.
- It is called specific immunity because it targets a particular pathogen.
- It has memory which helps in faster response on re-exposure.
- It involves lymphocytes (B-cells & T-cells).

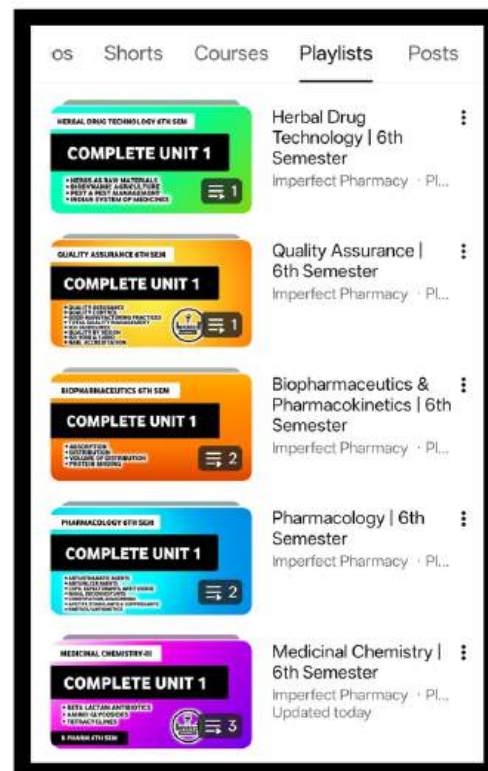
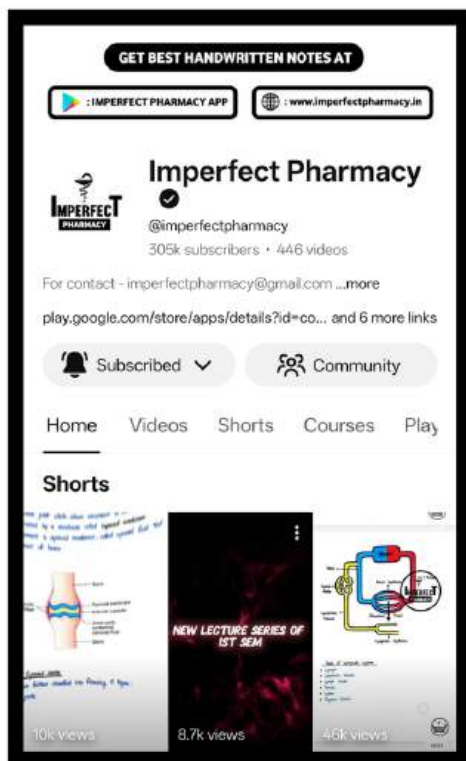
TYPES OF ACQUIRED IMMUNITY

- It is further classified on two basis:
 - ① On the basis of Cell involve
 - ② On the Basis of Source

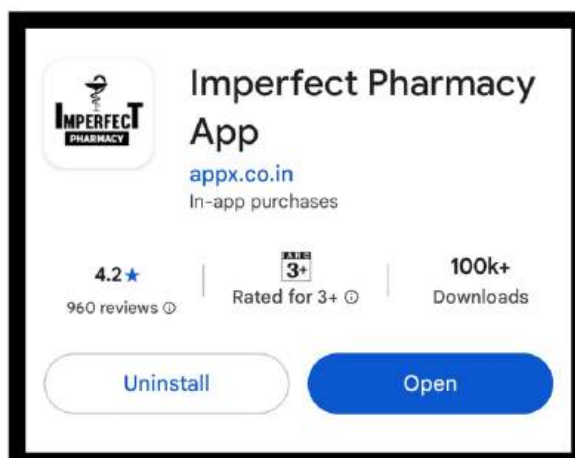
① ON THE BASIS OF CELL INVOLVE

- It is of two types:
 - ① Humoral Immunity
 - ② Cellular Immunity

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① HUMORAL IMMUNITY

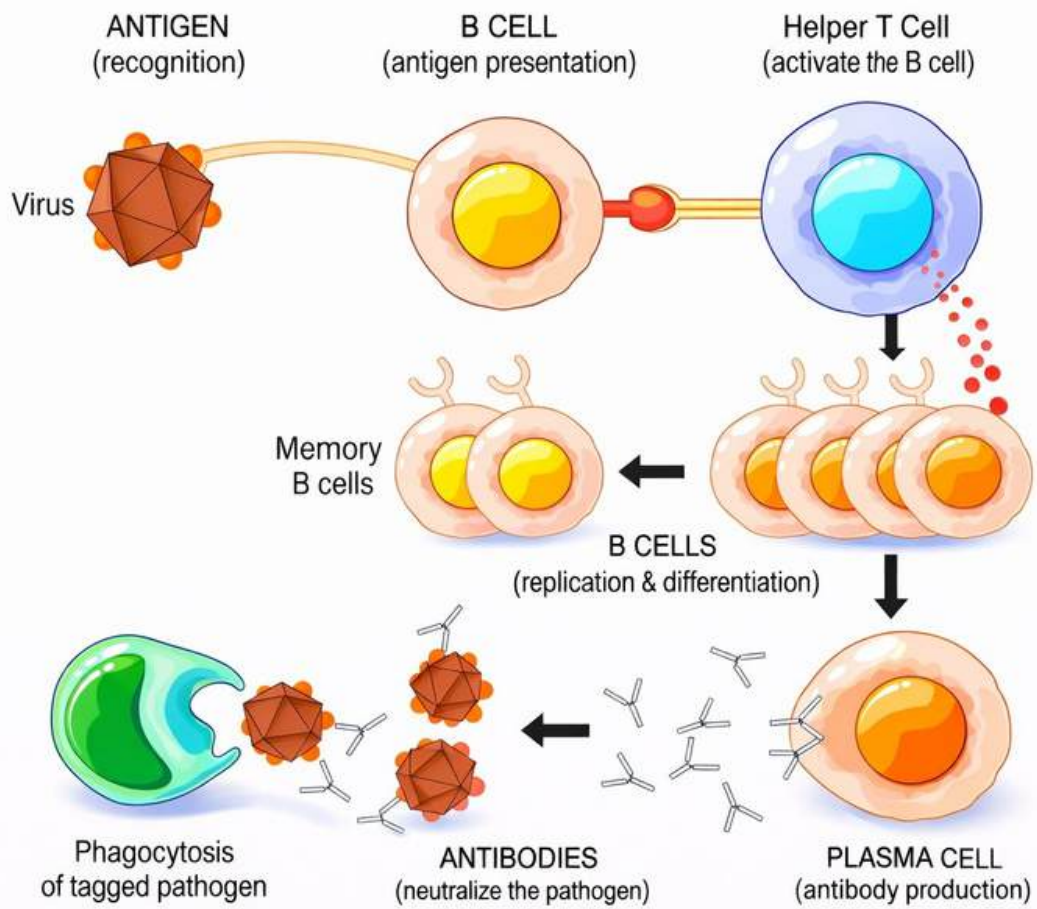
- Humoral immunity is a type of adaptive immunity in which B-lymphocytes produce antibodies that circulate in body fluids/humors (blood & lymph) to fight pathogens.
- It mainly protects against extracellular pathogens (bacteria, toxins etc).

ROLE OF B-CELLS

- Humoral immunity is mediated by B-lymphocytes.
- They're developed & matured in bone marrow.
- They recognize specific antigens via B-cells receptors (BCR).

ACTIVATION OF B-CELLS

- B-cells binds to antigen via BCR & engulf it.
- After engulfment it breaks antigen into peptide fragments & display it on surface through MHC-II
- A T-helper cell recognised the antigen - MHC II complex & release cytokines which gives the final signal for B-cell activation.
- After activation it rapidly divided into two types of cells.
 - Plasma Cells: They produce large amounts of antibodies.
 - Memory B-Cells: They're long lived cells that remember a specific antigen & provides faster action on re-exposure.



② CELLULAR IMMUNITY

- Cellular immunity is a type of adaptive immunity in which T-lymphocytes directly attack & destroy infected, abnormal or foreign cells without using antibodies.
- It mainly protect against intracellular pathogens (viruses, some bacteria, cancer cells).

