CLINICAL Haematology

TAILORED FOR MEDICAL STUDENTS, USMLE, PLAB, PA & NURSING

4th EDITION





107 PAGES



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What's included: Ready-to-study anatomy, physiology and pathology notes of the Haematological (Hematological) System presented in succinct, intuitive and richly illustrated downloadable PDF documents. Once downloaded, you may choose to either print and bind them, or make annotations digitally on your iPad or tablet PC.

Anatomy & Physiology Notes:

- BLOOD: AN OVERVIEW
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- RED BLOOD CELLS
- HAEMOSTASIS/HEMOSTASIS
- THE ROLE OF BLOOD IN THE IMMUNE SYSTEM
- BLOOD GROUPS, TRANSFUSION & BLOOD PRODUCTS

Pathology Notes:

- ANAEMIAS
 - IRON DEFICIENCY ANAEMIA (Microcytic)
 - o ANAEMIA OF CHRONIC Inflammatory DISEASE (Microcytic/Normocytic)
 - o THALASSAEMIAS
 - o SICKLE CELL ANAEMIA
 - o MACROCYTIC ANAEMIA
 - "HA" HAEMOLYTIC ANAEMIA
 - HAEMOLYTIC DISEASE OF THE NEWBORN
 - O APLASTIC ANAEMIA (Ie: MARROW FAILURE)
- POLYCYTHAEMIA
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- MULTIPLE MYELOMA
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 - o ALL ACUTE LYMPHOBLASTIC LEUKAEMIA
 - o AML ACUTE MYELOID LEUKAEMIA
 - **O CLL CHRONIC LYMPHOCYTIC LEUKAEMIA**
 - 0 CML CHRONIC MYELOID LEUKAEMIA
- LYMPHOMAS
 - o HODGKIN'S LYMPHOMA (15%)
 - o NON-HODGKIN'S LYMPHOMAS (85%)
- BLEEDING DISORDERS
- THROMBOTIC DISORDERS
- DRUGS FOR HAEMOSTASIS:
 - **o ANTI-COAGULANTS**
 - **O ANTI-PLATELET DRUGS**
 - o THROMBOLYTICS



BLOOD: AN OVERVIEW

BLOOD: AN OVERVIEW





- The main transport medium of the body
- 8% of body weight
- A special type of *Connective Tissue* (living cells suspended in a non-living matrix)
- More dense than water
- 5x more viscous than water
- pH between 7.35 & 7.45
- 37.4 degrees Celsius
- Average adult blood volume = 5L (women); 5.5L (men)

Blood Functions:

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- Distribution:
 - o Oxygen
 - o Metabolic Waste
 - o Hormones
- Regulation:
 - o Temperature
 - o Maintaining pH in body tissues
 - o Fluid volume in Circulatory System
- Protection:
 - o Preventing blood loss clotting
 - o Preventing infection

Major Blood Components:

Component and % of blood	Subcomponent and % of component	Type and % (where appropriate)	Site of production	Major function(s)
Plasma 46–63 percent	Water 92 percent	Fluid	Absorbed by intestinal tract or produced by metabolism	Transport medium
	Plasma proteins 7 percent	Albumin 54–60 percent	Liver	Maintain osmotic concentration, transport lipid molecules
		Globulins 35–38 percent	Alpha globulins— liver	Transport, maintain osmotic concentration
			Beta globulins— liver	Transport, maintain osmotic concentration
			Gamma globulins (immunoglobulins) —plasma cells	Immune responses
		Fibrinogen 4–7 percent	Liver	Blood clotting in hemostasis
	Regulatory proteins <1 percent	Hormones and enzymes	Various sources	Regulate various body functions
	Other solutes 1 percent	Nutrients, gases, and wastes	Absorbed by intestinal tract, exchanged in respiratory system, or produced by cells	Numerous and varied
Formed elements 37–54 percent	Erythrocytes 99 percent	Erythrocytes	Red bone marrow	Transport gases, primarily oxygen and some carbon dioxide
	Leukocytes <1 percent Platelets <1 percent	Granular leukocytes: neutrophils eosinophils basophils	Red bone marrow	Nonspecific immunity
		Agranular leukocytes: lymphocytes monocytes	Lymphocytes: bone marrow and lymphatic tissue	Lymphocytes: specific immunity
			Monocytes: red bone marrow	Monocytes: nonspecific immunit
	Platelets <1 percent		Megakaryocytes: red bone marrow	Hemostasis

