

The Role of Innate and Acquired Immunity in Susceptibility to Infections in Neonates

Asiimawe Masika Agnovia

Department of Clinical Medicine and Dentistry Kampala International University Uganda

Email: agnovia.asiimawe@studwc.kiu.ac.ug

ABSTRACT

Neonates are particularly vulnerable to infections due to the immaturity of their immune systems. Both innate and acquired immunity contribute to their susceptibility, with innate immunity providing the first line of defense and acquired immunity gradually developing after birth. Deficiencies in neonatal phagocytic function, complement activation, and cytokine production impair pathogen clearance, while delayed antibody responses and limited immunological memory further increase infection risk. Factors such as gestational age, maternal health, and microbiota composition significantly influence neonatal immune function. Understanding these mechanisms is crucial for developing targeted interventions, including breastfeeding promotion, maternal vaccination, and microbiome modulation, to enhance neonatal immune defenses. This review highlights the complex interactions between innate and acquired immunity in neonates and discusses potential strategies to reduce infection-related morbidity and mortality.

Keywords: neonatal immunity, innate immunity, acquired immunity, infection susceptibility, immune development

INTRODUCTION

Neonates face an increased risk of infections due to the immaturity of their immune systems at birth [1]. During this early period of life, their immune responses are still developing, leaving them vulnerable to a variety of pathogens. While maternal antibodies provide some level of protection during the initial months, this passive immunity only offers temporary defense [2]. Consequently, neonates must rely on their own developing immune mechanisms to fight off infections. The immune system is made up of two primary components: innate immunity and acquired immunity [3]. Innate immunity, the first line of defense, is present at birth and provides immediate, though nonspecific, protection against pathogens. This includes physical barriers, like the skin, and immune cells that can quickly respond to invaders. However, the innate immune system is not always sufficient to completely protect neonates, especially from more complex or persistent infections [4].

Acquired immunity, on the other hand, develops more gradually as the infant is exposed to various antigens [5]. This adaptive immune response involves the

production of specific antibodies and the activation of memory cells that can recognize and respond more effectively to future infections. Although this system becomes more robust over time, it is not fully developed at birth and takes several months to mature [6]. The interplay between innate and acquired immunity in neonates determines their overall susceptibility to infections. A well-functioning innate immune system can help mitigate the risks until acquired immunity becomes more effective [7]. Understanding these processes is crucial for ensuring the health and protection of neonates during this vulnerable period of life.

Innate Immunity in Neonates

Innate immunity provides an immediate but nonspecific defense against pathogens, serving as the first line of protection in neonates [8]. However, due to the immaturity of their immune systems, several components of innate immunity function suboptimally, increasing their susceptibility to infections.

Physical and chemical barriers play a crucial role in limiting pathogen entry. The skin and mucosal

surfaces act as protective layers, while antimicrobial peptides help neutralize invading microbes. Despite these defenses, neonates have thinner skin and immature mucosal immunity, making them more vulnerable to infections [9].

Phagocytic cells, such as neutrophils and macrophages, are essential for pathogen clearance [10]. These cells identify, engulf, and destroy harmful microorganisms. However, neonatal phagocytes exhibit reduced chemotaxis, phagocytosis, and microbial killing capacity compared to those in adults. This diminished function compromises their ability to respond effectively to infections [11].

Pattern recognition receptors (PRRs), including toll-like receptors (TLRs), detect pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) and trigger immune responses. TLR signaling in neonates is less robust, leading to impaired cytokine production and delayed pathogen clearance. As a result, their immune responses to infections are often weaker and less coordinated [12]. The complement system, a key component of innate immunity, enhances pathogen recognition and destruction through opsonization and direct lysis. However, in neonates, this system is functionally immature, reducing its efficiency in eliminating microbes. The lower levels of complement proteins and reduced activation of the cascade further contribute to their vulnerability [13]. Overall, while innate immunity provides essential early protection, its functional limitations in neonates make them more prone to infections. Understanding these weaknesses can help in developing targeted interventions to strengthen neonatal immune responses and reduce infection-related complications in this vulnerable population.