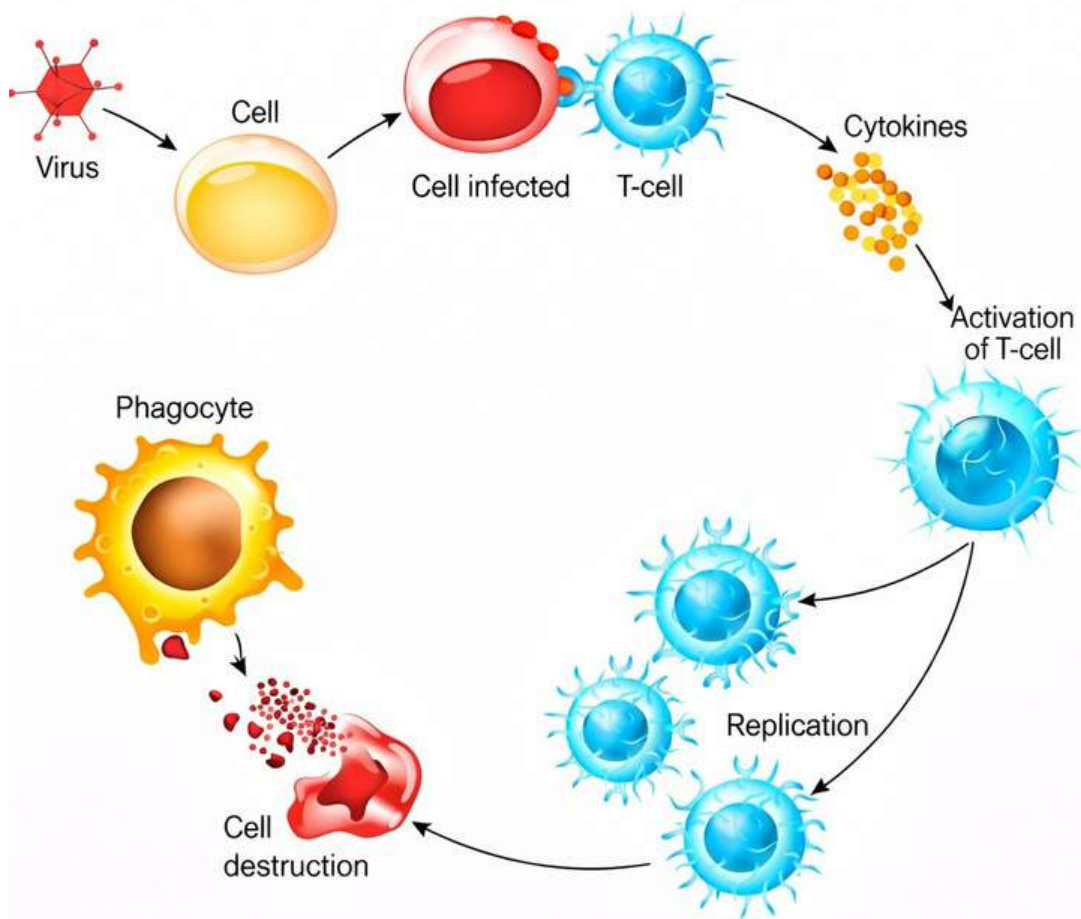
ROLL OF T-CELLS

- Cellular immunity is mediated by T-lymphocytes
- They're developed in Bone Marrow but matured in Thymus after Positive Selection.

ACTIVATION OF T-CELLS

- T cells can't recognize free antigen they require APCs (Antigen Presenting Cells) for Antigen recognition such as-
 - Dendritic Cells (most common)
 - Macrophages
 - B cells
- APCs presents antigen fragments on MHC molecule as MHC antigen complex, TCR binds to this complex.
 - MHC I: Cytotoxic T-cells ($CD8^+$)
 - MHC II: Helper T-cells ($CD4^+$)

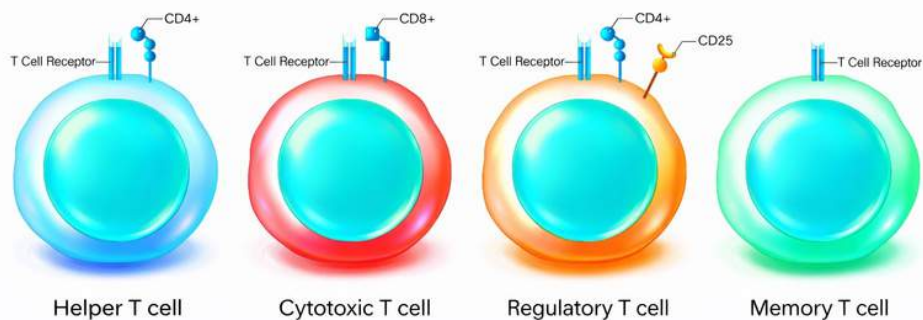
T-cell activation



OF T-CELLS

- 1) Cytotoxic T-cells: They directly kill infected or cancer cells & recognize antigen via MHC Class I
- 2) Helper T-Cells: They release cytokines & activate other cells such as B cells, Cytotoxic T-cells, Macrophages
- 3) Regulatory T-Cells: They regulate/suppress immune response to prevent autoimmunity.
- 4) Memory T-Cells: They're long lived cells, provides faster response on re-exposure.

Types of T cell



② ON THE BASIS OF SOURCE

On the basis of source, it is again of two types:

- ① Active Immunity
- ② Passive Immunity

① **ACTIVE IMMUNITY**

- Active immunity is the immunity developed when body produces Antibodies & memory cells in response to an antigen.
- It is further divided into two sub-types:

① Natural AI : • It occurs after natural infection.

- Example: Immunity after recovering from Chickpox.

② Artificial AI : • It is developed by Vaccination.

- Example: Polio vaccine, COVID-19 Vaccine.

⑥ **PASSIVE IMMUNITY**

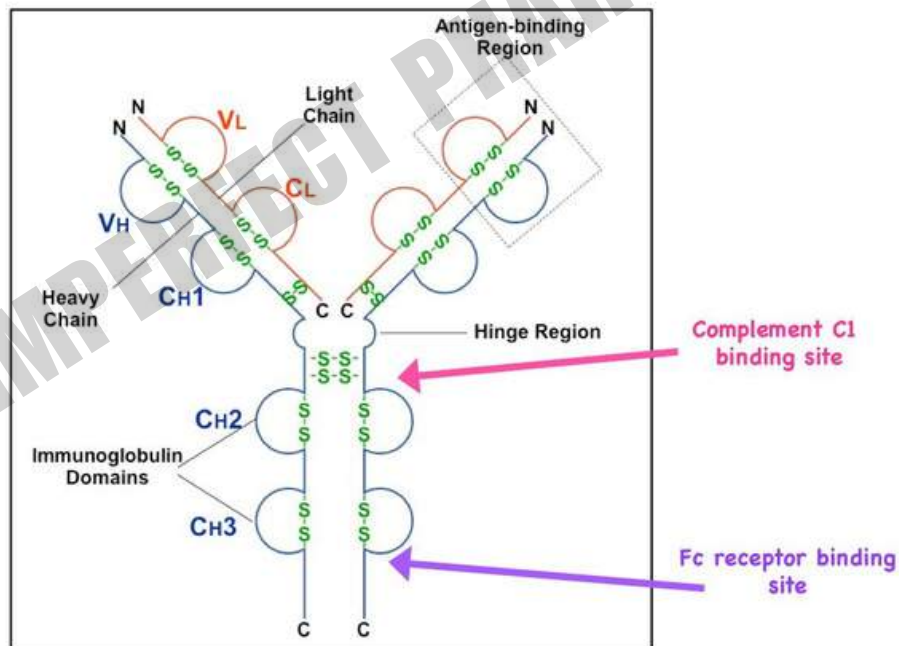
- Passive immunity is the immunity where ready-made antibodies are transferred to a person.
- It is again of two subtypes:

- ① Natural P.I. :
 - From mother to baby
 - They transferred to baby via placenta (IgG) & breast milk (IgA).
- ② Artificial P.I. :
 - Injection of antibodies
 - Example: Anti-rabies serum, anti-snake venom.

IMMUNOGLOBULIN

- Immunoglobulins (Ig) are glycoproteins produced by B-lymphocytes (plasma cells) in response to an antigen.
- They're Y-shaped proteins produced by plasma cells that specifically bind to antigens to neutralize or eliminate them.
- It is highly specific to Antigen & part of Humoral Immunity.