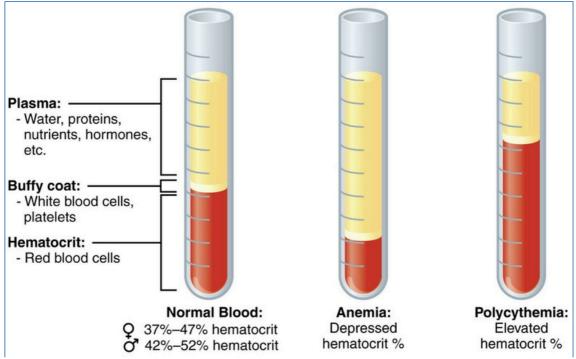
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Blood Components:

- Mixture of Cellular & Liquid Elements
- In a Centrifuged Sample:
 - o Red Blood Cells (Erythrocytes) sink to the bottom (heaviest)

§ Normally 45%+/- of the total blood-volume (a measure known as the Haematocrit)

- o White Blood Cells (Leukocytes) & Platelets form the "Buffy Coat" in the middle
- o A layer of plasma 'floats' on top (Mostly water)



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- P la sm a :
 - o Mostly water (90%)
 - o Contains 100's of dissolved nutrients/gases/hormones/wastes/ions/protein
 - o 5-7% protein:
 - § Albumin blood carrier
 - § Globulin mainly immunoglobulins
 - § Fibrinogen part of a clotting protein

o Predominant Ions: Na+, K+, Ca2+, Mg2+, Cl-, HCO3-

- Serum :
 - o The fluid, noncellular portion of blood that remains after coagulation; lymphatic fluid
 - o Serum is equivalent to plasma without its clotting elements
- Cells:
 - 0 Red Blood Cells: AKA: Erythrocytes carry oxygen around the body
 - o White Blood Cells: AKA: Leukocytes: (leuko = white)
 - § **Granulocytes:** (due to cytoplasmic granules)[are *polymorphonuclear* Multilobed Nucleus]
 - **60% Neutrophils** Responsible for fighting bacterial infections & some cancers
 - 3% Eosinophils Responsible for fighting parasitic infections & also allergic reactions
 - **0.5% Basophils** Responsible for allergic reactions
 - § Non-Granulocytes:
 - 5% Monocytes 2 functions:
 - o Replenish resident macrophages and dendritic cells under normal states
 - **30% Lymphocytes** Constantly circulating -Responsible for innate immune response (T-cells, B-cells & NK-cells)
 - o T-Lymphocytes: Responsible for Cell-Mediated immune response
 - o **B-Lymphocytes:** Responsible for *Humoral* immune response by producing antibodies
 - o Platelets: From fragmented Megakaryocytes Responsible for Clotting

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Formed element	Major subtypes	Numbers present per microliter (µL) and mean (range)	Appearance in a standard blood smear	Summary of functions	Germation GLOBAL
Erythrocytes (red blood cells)		5.2 million (4.4–6.0 million)	Flattened biconcave disk; no nucleus; pale red color	Transport oxygen and some carbon dioxide between tissues and lungs	Lifespan of approximately 120 days
Leukocytes (white blood cells)		7000 (5000–10,000)	Obvious dark-staining nucleus	All function in body defenses	Exit capillaries and move into tissues; lifespan of usually a few hours or days
	Granulocytes including neutrophils, eosinophils, and basophils	4360 (1800–9950)	Abundant granules in cytoplasm; nucleus normally lobed	Nonspecific (innate) resistance to disease	Classified according to membrane-bound granules in cytoplasm
	Neutrophils	4150 (1800–7300)	Nuclear lobes increase with age; pale lilac granules	Phagocytic; particularly effective against bacteria. Release cytotoxic chemicals from granules	Most common leukocyte; lifespan of minutes to days
	Eosinophils	165 (0–700)	Nucleus generally two-lobed; bright red-orange granules	Phagocytic cells; particularly effective with antigen- antibody complexes. Release antihistamines. Increase in allergies and parasitic infections	Lifespan of minutes to days
	Basophils	44 (0–150)	Nucleus generally two-lobed but difficult to see due to presence of heavy, dense, dark purple granules	Promotes inflammation	Least common leukocyte; lifespan unknown
	Agranulocytes including lymphocytes and monocytes	2640 (1700–4950)	Lack abundant granules in cytoplasm; have a simple- shaped nucleus that may be indented	Body defenses	Group consists of two major cell types from different lineages
	Lymphocytes	2185 (1500–4000)	Spherical cells with a single often large nucleus occupying much of the cell's volume; stains purple; seen in large (natural killer cells) and small (B and T cells) variants	Primarily specific (adaptive) immunity: T cells directly attack other cells (cellular immunity); B cells release antibodies (humoral immunity); natural killer cells are similar to T cells but nonspecific	Initial cells originate in bone marrow, but secondary production occurs in lymphatic tissue; several distinct subtypes; memory cell form after exposure to a pathogen and rapidly increase responses to subsequent exposure; lifespan of many years
	Monocytes	455 (200–950)	Largest leukocyte with an indented or horseshoe-shaped nucleus	Very effective phagocytic cells engulfing pathogens or worn out cells; also serve as antigen- presenting cells (APCs) for other components of the immune system	Produced in red bone marrow; referred to as macrophages after leaving circulation
Platelets	2	350,000 (150,000–500,000)	Cellular fragments surrounded by a plasma membrane and containing granules; purple stain ommons.org/license	Hemostasis plus release growth factors for repair and healing of tissue	Formed from megakaryocytes that remain in the red bone marrow and shee platelets into circulatio