Acquired immunity in neonates

Acquired immunity in neonates involves antigen-specific responses mediated by B and T lymphocytes. However, due to the immaturity of their immune system, neonates exhibit deficiencies in both humoral and cellular immunity, making them more susceptible to infections [14].

Maternal antibodies provide temporary passive immunity to neonates. Immunoglobulin G (IgG) is transferred across the placenta during the third trimester, offering protection against various pathogens. However, these maternal antibodies wane within months after birth, leaving neonates increasingly vulnerable to infections until their own immune responses mature [15].

B-cell function in neonates is underdeveloped, leading to impaired antibody production. Neonatal B cells produce lower levels of immunoglobulins and respond poorly to T-independent antigens, which do not require T-cell help for activation [16]. This

results in weaker antibody responses to certain bacterial infections, making neonates more prone to illnesses caused by encapsulated bacteria such as *Streptococcus pneumoniae* and *Haemophilus influenzae*.

T-cell responses in neonates are also immature. While neonatal T cells are functional, they exhibit a bias toward anti-inflammatory responses, which helps prevent excessive immune activation that could be harmful to the developing body [17]. However, this bias also limits their ability to clear infections efficiently. Reduced production of pro-inflammatory cytokines and delayed activation of cytotoxic T cells further weaken neonatal immunity.

The development of immunological memory is slow in neonates, leading to prolonged susceptibility to recurrent infections [18]. Memory B and T cells take time to mature, delaying the ability to mount rapid and robust responses to previously encountered pathogens [19]. This slow development is one reason why multiple doses of vaccines are required in early childhood to ensure lasting immunity.

Several factors influence neonatal immune competence and susceptibility to infections. Gestational age plays a significant role, as preterm infants have even greater immune immaturity, making them highly vulnerable to sepsis and other life-threatening infections [20]. The composition of the gut microbiota is another critical factor, as it helps regulate immune system development. An imbalance in the neonatal microbiome, known as dysbiosis, can predispose infants to infections and inflammatory diseases [21]. Additionally, maternal health during pregnancy impacts neonatal immunity. Maternal infections, poor nutrition, and immune deficiencies can affect the transfer of protective antibodies and influence the development of the neonatal immune system [18]. Understanding the limitations of acquired immunity in neonates is essential for developing strategies to enhance their immune protection, such as maternal vaccinations, breastfeeding, and targeted immunotherapies.

Factors Influencing Neonatal Susceptibility to Infections

Several factors influence neonatal immune competence and their susceptibility to infections [19]. One of the most critical factors is gestational age. Preterm infants, born before full immune development, exhibit even greater immune immaturity than full-term neonates [22]. Their underdeveloped immune defenses make them highly vulnerable to severe infections such as sepsis, pneumonia, and necrotizing enterocolitis. The lack of sufficient maternal antibody transfer, which primarily occurs in the third trimester, further compromises their protection [23].

The composition of the gut microbiota also plays a crucial role in shaping neonatal immune responses. The gut serves as a primary site for immune system development, with beneficial microbes helping to regulate immune function and maintain homeostasis [24]. However, an imbalance in microbial colonization, known as dysbiosis, can predispose neonates to infections and inflammatory conditions such as necrotizing enterocolitis. Factors such as mode of delivery, antibiotic use, and feeding practices influence the establishment of a healthy microbiome [25].

Maternal health during pregnancy significantly impacts neonatal immunity. Maternal infections can lead to intrauterine inflammation, which may impair fetal immune development. Additionally, maternal nutrition plays a key role in shaping neonatal immune function, as deficiencies in essential nutrients such as vitamins A, D, and zinc can compromise immune responses [26]. The overall immune status of the mother, including her vaccination history and presence of chronic conditions, also affects the transfer of protective antibodies and immune factors to the neonate [2]. Understanding these factors is essential for developing strategies to enhance neonatal immune protection and reduce infection risks.