Basic Structure of Antibody Molecules



STRUCTURE OF ANTIBODY

An antibody is a Y-shaped protein & made up of 4 polypeptide chains

- 2 Heavy chains
- 2 Light chains

① HEAVY CHAINS

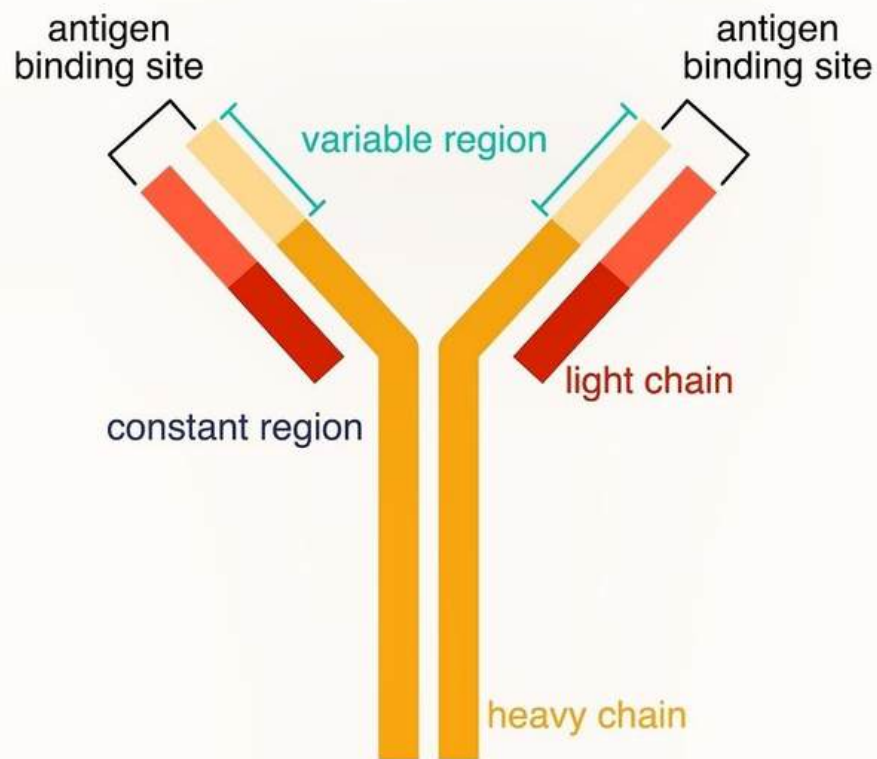
- They're two identical heavy chains.
- They're larger in size (~ 50 kDa)
- They form the core structure of antibody.
- They determine the class of Antibody

Heavy Chains	Antibody
γ (gamma)	IgG
α (alpha)	IgA
μ (mu)	IgM
ϵ (epsilon)	IgE
δ (delta)	IgD

② LIGHT CHAINS

- They're 2 smaller identical chains (~ 25kDa).
- They're of generally two types:
 - kappa (κ)
 - Lambda (λ)
- Each antibody has either κ or λ , not both.

ANTIBODY STRUCTURE



REGIONS OF ANTIBODY

① Fab Region

- It is fragment Antigen Binding region.
- It is located at arms of Y
- It contains antigen binding site.
- Each antibody has 2 fab regions, which binds with 2 Antigens.

② Fc Region

- It is fragment crystallizable region.
- It is located at stem of Y.
- It activates complement system & immune system.

③ Variable Region

- It is present at tip of Y.
- It differs in each antibody, allowing recognition of different antigens.
- It is the region that actually binds with antigen.

④ Consant Region

- It remains same in antibodies of same class.
- It is responsible for effector functions.

⑤ Hinge Region

- It is present b/w Fab & Fc
- It provides flexibility & allows arms to move freely.

DISULFIDE BONDS

- Disulfide bonds (-S-S-) are covalent bonds present in antibody.
- They're of two types of Disulfide bonds:

① Interchain Bonds: It is present b/w heavy-heavy & heavy-light chains.

② Intrachain Bonds: It is present within the same chain.

TYPES OF IMMUNOGLOBULINS

On the basis of heavy chains, immunoglobulins / Antibody of 5 types:

- ① IgG Antibody
- ② IgA Antibody
- ③ IgM Antibody
- ④ IgE Antibody
- ⑤ IgD Antibody

④ IgG ANTIBODY

- IgG is the most abundant antibody present in the blood & extracellular fluid, & it constitutes about 70-75% of total immunoglobulins.
- It is relatively smaller in size.
- It plays a major role in long-term immunity by neutralizing toxins & viruses.
- It is capable of activating the complement system, which helps in the destruction of pathogens.
- It is the only antibody that can cross the placenta & provide passive immunity to the fetus.

② IgA

- IgA is mainly found in body secretions such as saliva, tears, mucus & breast milk.
- It usually exists as a dimer.
- It plays a crucial role in mucosal immunity by protecting the respiratory & GIT.
- It prevents the attachment & entry of pathogens into the body by neutralizing them at mucosal surfaces.
- It acts as the first line of defense in areas that are exposed to the external environment.

③ IgM

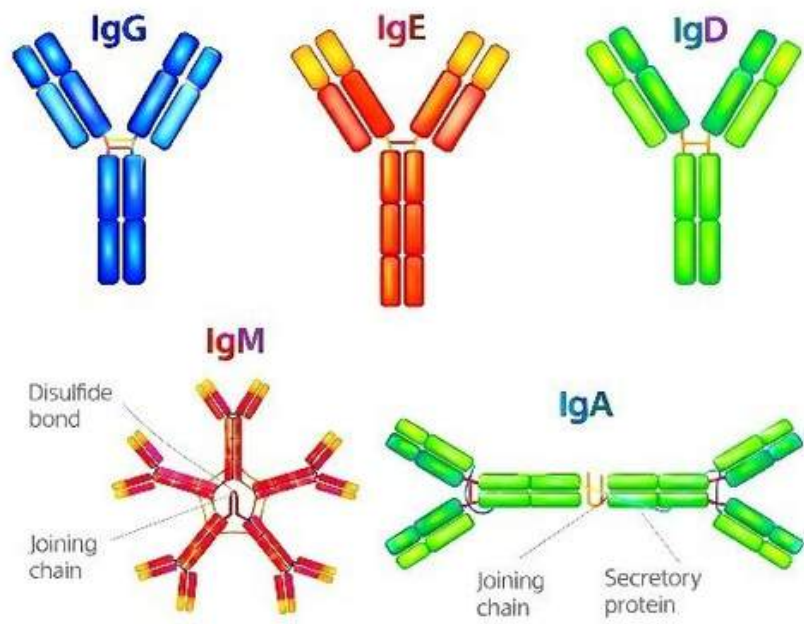
- IgM is the largest antibody & exists as a pentamer.
- It is the first antibody produced during primary immune response when an antigen enters the body.
- It is highly effective in activating the complement system & initiating immune reactions.
- Its presence in blood generally indicates a recent or acute infection.

④ IgE

- IgE is present in very low concentration in the blood but has a strong affinity for mast cells & basophils.
- It binds to Fc receptors on these cells & remains attached to their surface.
- It plays an important role in allergic reactions & defense against parasitic infections.
- It triggers the release of histamine & other inflammatory mediators.
- It is responsible for conditions such as asthma, hay fever, & anaphylactic reactions.

⑤ IgD

- IgD is the least abundant antibody & is mainly present on the surface of naïve B lymphocytes.
- It exists as a monomer & functions primarily as a receptor for antigen recognition.
- It plays a role in the activation & differentiation of B cells during the immune response.
- Its exact biological function is not fully understood, but it is important in the early stages of B cell activation.



MAJOR HISTOCOMPATIBILITY COMPLEX

- MHC is a group of genes that code for proteins or MHC molecules (glycoproteins) present on cell surfaces.
- It is also known as HLA (Human Leukocyte Antigen) System.
- It helps the immune system to differentiate b/w self vs non-self.
- They present antigenic peptides to T-cells, which is essential for immune response.
- It is noted that B-cell can recognise antigen on their own, while T-Cell need MHC for antigen recognition.
- In humans, MHC genes are located on Chromosome 6.