HAEMATOPOIESIS

HAEMATOPOIESIS

(Yes, we know some countries spell it 'Hematopoiesis' :P)



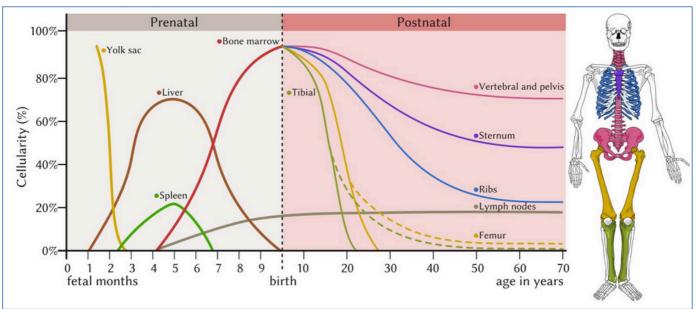
Haematopoiesis:

- What is it?

- o = 'The Formation of Cells in the Blood from *Pluri-Potent Stem Cells*'
- Why is it important?
 - o Blood cells don't live forever
 - o Blood cells get used up/killed/broken down/sacrificed constantly
 - o The body needs a way to balance this blood cell turnover with new production
 - o Also need to be able to produce MORE of a CERTAIN blood cell type under different physiological conditions:
 - § Eg: High altitude hypoxia \rightarrow Relative polycythemia
 - § Eg: Bacterial Infection \rightarrow Neutrophilia
 - § Eg: Parasitic Infection \rightarrow Eosinophilia

- Where does it occur?

- o In Foetal Life: Takes place in the Yolk Sac/Liver/Spleen/&Bone Marrow
- o After Birth: Takes place only in the Bone Marrow (Medullary Cavity)
 - § Ie: The Bone Marrow is generally the only source of *new blood cells*
 - § Usually confined to axial skeleton (pelvis & spine) & long bones (Femur & Humerus)
 - § However, the remaining *Fatty Marrow*, *Liver & Spleen* can resume their "extramedullary haematopoietic" roles in *Times of Need*



https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/6/63/Hematopoesis_EN.svg

ALL Blood Cells Start As Haematopoietic Stem Cells:

- Haematopoiesis starts with PluriPotent Stem Cells in the bone marrow
- Stem Cells are Self-renewing

§

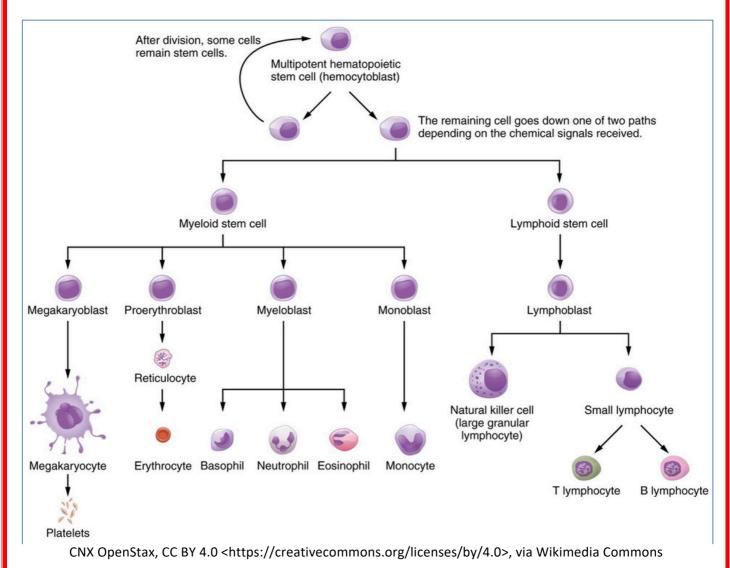
- Cell Lineages:

o Myeloid Stem Cells:

- § **Erythroid**:
 - Proerythroblast → Reticulocyte → RBCs
 - Granulocytic:
 - Myeloblasts → Neutrophils
 - Eosinophilic Myeloblast \rightarrow Eosinophils
 - Basophilic Myeloblast → Basophils
- S Monocytic:
 - Monoblast → Macrophages

Megakaryocytic:

- Megakaryoblasts → Megakaryocytes → **Platelets**
- o Lymphoid Stem Cells:
 - § Lymphocytic:
 - B-Lymphoblasts → B-Cells
 - T-Lymphoblasts → T-Cells
 - NK Cells
- Considerable amplification:
 - o le: 1 Stem Cell can produce 10,000,000 blood cells after only 20 divisions
 - Leukemias & Lymphomas can result from defective haematopoietic stem cell lines; o Sometimes treated with total body irradiation to kill all defective stem cell lineages, → Then
 - replace/regenerate the stem cell pool with a bone marrow transplant



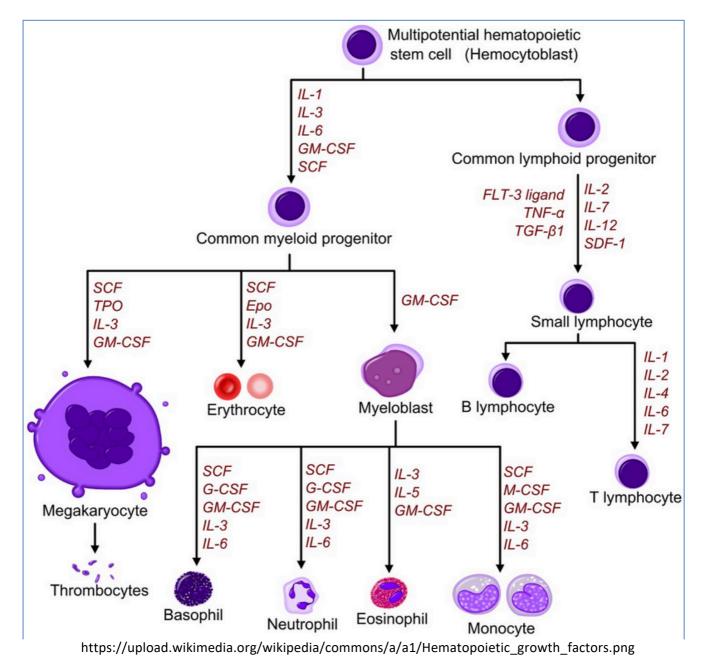


Haematopoietic Growth Factors:

- Pluripotent Stem Cells are capable of becoming any type of cell



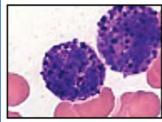
- Therefore, they need certain growth factors to direct their differentiation O Eg: Various Interleukins (IL's)
 - o Eg: Colony Stimulating Factors (CSF's)
 - o Eg: Thrombopoietin (TPO)
 - o Eg: Erythropoetin (EPO)
- There are many growth factors, and unlimited combinations which could direct differentiation
- o (Generally, committing these combinations to memory is outside the scope of a medical student)
 - Functions of these Growth Factors:
 - 0 Control Growth & Differentiation
 - o Can Stimulate Cell Maturation
 - o Can Suppress Apoptosis
 - o Can Affect the Function of Mature, Non-Dividing Cells

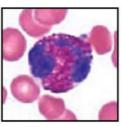


Normal Blood Smears:

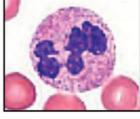
- RBCs:
 - GLOBAL
 Most of the RBCs are round, have central pallor (due to being thinner at their centre)
 - o RBC's size is comparable to a small lymphocyte
- Other Cells:
 - o Neutrophils
 - o Basophils
 - o Eosinophils
 - o Lymphocytes
 - o Monocytes/Macrophages (Monocytes in Blood, Macrophages in Tissues)
 - o Platelets