Strategies to Enhance Neonatal Immunity

Enhancing neonatal immunity is essential to reducing infection risks and improving overall health outcomes [27]. Several strategies can help support and strengthen the developing immune system during this vulnerable period.

Neonatal immune responses differ significantly from those of older children and adults, making neonates more vulnerable to infections. While innate immunity provides an immediate defense, its immaturity results in reduced pathogen clearance. Acquired immunity develops gradually and requires antigen exposure to become fully effective, leaving neonates susceptible during this early stage of life. Understanding these immunological limitations is essential for developing strategies to strengthen neonatal immunity. Breastfeeding, maternal vaccination, and microbiome

Breastfeeding plays a crucial role in boosting neonatal immunity. Human milk contains immunoglobulins, particularly secretory IgA, which provides mucosal protection against pathogens [28]. Additionally, breast milk is rich in cytokines, growth factors, and antimicrobial peptides that support immune system maturation. The presence of prebiotics in breast milk also promotes the growth of beneficial gut bacteria, further enhancing immune function.

The use of probiotics and prebiotics is another potential strategy for improving neonatal immunity [29]. Probiotics, which consist of beneficial live bacteria, help establish a healthy gut microbiome, promoting immune regulation and reducing the risk of infections [30]. Prebiotics, non-digestible food components that stimulate the growth of beneficial bacteria, further contribute to immune system development. Modulating the gut microbiota through these interventions may help protect neonates from inflammatory conditions and infections [31].

Vaccination is a key approach to enhancing neonatal immunity. Early immunization strategies, including maternal vaccination during pregnancy, help confer passive immunity to the neonate [32]. Vaccinating mothers against diseases such as influenza, pertussis, and COVID-19 provides protective antibodies that are transferred to the infant. Additionally, timely administration of neonatal vaccines, such as those for hepatitis B and tuberculosis, helps initiate active immune responses [33]. By implementing these strategies, it is possible to enhance neonatal immune protection, reduce the risk of infections, and promote long-term health benefits for infants.

CONCLUSION

modulation are promising approaches to enhance immune protection. Additionally, early immunization and nutritional support can further improve neonatal immune responses. Future research should focus on optimizing immune-boosting interventions to reduce infection risks and improve neonatal health outcomes. By addressing the unique challenges of neonatal immunity, healthcare providers can develop targeted strategies to enhance immune defenses, ultimately reducing the burden of infectious diseases in this vulnerable population.

REFERENCES

1. Moraes-Pinto MI, Suano-Souza F, Aranda CS. Immune system: development and acquisition of immunological competence. *J Pediatr (Rio J)*. 2021 Mar-Apr;97 Suppl 1(Suppl1):S59-S66. doi: 10.1016/j.jped.2020.10.006. Epub 2020 Nov 9. PMID: 33181111; PMCID: PMC9432342.
2. Tsafaras GP, Ntontsi P, Xanthou G. Advantages and Limitations of the Neonatal Immune System. *Front Pediatr*. 2020 Jan 28;8:5. doi: 10.3389/fped.2020.00005. PMID: 32047730; PMCID: PMC6997472.
3. Alessandro Borghesi, Life-threatening infections in human newborns: Reconciling age-specific vulnerability and interindividual variability, *Cellular Immunology*, 2024; 397–398, 104807. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cellimm.2024.104807>.

