

Review On The Role Of Host Immune Response In Protection And Immunopathogenesis During *Entamoeba Histolytica*

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ABSTRACT

Background: A protozoane parasite called *Entamoeba histolytica* (Eh) infects *Entamoebae histolytica* (Eh), a protozoane parasite that causes 100,000 deaths per year from amebic dysentery and/or liver abscess, has infected 10% of the entire world's population. Usually, this extracellular parasite colonizes the colon with high affinity binding to MUC2 mucin without causing illness symptoms, but occasionally, Eh invades the colonic mucosa and triggers an aggressive inflammatory response. The particular host-parasite variables required for illness etiology are still mostly unknown. The parasite's cysteine protease cleaves the C-terminus of MUC2, that causes the mucus layer to dissolve, followed by adsorption and cytotoxicity of the mucosal epithelium, are the disease's hallmark events that cause the condition to worsen. Every time a host cell that causes tissue injury comes into contact with the host, the host generates an excessively inefficient pro-inflammatory response. They can cause cell death through phagocytosis, apoptosis, or trophocytosis (the absorption of living cells), which may be crucial for immune evasion, as well as other detrimental effects that are brought on by their attachment to the host cells. Immune evasion techniques are used by Eh to survive and induce disease manifestation in the host; these techniques are the main focus of this review. An estimated 100,000 individuals are predicted to die each year from *E. histolytica* infection, which is thought to impact 1% of people. Clinical manifestations of an amebic infection can range from mild to severe, causing extraintestinal abscesses and diarrhea. Only 20% of those who are affected, like other infectious diseases, reportedly exhibit symptoms. The outcome of an infection is controlled by both the genetic make-up of the parasite and the host as well as environmental factors like the microbiome. Amebic infection goes through a number of critical stages, including the degeneration of the mucosal layer and infiltration into it, adherence to the intestinal epithelium, invasion into the tissues, and diffusion to other organs.

Keywords: *Entamoebae Histolyticae*, Immune Evasion, Phagocytosis, Apoptosis, Trophocytosis

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INTRODUCTION

Entamoeba histolytica, an intestinal protozoan parasite that also affects humans, is the cause of amebiasis. Amebiasis is an ongoing global health

problem that causes up to 100,000 fatalities annually (1, 2). Through the intake of contaminated food and water, amebic cysts can spread (1, 3, 4). In regions where the

disease is common, exposure levels can be quite high. For example, a Bangladeshi urban slum recorded an annual incidence of 40% among adolescents (5). In some parts of Asia and Australia, a condition known as "men who have sex with men" (MSM) amebiasis is endemic and can be transmitted (6–9). While 20% of *E. histolytica* infections cause clinical symptoms such as dysentery, which is distinguished by intestinal mucosal invasion and tissue destruction, the majority of infections remain undiagnosed (10). Amebic liver abscesses (ALAs), the most frequent kind and occurring in 17% of symptomatic cases in Japan and 1% of cases in underdeveloped countries, are the most popular type of dysentery and extra-intestinal amebiasis. (11, 12). Amebic trophozoites that invade the intestinal epithelium induce the human host to mount an immune response. Repression of the host immune system and management of the

parasitism environment are necessary for parasite persistence in the host. For instance, during extra-intestinal dissemination, the amoebae must temporarily survive in the blood vessels and the spleen, in which they are exposed to high oxygen concentration and a network of immune cells and humoral factors (*E. histolytica* are anaerobic or microaerophilic). Amoebae must evade complement and antibody detection, as well as shield themselves from oxidative and nitrosative attack, in order to thrive in such an environment. Here, we provide an overview of what is known today about the immune response to amebic infection (Figure 1) and the parasite's strategies to evade from the host immune system (Figure 2).