CLASSES OF MHC

MHC mainly divided into 3 classes:

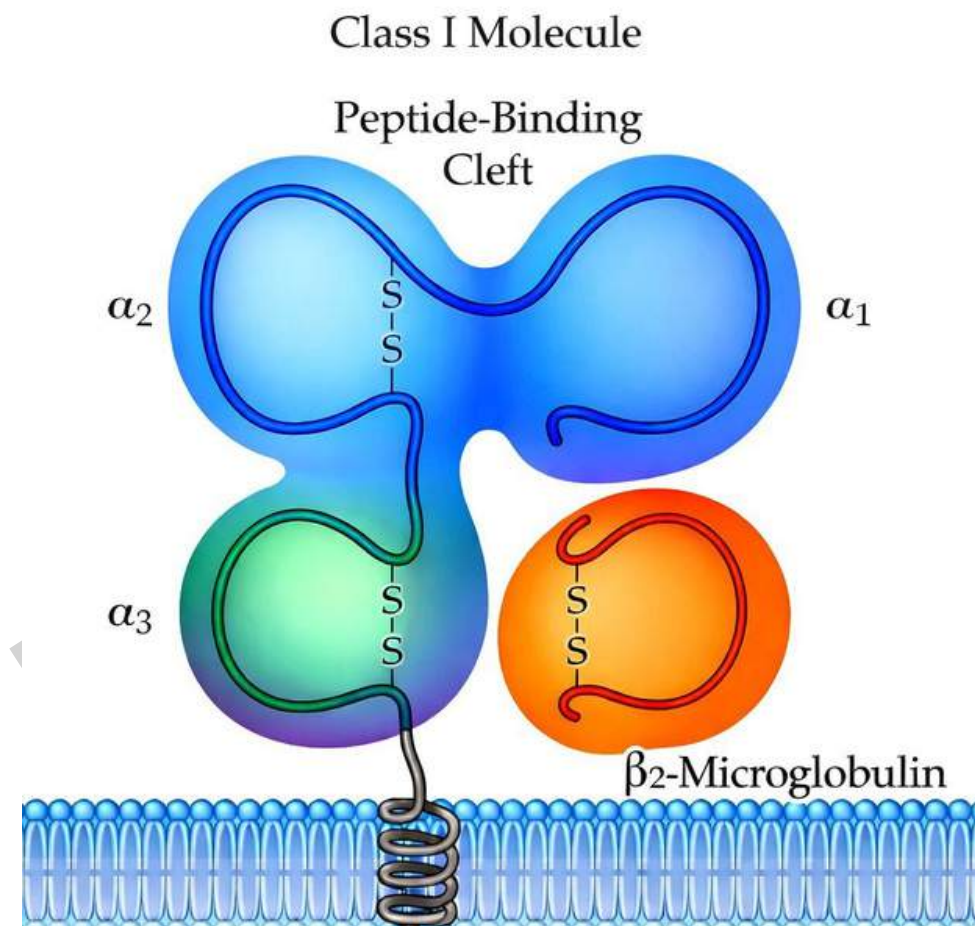
- ① MHC I
- ② MHC II
- ③ MHC III

① MHC CLASS I

- It is present on all nucleated cells (Not present on RBCs)
- These molecules are encoded by HLA-A, HLA-B & HLA-C genes.
- It presents endogenous antigens (inside the cell) such as viral proteins, tumor proteins on its surface
- It consist of:
 - Heavy (α) chain (with 3 domains $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$)
 - β_2 - microglobulin

WORKING MECHANISM

- Antigen protein → broken into peptides
- Peptides bind MHC I in ER
- Complex moves to surface
- CD8 T cell recognizes → kills infected cell.



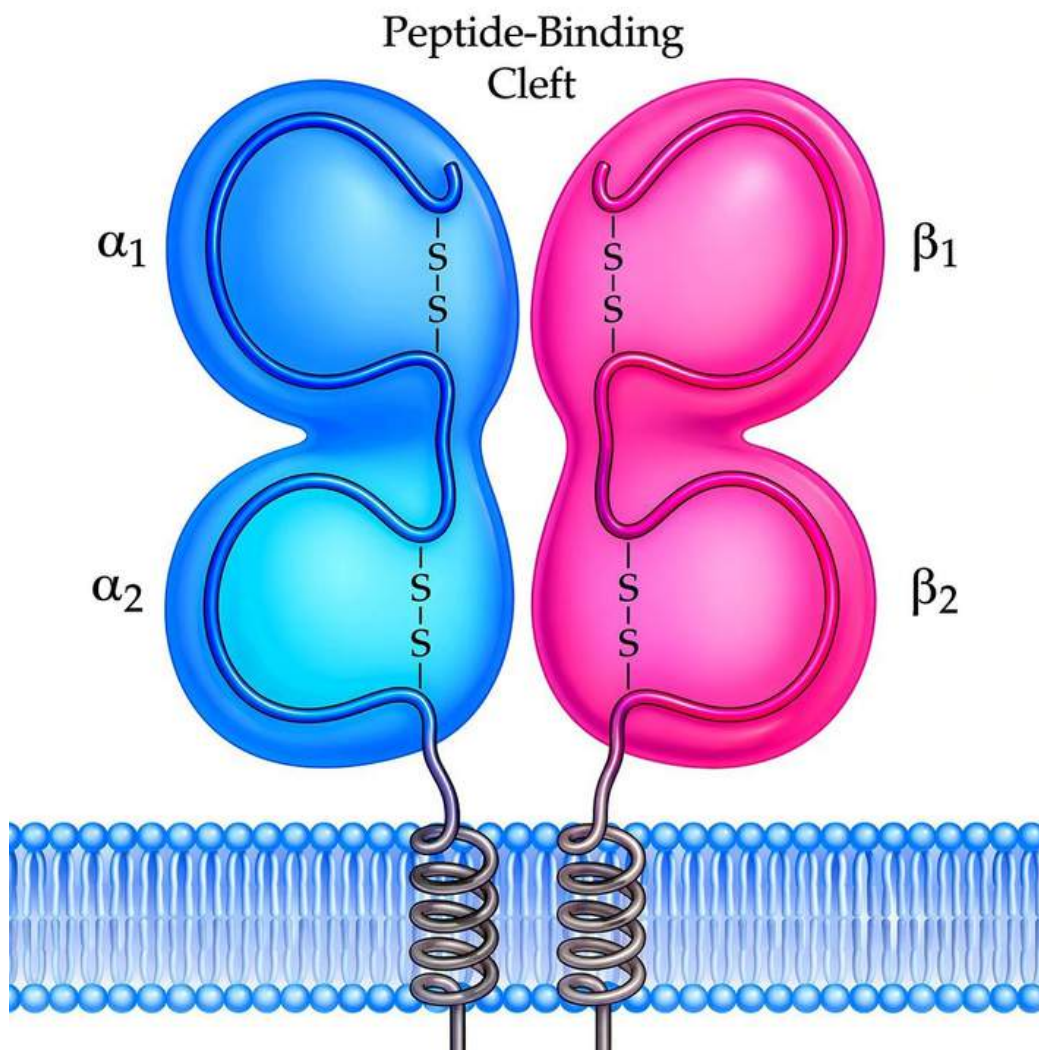
② MHC CLASS II

- They're present only on Antigen Presenting cells (APCs) such as:
 - Dendritic Cells
 - Macrophages
 - B cells
- These molecules are encoded by HLA -DP, HLA -DQ & HLA -DR genes in humans.
- They present exogenous antigens (outside the cell) such as bacteria, toxins.
- It consists of two chains:
 - a) α chain (Two domain α_1, α_2)
 - b) β chain (Two domain β_1, β_2)

WORKING MECHANISM

- Pathogen engulfed by APCs (Phagocytosis)
- Broken into peptides by lysozyme.
- MHC binds peptide
- Presented to CD4 T cell $\rightarrow$ immune activation.

MHC Class II Molecule



③ MHC CLASS III

- MHC Class III has no role in antigen presentation.
- These genes code for several important immune system proteins, including components of the complement system such as C2, C4 & Factor B.
- They also encode certain cytokines like tumor necrosis factor (TNF), which play a role in inflammation & immune regulation.
- MHC Class III products are mainly involved in enhancing immune responses rather than directly interacting with T-cells.

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HYPERSENSITIVITY REACTIONS

- Hypersensitivity reactions are exaggerated for inappropriate immune responses that result in tissue damage or discomfort rather than protection.
- These reactions occur when the immune system responds excessively to any substance which is generally harmless (known as Allergen).

TYPES OF HYPERSENSITIVITY REACTIONS

- According to Coombs & Gell Classification, Hypersensitivity Reactions are classified into 4 types:
- ① Type - I (Antibody)
 - ② TYPE - II (Cytotoxic)
 - ③ TYPE - III (Immune Response)
 - ④ TYPE - IV (Delayed)

④ TYPE - I HYPERSENSITIVITY

- Type I hypersensitivity is an immediate allergic reaction mediated by IgE antibodies.
- It occurs within minutes of exposure to the allergen in sensitized individuals.
- Common allergens includes pollen, dust mites, nuts, milk or certain medications.