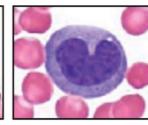
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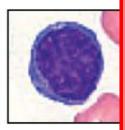




Eosinophil







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Basophil

Neutrophil

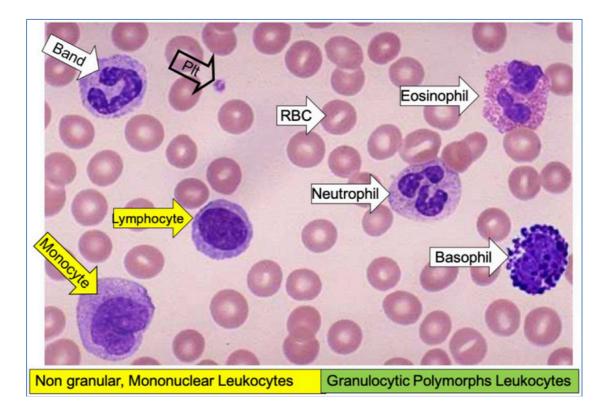
Monocyte

Lymphocyte

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System for Looking at Blood Sm ears:

- (Usually performed by specialist pathologists; not general medical practitioners)
- 1- RBC Assess Size, Colour, Shape
- 2- WBC Number, Types
- 3- Platelets Number, Size, Distribution
- 4- Abnormalities Parasites, Abnormal Cells (Eg: Sickle/Infected/Schistocytes/Blasts/Atypical/Etc)



Causes of Abnormal White Cell Counts: o (Note: Philia = Too Many)



0 (Note: Penia = Too Few)

Cell Type	Causes of -Philias	Causes of –Penias
Neutrophils	Infection (bacterial, fungal)	Infection (Viral, Salmonella, Malaria)
	Trauma (surgery, burns)	Certain Drugs
	Infarction (MI, PE, Sickle-cell crisis)	Autoimmune (Connective Tissue Disease)
	In fla m m a tio n (G o u t, R h e u m -A rth ritis, IB	Alcohol
	Malignancy (Tumours, Hodgkin's disease)	Congenital (Kostmann's syndrome)
	M yeloproliferative disease (Polycythaem ia,	
	CM L)	
	Physiological (Exercise, Pregnancy)	
Eosinophils	Allergy (hay fever, asthma, eczema)	Acute inflammation
	In fection (Helminths, Viral)	Drugs (steroids, Catecholamines)
	Skin disease	
	Connective tissue disease (Polyarteritis Nodosa)	
	Malignancy (Solid tumours, lymphomas)	
	Drugs (gold)	
Basophils	Myeloproliferative disease (Polycythaemia,	Hyperthyroidism
Dasopinis	CM L)	nyperinyrolaisin
	Inflammation (acute hypersensitivity, IBD)	
	Iron Deficiency	
	Infection (TB)	
Monocytes	Inflammation (Connective tissue disease, IBD)	
	Malignancy (Solid tumours)	
Lymphocytes	Infection (Viral, Bordetella Pertussis)	Inflammation (Connective tissue disease)
	Lymphoproliferative disease (CML, Lymphoma)	Lymphoma
	Post-splenectomy	Renal failure
		Drugs (Steroids, Cytotoxics)
		Congenital (Severe combined immunodeficiency)