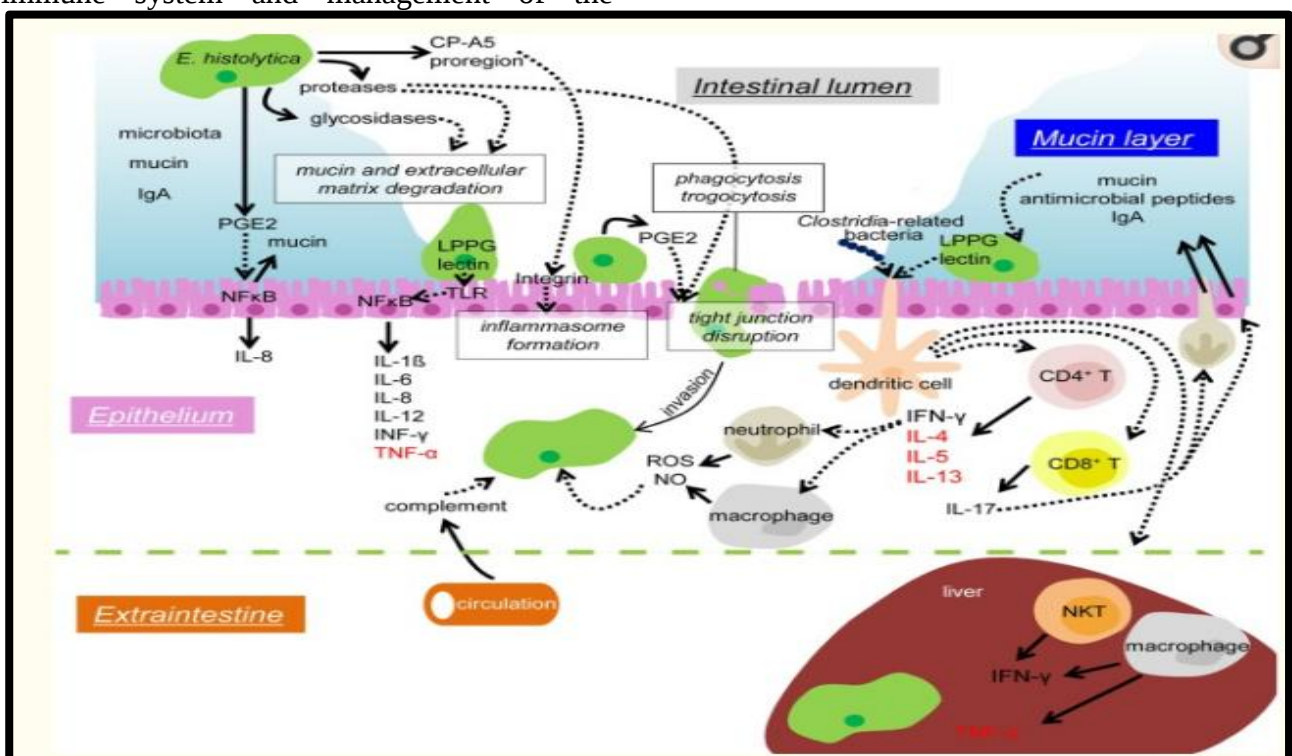


Figure (1) Immune evasion by host cell lysis via *E. histolytica* (Eh). Contact between the host cell and Eh is facilitated through the host cell surface Gal and GalNAc receptors, in addition to the Gal-lectine (A). Additional amebic proteins related to host cell attachment also include

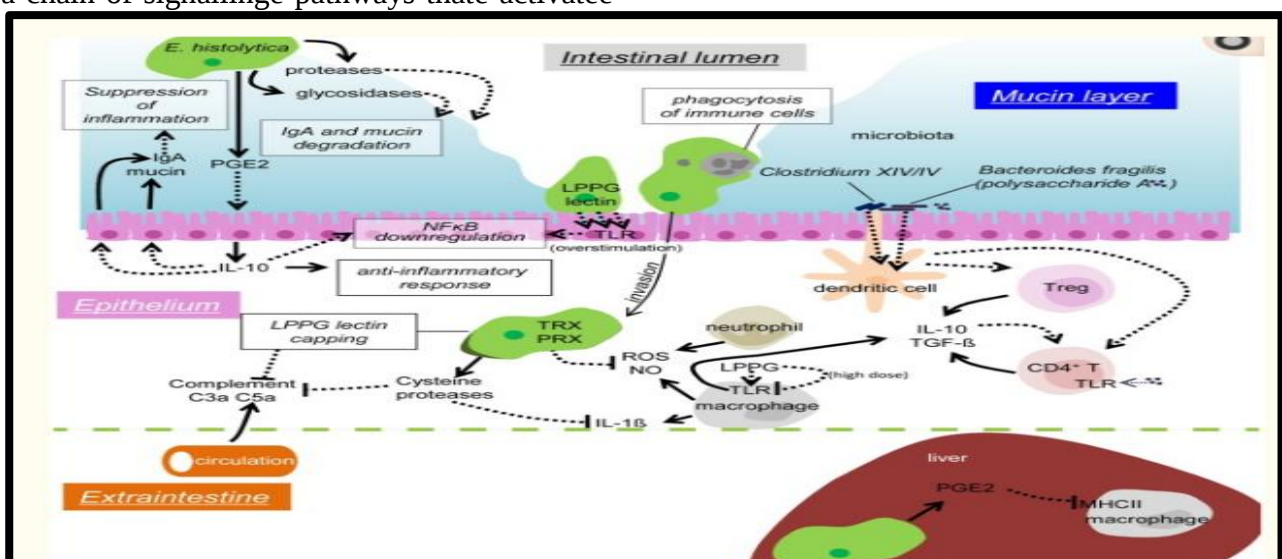
trans-membrane serine, threonine, and isoleucine proteins (STIRP) and the transmembrane kinase family member TMKb1-9. Three things could happen after Eh-host communication: Amebic trophocytosis (A) and apoptosis (C) (B) In Phagocytosis (D). More substantial cells