4. Tobias R. Kollmann, Beate Kampmann, Sarkis K. Mazmanian, Arnaud Marchant, Ofer Levy, Protecting the Newborn and Young Infant from Infectious Diseases: Lessons from Immune Ontogeny, *Immunity*, 2017; 46(3): 350-363. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.immuni.2017.03.009>.
5. Pieren DKJ, Boer MC, de Wit J. The adaptive immune system in early life: The shift makes it count. *Front Immunol.* 2022 Nov 17;13:1031924. doi: 10.3389/fimmu.2022.1031924. PMID: 36466865; PMCID: PMC9712958.
6. Nunez N, Réot L, Menu E. Neonatal Immune System Ontogeny: The Role of Maternal Microbiota and Associated Factors. How Might the Non-Human Primate Model Enlighten the Path? *Vaccines (Basel)*. 2021; 9(6):584. doi: 10.3390/vaccines9060584. PMID: 34206053; PMCID: PMC8230289.
7. PrabhuDas, M., Adkins, B., Gans, H. *et al.* Challenges in infant immunity: implications for responses to infection and vaccines. *Nat Immunol.*, 2011; 12, 189–194. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ni0311-189>
8. Marshall, J.S., Warrington, R., Watson, W. *et al.* An introduction to immunology and immunopathology. *Allergy Asthma Clin Immunol.*, 2018; 14 (Suppl 2), 49. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13223-018-0278-1>
9. Barua, P., Beeson, J.G., Maleta, K. *et al.* The impact of early life exposure to *Plasmodium falciparum* on the development of naturally acquired immunity to malaria in young Malawian children. *Malar J.*, 2019; 18, 11. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12936-019-2647-8>
10. Silva MT, Correia-Neves M. Neutrophils and macrophages: the main partners of phagocyte cell systems. *Front Immunol.* 2012 Jul 4;3:174. doi: 10.3389/fimmu.2012.00174. PMID: 22783254; PMCID: PMC3389340.
11. Rosales C, Uribe-Querol E. Phagocytosis: A Fundamental Process in Immunity. *Biomed Res Int.* 2017; 9042851. doi: 10.1155/2017/9042851. Epub 2017 Jun 12. PMID: 28691037; PMCID: PMC5485277.
12. Hirayama D, Iida T, Nakase H. The Phagocytic Function of Macrophage-Enforcing Innate Immunity and Tissue Homeostasis. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences.* 2018; 19(1):92. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms19010092>
13. Prame Kumar, K., Nicholls, A.J. & Wong, C.H.Y. Partners in crime: neutrophils and monocytes/macrophages in inflammation and disease. *Cell Tissue Res.*, 2018; 371, 551–565. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00441-017-2753-2>
14. Chen, S., Saeed, A.F., Liu, Q. *et al.* Macrophages in immunoregulation and therapeutics. *Sig Transduct Target Ther.*, 2023; 8, 207. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41392-023-01452-1>
15. Lagousi T, Gkentzi D, Geropeppa M, Tsagkli P, Spoulou V. Protecting the Offspring, the Gift of Maternal Immunization: Current Status and Future Perspectives. *Vaccines (Basel)*. 2022; 10(11):1953. doi: 10.3390/vaccines10111953. PMID: 36423047; PMCID: PMC9692240.
16. Tom R. Phillips, Canine Immune System, Editor(s): Peter J. Delves, Encyclopedia of Immunology (Second Edition), Elsevier, 1998, Pp 411-414. <https://doi.org/10.1006/rwei.1999.0112>.
17. Reynaldi, A., Dent, A.E., Schlub, T.E. *et al.* Interaction between maternally derived antibodies and heterogeneity in exposure combined to determine time-to-first *Plasmodium falciparum* infection in Kenyan infants. *Malar J.*, 2019; 18, 19. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12936-019-2657-6>
18. Basha S, Surendran N, Pichichero M. Immune responses in neonates. *Expert Rev Clin Immunol.* 2014; 10(9):1171-84. doi: 10.1586/1744666X.2014.942288. Epub 2014 Aug 4. PMID: 25088080; PMCID: PMC4407563.
19. Janeway CA Jr, Travers P, Walport M, et al. Immunobiology: The Immune System in Health and Disease. 5th edition. New York: Garland Science; 2001. Immunological memory. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK27158/>
20. Singh A, Kaur H, Gupta G, et al. Enhancement of Immunity and Health in Neonates and Infants. *Journal of Neonatology.* 2021; 35(3):138-154. doi:10.1177/09732179211044332
21. Sedney CJ, Harvill ET. The Neonatal Immune System and Respiratory Pathogens. *Microorganisms.* 2023;