MECHANISM

Allergen enters body (Pollen, dust, food)

Stimulates B-Cells → IgE production

IgE binds to Fc receptors on Mast cell & basophils

On Rexpore, Allergen cross links the IgE

Cross linking triggers, degranulation & release of mediators

Hypersensitivity Reactions

MEDIATORS

- Histamine
- Leukotriens
- Prostaglandins
- Cytokines

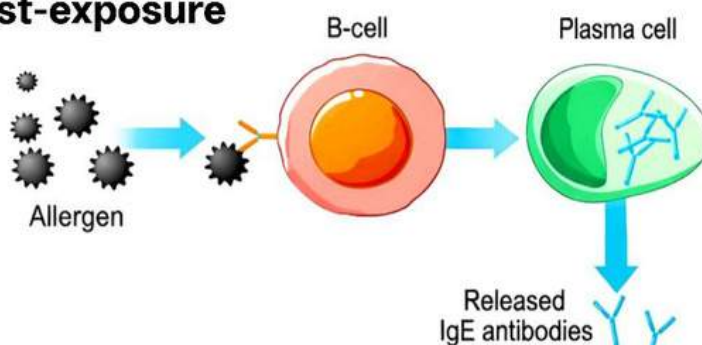
EFFECTS

- Vasodilation
- Bronchoconstriction
- Increased vascular permeability
- Mucus secretion
- Redness / Swelling.

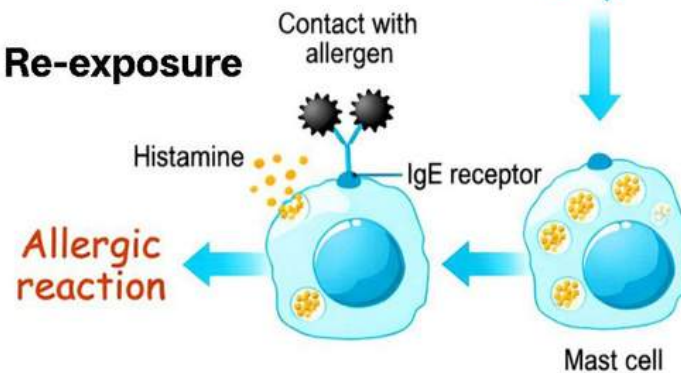
EXAMPLES

- Asthma
- Allergic rhinitis
- Urticaria (hives)
- Anaphylaxis (severe, life threatening)

First-exposure



Re-exposure



② TYPE-II HYPERSENSITIVITY

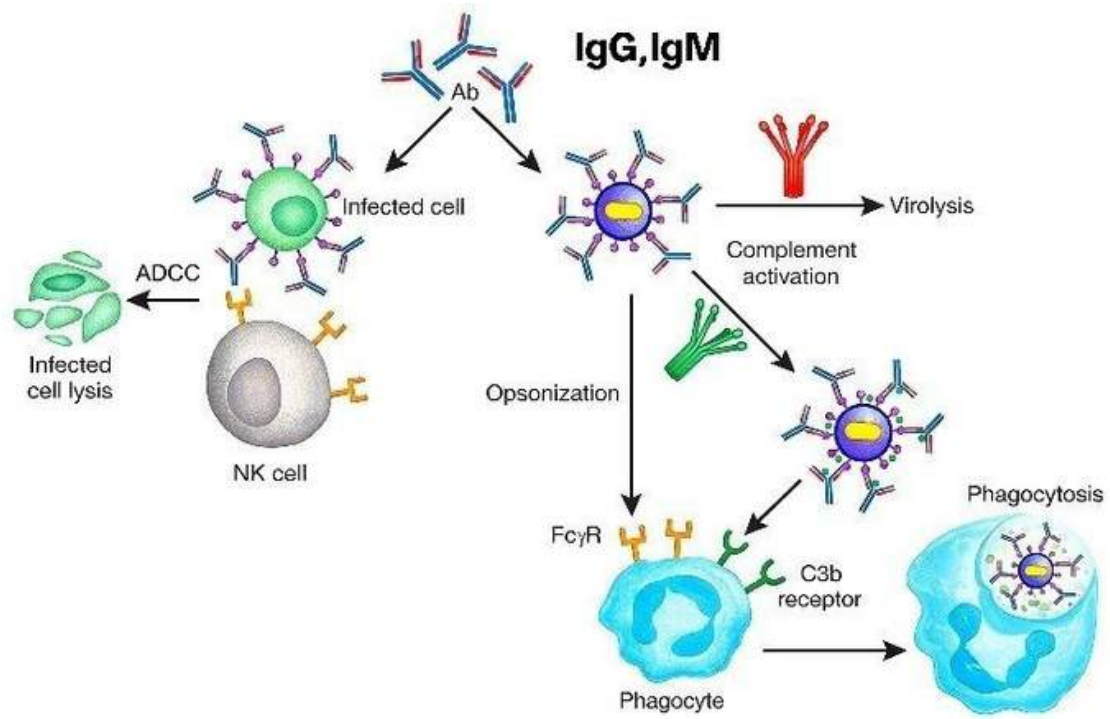
- Type-II Hypersensitivity reactions are immune responses in which antibodies target antigens present on the surface of cells or tissues, leading to cell damage or destruction.
- These reactions are primarily mediated by IgG or IgM Antibodies.

MECHANISM

- Antigen Presence: Antigens are located on cell membrane (e.g. RBCs, Platelets) or extracellular matrix.
- Antibody binding: IgG or IgM antibodies bind to these antigens.
- Cell destruction occurs via:
 - Complement activation → leads to cell lysis.
 - Opsonization → phagocytes engulf & destroy the cells.
 - Antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity (ADCC) → mediated by natural killer (NK) cells.

EXAMPLES

- Hemolytic Anemia
- Blood transfusion reaction
- Rh incompatibility (Hemolytic disease of newborn)
- Myasthenia gravis (Ach receptor damage)



③ TYPE III HYPERSENSITIVITY

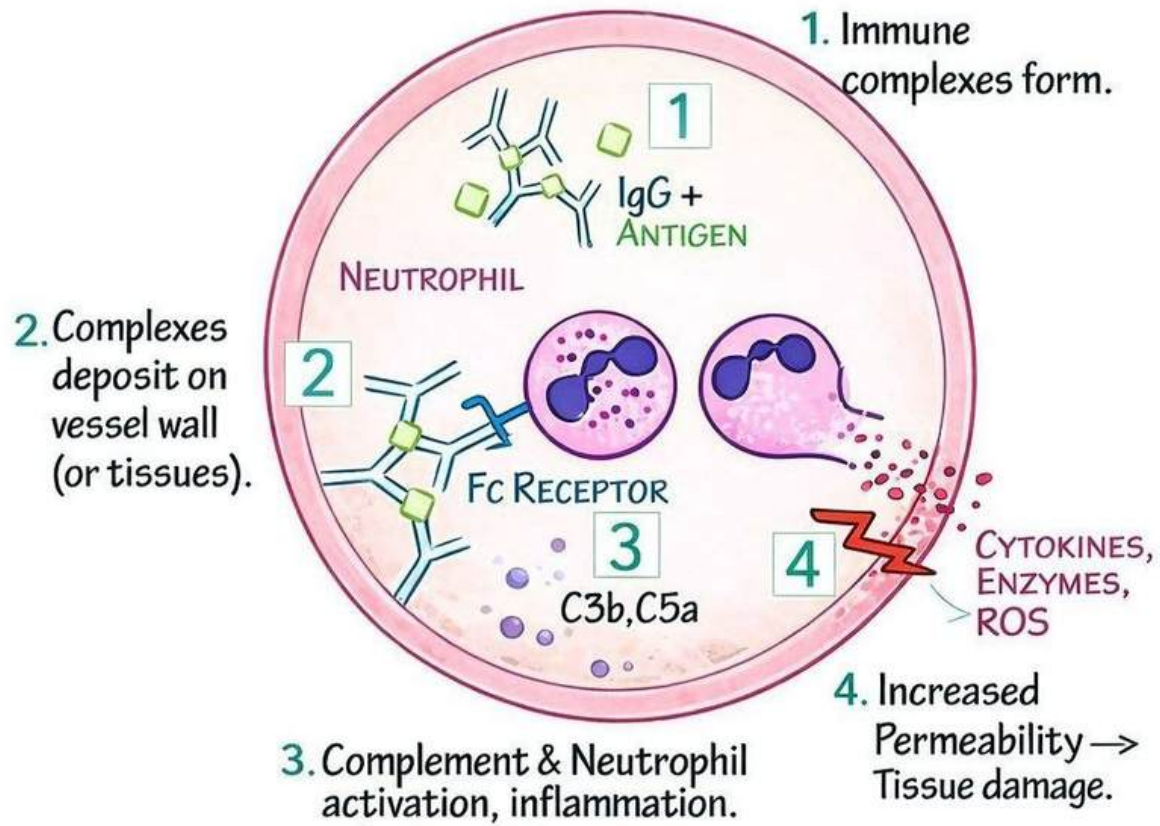
- Type III hypersensitivity reactions occur when antigen - antibody (immune) complexes form in the circulation & get deposited in tissues, leading to inflammation & tissue injury.
- These reactions are mainly mediated by IgG or IgM antibodies.