may undergo amebic trophocytosis in (B). For amebic trophocytosis to happen, PI3K and C2PK signal transduction were necessary. (C) Whenever host cells that have been forced to undergo apoptosis express phosphatidylserine (PS) and C1q complement protein, an amoeba uses the amebic calreticulin receptor to opsonize the cells. In (D), phagocytosis occurs on both the smaller cell and the cell that is apoptosing. Signal transduction for phagocytosis, that is also mediated by PI3K and EhC2PK, influences actin polymerization. Transmembrane Kinase (TMK), C2 Protein Kinase (PI3K), and Phosphatidylinositol 3 Kinase (PI3K) 39 (TMK39).

Mechanisms of *E. histolytica* trophozoite colonization and invasion and host immunological reactions to prevent and manage amebic illness.

The IEC layer is coated in the lumen of the intestine by the mucous membrane (blue), which contains mucin and IgA released by the host and commensal microbes. The amoeba's secreted proteases and glycosidases are what enable the extracellular matrix and mucin to break down. Inflammasomes are produced as a result of EhCP-pro-domain A5's interactions with integrins, activation of which leads to pro-inflammatory responses. In the IECs, PGE₂, which is also generated by amoebae, promotes mucin depletion and hypersecretion. Additionally, PGE₂ initiates a chain of signaling pathways that activate

NF- κ B in the IECs and culminate in the release of IL-8. As a result of the Gal/GalNAc lectin (lectin) and LPPG on the amoeba's surface binding to TLR2, IECs experience NF- κ B activation and the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines. Furthermore, PGE₂ interferes with the tight junction function of the epithelium and promotes amoebic infiltration. The clearance of host cells and invasion into the host tissue are both made much easier by phagocytosis and trophocytosis. Invading trophozoites are driven off by complement from the bloodstream, ROS, and NO from neutrophils and macrophages. The activation of CD4, CD8, and NKT cells, the Gal/GalNAc lectin, and LPPG enhance protective cellular immunity. CD4 T cells produce IFN- γ , IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13, while CD8 T cells produce IL-17. The production of mucin, bacteriocin, and IgA into the intestinal lumen is enhanced by IL-17, which also promotes neutrophil infiltration. When disseminated to the liver by the dense, which is mediated by IFN- γ secreted by NKT cells, the amoebae are adhered to and eliminated. The hepatic macrophages' TNF- α release induces abscesses to form. Solid arrows indicate the synthesis of soluble proteins, whereas dotted arrows indicate contact or signal transduction. Cytokines implicated in clinical disease are depicted in red, whereas those that are most useful for killing off amoebae are depicted in black.



(**Figure 2**) Amebiasis immune evasion techniques that could be employed. IgA is broken in the mucosal layer via proteases just one surface or secreted by amebae. By causing the IECs to secrete IL-10 and mucin and IgA, the amebae's PGE2 stimulates the prevention of needless inflammation. If TLR stimulation is too intense, NF- κ B activation is downregulated. When infiltrating immune cells are cleared by phagocytosis or trogocytosis, immune responses may be suppressed. *Bacteroides fragilis* and *Clostridium* XIV and IV groups are two commensal bacteria that cause Treg cells to inhibit immune responses. Polysaccharides of *B. fragilis* TLR2 on CD4 T cells is activated by A, and causes the production of IL-10. By capping surface receptors (LPPG, lectin), the amebae in tissues and blood escape complement, while C3a and C5a are destroyed.

Immune Reaction Throughout Amebic Infection

Course of Amebic Infection

Entamoeba histolytica infection is started by the parasite adhesion to the intestinal mucosal layer. A lectin (Gal/GalNAc lectin) made by trophozoites binds to colonic epithelial cells and host mucin with a predilection for galactose and N-acetyl-D-galactosamine (13). The parasite that has colonized has the capacity to severely damage tissue. Hydrolytic enzymes, especially cysteine proteases (CP), are thought to be the parasite's main tools for penetrating the epithelium and destroying extracellular matrix (ECM) elements of the host, in addition to pore-forming proteins and amoebapores (14, 15). (16–20). During and after entering the submucosal area, amebic trophozoites participate in direct and indirect interactions with host immune and non-immune cells.