- 11(6):1597.
<https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms11061597>
22. Maródi L. Neonatal innate immunity to infectious agents. *Infect Immun.* 2006; 74(4):1999-2006.doi: 10.1128/IAI.74.4.1999-2006.2006. PMID: 16552028; PMCID: PMC1418902.
 23. Aslam, S., O'Hare, F., Eliwan, H., Molloy, E.J. Immunology and Immunodeficiencies in Children. In: Puri, P. (eds) *Pediatric Surgery*. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg. 2019. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-38482-0_29-2
 24. Torow, N., Marsland, B., Hornef, M. *et al.* Neonatal mucosal immunology. *Mucosal Immunol.*, 2017; **10**, 5–17. <https://doi.org/10.1038/mi.2016.81>
 25. Nunez N, Réot L, Menu E. Neonatal Immune System Ontogeny: The Role of Maternal Microbiota and Associated Factors. How Might the Non-Human Primate Model Enlighten the Path? *Vaccines*. 2021; 9(6):584. <https://doi.org/10.3390/vaccines9060584>
 26. Mitra, D.K., Mullany, L.C., Harrison, M. *et al.* Incidence and risk factors of neonatal infections in a rural Bangladeshi population: a community-based prospective study. *J Health Popul Nutr.*, 2018; **37**, 6. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s41043-018-0136-2>
 27. Youssouf Sereme, Eya Toumi, Estelle Saifi, Hélène Faury, David Skurnik, Maternal immune factors involved in the prevention or facilitation of neonatal bacterial infections, *Cellular Immunology*, 2024; 395-396.104796. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cellimm.2023.104796>.
 28. Dalton, K.R., Rock, C., Carroll, K.C. *et al.* One Health in hospitals: how understanding the dynamics of people, animals, and the hospital built-environment can be used to better inform interventions for antimicrobial-resistant gram-positive infections. *Antimicrob Resist Infect Control.*, 2020; **9**, 78. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13756-020-00737-2>
 29. Kathene C Johnson-Henry, Thomas R Abrahamsson, Richard You Wu, Philip M Sherman, Probiotics, Prebiotics, and Synbiotics for the Prevention of Necrotizing Enterocolitis, *Advances in Nutrition*, 2016; 7(5):928-937. <https://doi.org/10.3945/an.116.012237>.
 30. Sajankila N, Wala SJ, Ragan MV, Volpe SG, Dumbauld Z, Purayil N, Mihi B, Besner GE. Current and future methods of probiotic therapy for necrotizing enterocolitis. *Front Pediatr.* 2023 Mar 2;11:1120459. doi: 10.3389/fped.2023.1120459. PMID: 36937955; PMCID: PMC10017871.
 31. Selvamani S, Kapoor N, Ajmera A, El Enshasy HA, Dailin DJ, Sukmawati D, Abomoelak M, Nurjayadi M, Abomoelak B. Prebiotics in New-Born and Children's Health. *Microorganisms*. 2023; 11(10):2453. <https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms11102453>
 32. Olaimat, A.N., Aolymat, I., Al-Holy, M. *et al.* The potential application of probiotics and prebiotics for the prevention and treatment of COVID-19. *npj Sci Food.*, 2020; **4**, 17. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41538-020-00078-9>
 33. Kober AKMH, Riaz Rajoka MS, Mehwish HM, Villena J, Kitazawa H. Immunomodulation Potential of Probiotics: A Novel Strategy for Improving Livestock Health, Immunity, and Productivity. *Microorganisms*. 2022; 10(2):388. <https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms10020388>

CITE AS: Asiimawe Masika Agnovia (2025). The Role of Innate and Acquired Immunity in Susceptibility to Infections in Neonates. IDOSR JOURNAL OF BIOLOGY, CHEMISTRY AND PHARMACY 10(1):19-23. <https://doi.org/10.59298/IDOSR/JBCP/25/101.192300>