MECHANISM

- Formation of immune complexes: Soluble antigens binds with IgG antibodies in the blood.
- Deposition in tissues: These complexes deposits in site like blood vessel walls, kidneys, joints & skin.
- Complement Activation: Triggers Inflammation.
- Recruitment of Neutrophils: These cell release enzymes & reactive substances that damage surrounding tissues.

EXAMPLE

- Systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) - immune complexes deposit in multiple organs.
- Post-streptococcal glomerulonephritis - complexes deposit in kidney glomeruli.
- Serum sickness - reaction to foreign proteins or drugs.
- Arthus reaction - localized skin reaction after antigen injection.



④ TYPE IV HYPERSENSITIVITY

- Type IV Hypersensitivity is an immune reaction mediated by T lymphocytes (not antibodies).
- It is called delayed because the reaction typically appears 24-72 hours after exposure to the antigen.

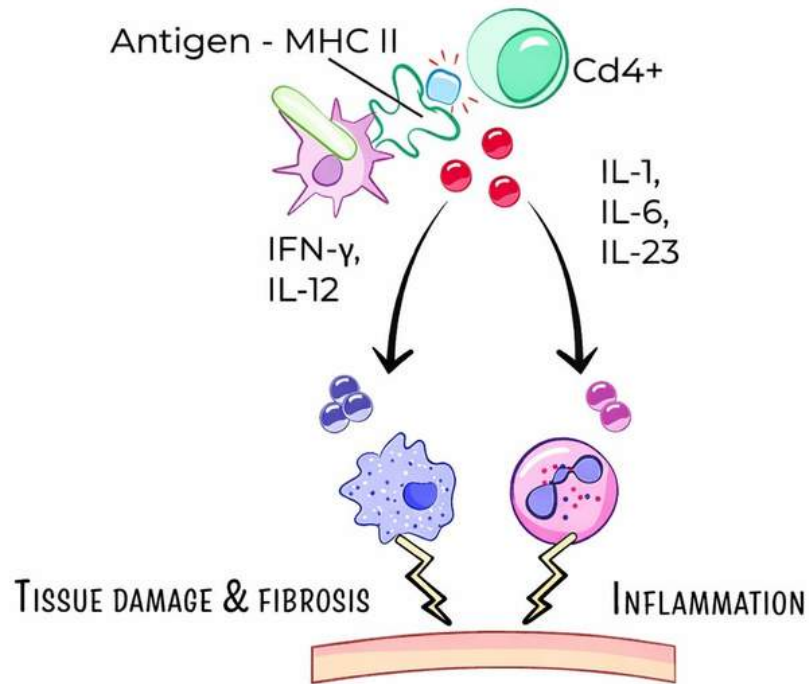
MECHANISM

- Triggered by sensitized T cells (mainly CD4+ Th1 cells & sometimes CD8+ T cells)
- On re-exposure to the antigen:
 - T-cell release cytokines (e.g., interferon- γ)
 - This activates macrophages & cytotoxic T cells
 - Leads to inflammation & tissue damage.

COMMON EXAMPLES

- Contact dermatitis (e.g. nickel, poison ivy)
- Chronic transplant rejection
- Certain autoimmune disease (e.g., Type I diabetes)

Helper T Cell/Cytokine



IMMUNOSUPPRESSION

- Immunosuppression refers to the reduction or inhibition of the immune response, which may occur naturally or can be induced therapeutically.
- It is mainly used when the immune system becomes overreactive or starts damaging the body's own tissues.

MECHANISM

- Immunosuppressive agents act by inhibiting activation, proliferation, & function of immune cells such as T lymphocytes & B lymphocytes.
- They reduce cytokine production, antigen presentation, & antibody formation.

IMMUNOSUPPRESSANT DRUGS

- Corticosteroids: Suppress immune response by inhibiting inflammatory mediators & cytokine production.
- Cyclosporine: Inhibits calcineurin, thereby preventing activation of T-cells & production of IL-2.
- Methotrexate: Interferes with folic acid metabolism & suppresses immune cell division.

USES

- Immunosuppression is widely used in organ transplantation to prevent graft rejection.
- It is also used in autoimmune diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis.
- To control severe allergic or inflammatory responses.

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IMMUNOSTIMULATION

- Immunostimulation refers to the enhancement or activation of the immune response to improve the body's defense mechanisms.
- It is mainly required in conditions where the immune system is weak or suppressed.

MECHANISM

- Immunostimulants act as increasing the activity & proliferation of immune cells such as macrophages, lymphocytes & natural killer cells.
- They enhance cytokine production & improve antigen presentation & immune signaling.

IMMUNOSTIMULATION DRUGS

- Interferons: Enhance antiviral activity & activate immune cells.
- Interleukins: Stimulate growth, differentiation & activation of immune cells.
- Vaccination: Vaccines stimulate antibody & memory cell formation.

USES

- Immunostimulants are used in immunodeficiency conditions to strengthen immune response.
- They're used in cancer therapy to enhance the immune system's ability to destroy tumor cells.
- Prevention of infectious diseases through vaccines.

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VACCINES

- A Vaccine is a biological preparation that provides active immunity against a specific disease by stimulating the immune system.
- It contains antigens derived from pathogens in a safe form, which don't cause disease but trigger an immune response.

MECHANISM

- The antigen is recognized by immune cells & activates B-Cells & T-cells.
- Antibodies & memory cells are formed, which provide long-term protection on re-exposure.

TYPES OF VACCINES

- ① Live Attenuated Vaccines
- ② Killed / Inactivated Vaccine
- ③ Toxoid Vaccine
- ④ Subunit Vaccine
- ⑤ Recombinant Vaccine
- ⑥ mRNA Vaccine

① LIVE ATTENUATED VACCINES

- These contain weakened live organisms & produce strong, long-term immunity.
- They mimic natural infection but are not suitable for immunocompromised individuals.
- example: Measles, BCG Vaccines.

② INACTIVATED / KILLED VACCINES

- These vaccines contain killed pathogens & are safer but generally produce a weaker immune response.
- They usually require booster doses.
example: Polio, Rabies.

③ SUBUNIT VACCINE

- These vaccine contain specific antigenic parts of the pathogen such as proteins.
- They're safe but may need adjuvants.
example: Hepatitis B

④ TOXOID VACCINES

- These contain inactivated toxins & protect against toxin-mediated diseases.
- example: Tetanus, Diphtheria.

⑤ mRNA VACCINES

- These contain mRNA that codes for antigen production inside host cells.
- They induce strong immune response & are rapidly developed.
example: COVID-19 Vaccines.

⑥ RECOMBINANT VACCINES

- Recombinant Vaccines are produced using genetic engineering techniques in which genes coding for specific antigens are inserted into host cells to produce the antigen.
- These vaccines contain only the required antigenic protein & not the whole pathogen.
- example: Hepatitis B Vaccines

IMPERFECT PHARMACY

GENERAL METHOD OF VACCINE PREPARATION

Generation of antigen/mRNA/DNA
viral - vector

Isolation of antigen/mRNA/DNA
viral - vector

Purification of antigen/mRNA/DNA
viral - vector

Formulation of Vaccine

Filling, packaging & labeling

Inspection & quality testing

Vaccine formed

① PREPARATION OF BACTERIAL VACCINES

- Bacterial Vaccines are prepared either from whole microorganisms, or Bacterial toxins.
- They're mainly of 2 types:
 - Live Attenuated Vaccines
 - Inactivated (killed) Vaccines

STEPS OF PREPARATION

① SELECTION & CULTIVATION

- Suitable bacterial strains are selected.
- They're grown on culture media for 1-2 days.
- The culture is then washed with sterile normal saline.