Humoral Immunity

Although the mucosal layer in the digestive system frequently serves as a main physical barrier against intestinal pathogens, the intestinal immune response is the secondary defense against *E. histolytica* infection. Mucosal immunoglobulins (Ig) are the most large element of the human gut defense

system (21). One of these, known as secretory IgA, is one of the most frequently produced Ig by plasma cells. It serves to break the mucosal barrier and prevent pathogen adhesion (21). (5, 22, 23). Patients who had recovered from ALA backed up this view. In post-ALA patients, increases in anti-Gal/GalNAc lectin IgA antibodies were linked with elimination of subsequent amebic infections, showing that these individuals retained immunological memory and improved immune response (24, 25). IgG levels, on the other hand, can either protect against or not protect against amebic illnesses depending on the major IgG subclasses induced by infection (i.e., IgG1 and IgG2 induced by Th2 and Th1, respectively) (26, 27).

Cell-Mediated Immunity

Cell-mediated immune responses are also required for host to be safeguarded from *E. histolytica*. In the early stages of infection, intestinal epithelial cells (IECs) bind to and identify the carbohydrate recognition domain of the Gal/GalNAc lectin via TLR-2/4, which activates NF- κ B and causes the production of top cytokines such IL-1, IL-6, IL-8, IL-12, IFN-, and TNF- (28–30). IECs are the first host cells to come into contact with microbial/parasite antigens and the second of defense against pathogens after the mucosal layer. They express a range of pathogen recognition receptors (PRRs), including TLRs, that recognize infections (31). IFN- plays a role in eliminating an infection although IL-4 and TNF are linked to illness (32–35). In fact, it has been shown that invasive amebiasis patients have increased blood levels of IL-4 and that peripheral mononuclear cell production of IFN- is associated with protection against subsequent *E. histolytica* infection in children (36). (27, 37). Additionally, it has been demonstrated that animals which have received vaccinations are protected by CD4⁺ T cells that produce IFN- and CD8⁺ T cells that produce IL-17 (38, 39). IL-17 increases neutrophil infiltration, mucin and antimicrobial peptide secretion is induced, and IgA transport across the intestinal epithelium rises, all of which aid in the body's defense against amebic infection. (40–43). Amebicidal activity of IFN-activated

macrophages and neutrophils in vitro (44, 45). When macrophages were rare in amebic lesions in vivo, neutrophils predominated, suggesting the significance of neutrophils for amebae clearance (46). In order to eradicate trophozoites, the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and nitric oxide (NO) even by enzyme NAD(P)H oxidase complex and iNOS, respectively, is required (45, 47). Natural killer T cells (NKTs) from experimental ALA provided protection through the release of IFN- γ , but macrophages that produce TNF increased tissue damage (32, 33). Together, humoral and cell-mediated immune responses have significant effects on the avoidance of amebic infection.

Host Immune Response and Parasite Virulence Are Modified by the Microbiota The Ameba's Energy Metabolism and Growth are Affected by Microbiota

The mature human intestine includes trillions of different species of bacteria. Recent studies suggest that the gut bacterial microbiota may influence the results of protozoan infections (48, 49). Resources from the host and the microbiota are needed for *E. histolytica* trophozoites in order to grow and survive. Glycosidases are enzymes produced by the bacterial microbiota that simplify complicated polysaccharides so that the host and amebae can absorb them (50). Microbial glycosidase activity determines the number of free carbs in the colonic (the glycobiome). Thus, the core energy metabolism of the trophozoite *E. histolytica* may be affected by the microbiota. *E. histolytica* has various glycosidases, such as amylase, -hexosaminidase, and lysozymes,

encoded in its genome and may breakdown a range of polysaccharides to create monosaccharides (51–55). The activity and regulation of amebic glycosidases also influence available carbohydrate concentrations.

CONCLUSION

Our understanding of the molecular mechanisms underlying the parasite's pathogenicity has significantly advanced recently. These mechanisms involve host cell attachment, induction of apoptosis, degradation of mucin and ECM, penetration of tissue, and phagocytosis of host cells. The same is true of immune evasion strategies include inducing IL-10, blocking IFN, destroying Igs, activating complement, and producing pro-inflammatory cytokines. Defense against ROS and NO, as well as avoiding antibody- and complement-dependent death, are all required for survival in the host. Additionally, the outcome of amebic infection is controlled by mutual signaling among the three domains in the vast system of the human, microbiota, and parasite with polymorphic genetic backgrounds. Further research is required to explain the molecular basis of the complex interaction in the intestinal ecosystem and to comprehend the molecular basis of the intricate interplay in the digestive tract.

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