② PREPARATION OF SUSPENSION

- The bacteria are made into a suspension.
- It is shaken properly to get uniform distribution.

③ REMOVAL OF UNWANTED MATERIAL

- Solid particles & impurities are removed by either:
 - Centrifugation or
 - Sedimentation

(d) STERILIZATION / INACTIVATION

- The suspension is sterilized using heat, alcohol or other bactericidal agents
- For Non-sporing bacteria sterilization is done by heating at $56-60^{\circ}\text{C}$ for about 1 hour.
- Heat treatment should kill microorganisms, but must retain antigenic properties (important for immunity).

(e) STANDARDIZATION & DILUTION

- After sterilization:
 - Bacterial concentration is measured
 - Required dilutions are prepared
 - A preservative (bacteriostatic agent) is added

(f) FILLING & PACKAGING

- After final preparation, Vaccine is filled into:
 - Sterile containers
 - Sealed under aseptic conditions

② PREPARATION OF VIRAL VACCINES

- Viral vaccines are prepared by using whole viruses or their components in a form that is safe but still capable of inducing an immune response.
- The aim is to retain antigenicity while reducing or eliminating pathogenicity.

STEPS OF PREPARATION

① SELECTION OF VIRUS

- The first step is identifying the virus & the specific antigen (usually a surface protein) that can trigger a protective immune response.
- This ensures the vaccine targets the correct part of the virus.

② CULTIVATION OF VIRUS

- The virus is grown in a suitable host system to obtain large quantities such as:
 - Embryonated chicken eggs (used for influenza vaccines)
 - Cell cultures
 - Animal tissues

© ATTENUATION OR INACTIVATION

- Depending on vaccine type, the virus is modified:
 - Live attenuated Vaccine: The virus is weakened so it can't cause disease but still elicit immunity.
 - Inactivated Vaccines: The virus is killed using chemicals like formaldehyde or by heat.
 - Recombinant Vaccine: Only specific viral proteins are used instead of the whole virus.

(d) PURIFICATION

- The viral materials are separated from host cells & impurities using filtration, centrifugation & chromatography.
- This step ensures safety & quality.

(e) FORMULATION

- The purified product is mixed with stabilizers, preservatives & adjuvants (to enhance immune response)
- This step ensures the vaccine remains effective during storage & transport.

⑦ QUALITY CONTROL & TESTING

- Vaccines undergo strict evaluation for assessment of safety, potency & sterility via clinical & non-clinical trials.

⑧ PRODUCTION & DISTRIBUTION

- After approval, vaccines are manufactured on a large scale under strict regulatory standards & distributed with proper cold-chain maintenance.

IMPERFECT PHARMACY

③ PREPARATION OF TOXOID

- A toxoid is a chemically modified toxin obtained from a pathogenic micro-organisms.
- It is non-toxic, But still antigenic, hence it can be used safely as a vaccine.
- examples: Tetanus toxoid, Diphtheria toxoid.

METHOD OF PREPARATION

① FORMAL TOXOID

- A suitable toxin-producing bacterial strain is selected.
- It is grown in a liquid culture medium under optimum conditions.
- The bacterial cells are removed using filtration.
- The filtrate containing toxin is obtained & sterilized.
- Formaldehyde (formalin) is added to the toxin solution.
- This mixture is incubated at $\sim 37^{\circ}\text{C}$ for several weeks.
- This converts toxin $\rightarrow$ toxoid (non-toxic but antigenic).

② ALUM PRECIPITATED TOXOID (APT)

- The toxoid solⁿ is first purified (e.g. Charcoal removal by filtration).
- Alum (aluminium salts) is added in suitable concentration.
- Alum reacts with impurities & forms a precipitate.
- The toxoid gets absorbed on this precipitate.
- The precipitate is washed & suspended in bactericide-containing saline.
- The product is obtained in the form of depot.

© PURIFIED TOXOID ALUMINIUM PHOSPHATE (PTAP)

- It is highly pure toxoid prepared using semi-synthetic medium (free from unwanted proteins).
- Toxoid is further purified using agents like Magnesium hydroxide & then further combined with Aluminium phosphate gel.
- It produces prolonged immune response & depot effect like APT.

IMPERFECT PHARMACY

④ PREPARATION OF ANTITOXIN

- Antitoxins are antibodies produced against bacterial toxins.
- They're used for passive immunity (immediate protection).
- They're usually prepared from animals like horses.
- examples: Tetanus antitoxin, Diphtheria antitoxin.

METHOD OF PREPARATION

① SELECTION OF ANIMAL

- Large animals (commonly horses) are selected because:
 - They produce large amount of antibodies.
 - They can tolerate toxin doses

② IMMUNIZATION OF ANIMAL

- Animal is injected with small doses of toxin or toxoid.
- Dose is generally increased over time to stimulate the production.
- As animal's immune system responds, it produces high level of specific antibodies.

③ COLLECTION OF BLOOD

- After sufficient antibody formation:
 - Blood is collected from the animal under sterile conditions.

④ SEPARATION & PURIFICATION

- Blood is processed to separate the serum, which contains the antitoxin (antibodies)
- Serum is purified, to remove:
 - Unwanted Proteins
 - Impurities.

⑤ STANDARDIZATION

- The antitoxin is tested & adjusted to proper potency.
- This ensures correct therapeutic dose.

⑥ FILLING & STORAGE

- Final product is filled into sterile vials & stored under proper conditions.

⑤ PREPARATION OF SERUM

- Serum is the clear fluid obtained after blood clotting & contains antibodies but no clotting factors.
- It is mainly used for passive immunity & therapeutic purposes.

METHOD OF PREPARATION

- A healthy donor (human or animal like horse), is selected & immunized with a specific antigen or toxin.
- Booster doses are given to increase antibody production in the donor's blood.
- Blood is collected under sterile conditions after sufficient antibody formation.
- The collected blood is allowed to clot, & serum is separated by centrifugation or decantation.
- The serum is purified & tested for safety, sterility & potency.
- Finally, it is preserved & stored under proper conditions for use.

STORAGE & STABILITY OF VACCINES

- Vaccines are biological products that are highly sensitive to environmental conditions.
- Maintaining their stability (ability of a vaccine to retain its potency during storage) is critical to ensuring they remain safe & effective for the recipient.

STORAGE CONDITIONS

① Cold Chain Maintenance

- Vaccines must be stored & transported at 2°C - 8°C continuously.
- Cold chain ensures vaccines remain potent from manufacture to administration.

② Temperature Requirements

- For most vaccines: 2°C to 8°C
- Oral Polio Vaccine (OPV): -15°C to -25°C (for long-term storage)
- DPT, Hepatitis B, Tetanus toxoid: must not be frozen

③ Storage Equipment

- Ice-lined refrigerators (ILR)
- Deep Freezers
- Cold boxes & vaccine carriers

④ Protection from light

- Vaccines like BCG & measles are light sensitive.
- They should be stored in dark conditions or original packaging.

⑤ Transportation

- Vaccines should be transported using cold boxes or vaccine carriers.
- Required temperature must be maintained during transport.

STABILITY OF VACCINES

① Factors Affecting Stability

- Heat: decreases potency
- Freezing: damages adsorbed vaccines
- Light: inactivates live vaccines

② Lyophilized Vaccines

- These vaccines are more stable.
- They require reconstitution before use.
- Must be used within 4-6 hours after reconstitution.

③ Monitoring Of Stability

- Vaccine Vial Monitor (VVM) indicates heat exposure.
- Regular temperature monitoring is essential.

HYBRIDOMA TECHNOLOGY

- Hybridoma Technology was first discovered by G. Kohler & C. Milstein in 1975.
- Hybridoma Technology is a method used to produce monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) by fusing antibody-producing B-lymphocytes with immortal myeloma cells to form hybrid cells (hybridomas).
- It is a method to produce large number of identical antibodies.

PRINCIPLE

- The technique is based on combining two properties:
 - B lymphocytes: Produce specific antibodies but have limited lifespan.
 - Myeloma cells: Immortal but do not produce antibodies
- Fusion results in hybridoma cell that retain antibody specificity & gain immortality.

STEPS IN HYBRIDOMA TECHNOLOGY

① IMMUNIZATION

- A mouse is injected with the target antigen.
- Injections are repeated multiple times at multiple sites.
- This stimulates the immune system to produce specific B-cells.

② Isolation of B - Lymphocytes

- The mouse is sacrificed
- Spleen is removed
- B - cells are isolated (rich source of antibody - producing cells).

③ Preparation OF Myeloma Cells

- Myeloma (cancerous plasma cells) are cultured.
- These cells:
 - Are HGPRT (Hypoxanthine - Guanine Phosphoribosyltransferase) deficient
- They can't survive in HAT medium.

④ Cell fusion

- B-cells & Myeloma cells are fused using PEG (Polyethylene glycol).
- The mixture contains:
 - Free myeloma cells
 - Free lymphocytes
 - Hybridoma cells
 - Fused lymphocytes
 - Fused myeloma cells

⑤ Selection OF Hybridomas

- For isolation of Hybridoma cells we use HAT Medium.
- HAT = Hypoxanthine + Aminopterin + Thymidine
- In HAT, Aminopterin blocks de novo DNA synthesis, now for multiplication cells must use salvage pathway.
- Now due to this:
 - Myeloma cells: die (HGPRT absent)
 - B cells: die (short lifespan)
 - Hybridoma: survive (have HGPRT from B cell + immortality from myeloma).

⑥ Screening

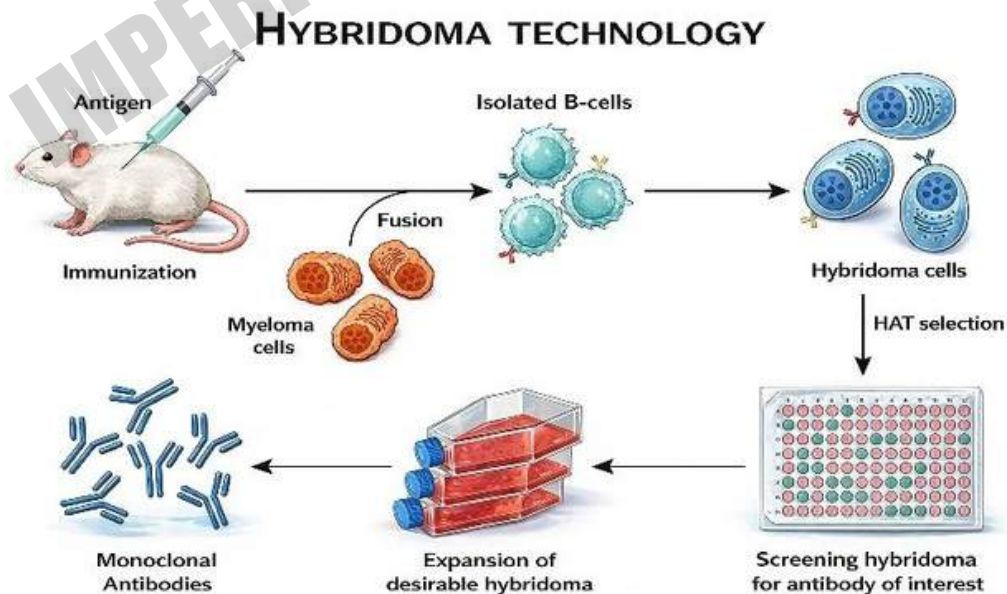
- Hybridomas are tested for desired antibody production, methods using:
 - ELISA
 - RIA
- Only selected clones producing specific antibody are retained.

⑦ Cloning

- Selected hybridomas are cloned using
 - Limited dilution method
 - Soft Agar Method

⑧ Mass Production

- Hybridomas are cultured using bioreactors for large quantities of monoclonal antibodies production.



PURIFICATION OF MONOCLONAL ANTIBODIES

- After mass production, monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) are obtained in a crude mixture containing:
 - Cell debris
 - Culture medium proteins
 - Serum proteins
 - DNA, lipids & other contaminants
- Purification is required to obtain:
 - High Purity
 - High specificity
 - Safe & stable antibody preparations

STEPS OF PURIFICATION

① CLARIFICATION

- The culture containing Antibodies & other impurities is first collected & processed.
- The cells & debris are removed by centrifugation or filtration.

② PRECIPITATION

- Antibodies are precipitated using Ammonium sulfate
- This step increases antibody concentration & removes some impurities.

③ AFFINITY CHROMATOGRAPHY

- This is the most important purification step
- Antibodies bind specifically to the column.
- Impurities are washed away first & pure antibodies are then collected.

④ ION EXCHANGE CHROMATOGRAPHY

- In this separation occurs based on charge differences.
- Removes remaining unwanted proteins.

⑤ SIZE EXCLUSION CHROMATOGRAPHY

- In this separation occurs based on molecular size
- This step removes aggregates & small impurities.

⑥ DIALYSIS / BUFFER EXCHANGE

- This step removes salts & other chemicals.
- Maintains proper pH & stability

⑦ STERILIZATION

- It is the final filtration using 0.22 μ m filter.
- It ensures the antibody preparation is sterile.

CHARACTERISTICS OF MONOCLONAL ANTIBODIES

- They're highly specific & bind to a single epitope of an antigen.
- They're identical antibodies produced from a single clone of B-lymphocytes.
- They've uniform structure & consistent activity.
- They can be produced in large quantities using hybridoma technology.

APPLICATION OF HYBRIDOMA TECHNOLOGY

① DIAGNOSTIC APPLICATIONS

- Monoclonal Antibodies are used in ELISA, RIA & rapid diagnostic tests for detection of diseases like:
 - HIV
 - Hepatitis
 - COVID-19
 - Pregnancy test

② THERAPEUTIC APPLICATIONS

- They're widely used as Targeted drug delivery system in the treatment of:
 - Cancer
 - Autoimmune diseases

③ VACCINE DEVELOPMENT

- They help in identifying specific antigens (epitopes)
- Used in designing better vaccines
- Supports development of subunit vaccines.

④ PURIFICATION OF MOLECULES

- They're used in affinity chromatography to purify:
 - Proteins
 - Hormones
 - Enzymes

IMPERFECT PHARMACY

BLOOD PRODUCTS

- Blood products are therapeutic components obtained from whole blood by separation & processing.
- They're used to correct specific deficiencies in blood components such as RBCs, platelets, plasma proteins, or clotting factors.

TYPES OF BLOOD PRODUCTS

① WHOLE BLOOD

- Whole blood contains all components - RBCs, WBCs, Platelets & Plasma.
- It is mainly used in Acute hemorrhage or Massive blood loss.
- It is rarely used now due to availability of specific components.

② PACKED RED BLOOD CELLS (PRBCs)

- They're concentrated erythrocytes with most plasma removed.
- They're mainly used in Anemia & acute blood loss
- They increase oxygen-carrying capacity without the risk of circulatory overload.

③ FRESH FROZEN PLASMA (FFP)

- It is Plasma separated & frozen within hours to preserve clotting factors.
- It contains all coagulation factors & plasma proteins.
- It is mainly used in coagulation disorders, Liver disease.

④ PLASMA DERIVATIVES

- They're obtained by fractionation of plasma using industrial processes.
- It includes:
 - ① Albumin: Maintains colloidal osmotic pressure; used in burns, shock.
 - ② Immunoglobulins: Provide passive immunity in infections & immunodeficiency.
 - ③ Clotting factor concentrates: Used in hemophilia & other bleeding disorders

PLASMA SUBSTITUTES

- Plasma Substitutes are solⁿ that are used to restore circulating blood volume in cases of hypovolemia.
- They do not contain blood cells & are incapable of oxygen transport.

CHARACTERISTICS OF IDEAL PLASMA SUBSTITUTES

- They should be non-toxic, non-antigenic & free from pathogens.
- They must maintain colloidal osmotic pressure & effectively expand plasma volume.
- They should have an adequate duration of action without rapid elimination.
- They must be stable & easily available
- Should not interfere with blood grouping or coagulation.

TYPES OF PLASMA SUBSTITUTES

① NATURAL PLASMA EXPANDERS

- Human albumin is considered a natural plasma expander obtained from blood plasma.
- It helps in maintaining colloidal osmotic pressure & fluid balance.

② SYNTHETIC PLASMA EXPANDERS

- Dextran: It is polysaccharide that increases blood volume by retaining water in the circulation & commonly used in shock management.
- Hydroxyethyl Starch (HES): It is a synthetic polymer that expands plasma volume for a longer duration & widely used in fluid resuscitation.
- Gelatin Solutions: Such as Haemaccel act as short-term plasma expanders, They're used in cases of mild to moderate blood loss.
- Crystalloids: Such as normal saline & Ringer lactate help in fluid replacement but have a shorter duration of action.

THANK YOU

FOR CHOOSING IMPERFECT PHARMACY AS YOUR STUDY PARTNER



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