RED BLOOD CELLS

RED BLOOD CELLS



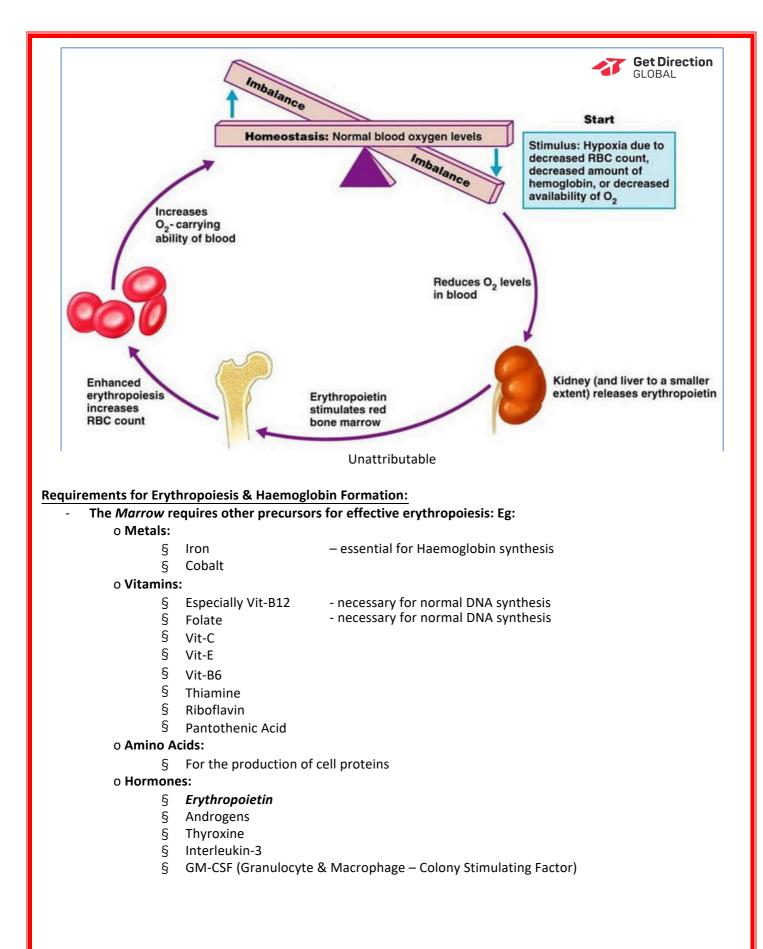
ERYTHROPOIESIS:

- Erythropoiesis = Process of Red Blood Cell Formation
 - O Responsible for 1012 new erythrocytes each day
 - O Finely Regulated
- A similar sequence of Amplification & Maturation
 - o Pluripotent Stem Cells → Pronormoblast (aka: Proerythroblast)
 - o **Pronormoblasts** → progressively smaller Normoblasts (aka: Erythroblasts)
 - o Normoblasts \rightarrow Reticulocytes
 - o **Reticulocytes** \rightarrow Mature into Erythrocytes
 - o Reticulocytes circulate in peripheral blood (1-2 days) before maturing in the Spleen
- Presence of Nuclei/Organelles:
 - o As erythrocyte precursors mature, they gain haemoglobin & lose nuclear material
 - 0 "Blasts" = Large, Nucleated RBC Progenitors + Organelles
 - o "Reticulocytes" = Smaller, Non-Nucleated RBC Progenitors (No organelles; just remnants)
- Note: Presence of *Blasts & Reticulocytes* in *Peripheral Blood* means 个个Erythropoiesis:
 - o In a normal smear, less than 1% of RBCs are Reticulocytes
 - o le: NORMALLY, All progenitors are in the marrow ONLY, except for the Erythrocyte
 - o To view Reticulocytes, you need "Methylene Blue Stain"
 - o Excess Reticulocytes can indicate Anaemia (Ie: The body's effort to compensate for lack of O2) o Severe Anaemia can result in immature nucleated RBC's in the blood (not good)
- **Bone Marrow** Blood Loses remaining Loses nucleus. Pluripotent some organelles organelles hematopoietic stem cell Proerythroblast Erythroblast Reticulocyte Erythrocyte (usually spends 3 days in (a.k.a. pronormoblast) (a.k.a. normoblast) (lifespan ~120 days) marrow, 1 day in blood) Hgb synthesis ~1% of circulating starts **RBCs are reticulocytes** Basophilic Polychromatophilic Orthochromatic erythoblast erythoblast erythoblast

Source: Unattributable

ERYTHROPOIETIN:

- Erythropoiesis is regulated by the Hormone 'Erythropoietin'
- Produced by the PeriTubular Interstitial Cells of the Kidneys (Also produced by liver <10%)
 Erythropoietin Production regulated by Oxygenation of Tissues in Kidneys
 Therefore Production INCREASES when:
 - § Body is Anaemic
 - § Haemoglobin isn't giving up O2 normally (Eg: Carbon Monoxide Poisoning)
 - § Atmospheric [O2] is low
 - § Damage to Renal Circulation (Ie: Ischemia of Kidney)
 - 0 Production DECREASES when:
 - § Tissue Oxygenation is Normal



HAEMOGLOBIN:

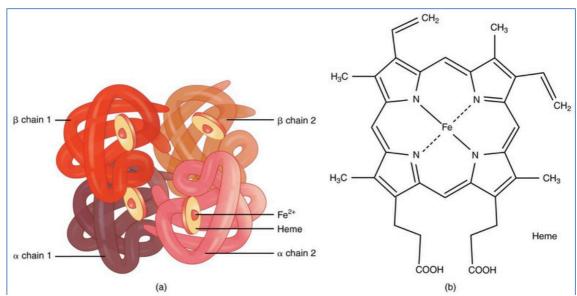
- Functions:



- o To carry O2 to tissues
- o To Return CO2 from tissues \rightarrow Lung
- o Storage pool of Iron (65% of bodily Iron is in Haemoglobin)
- Constituents:
 - o Made up of the protein *Globin* bound to the red Haem (heme) pigment
 - o Most common Adult Haemoglobin Molecule = Hb'A'
 - o Globin consists of 4 Polypeptide Globulin chains each with its own Haem Group
 - § 2 Alpha
 - § 2 Beta

§

- o Haem Molecules (Groups) containing:
 - § Protoporphyrin:
 - Combines with iron in the Ferrous (Fe2+) State to form Haem
 - 1x Iron atom in its centre:
 - Each Iron atom can combine with 1x molecule of Oxygen; therefore: o 1x Haemoglobin molecule can transport 4x molecules of Oxygen



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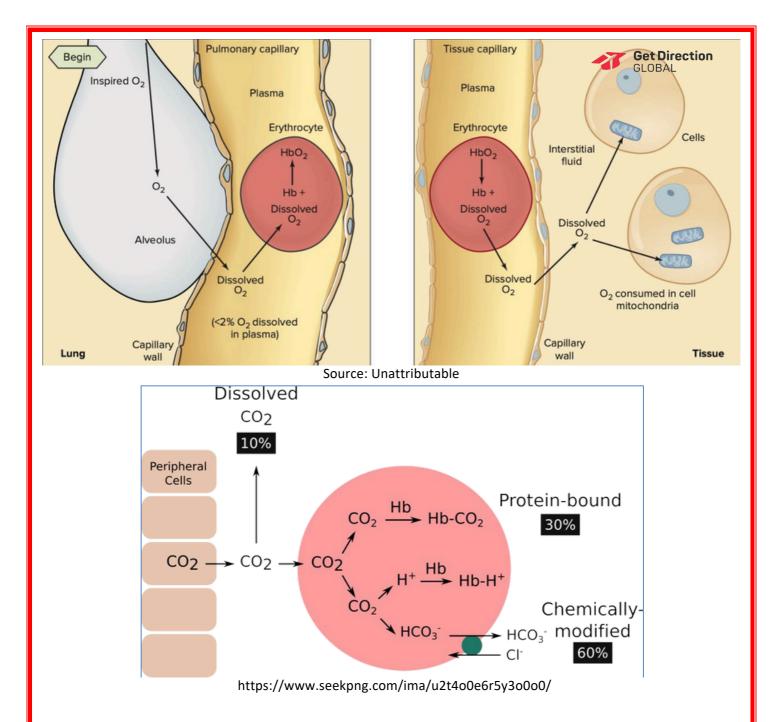
Oxygen Loading:

- O In lungs
- o O2 diffuses into blood \rightarrow into erythrocytes \rightarrow binds to Iron Molecules in Haemoglobin o Haemoglobin \rightarrow Becomes **OxyHaemoglobin**:
 - § Assumes a new 3D shape
 - S Pacamas Puby Pad
 - § Becomes Ruby Red

- Oxygen UnLoading:

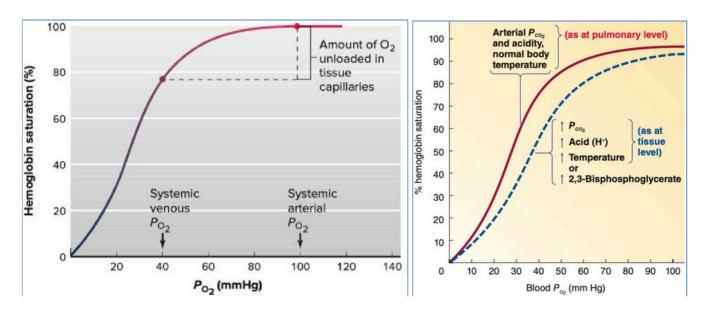
- O In Tissues
- o O2 detaches from Iron Molecules in Haemoglobin \rightarrow Out of RBC, into blood \rightarrow O2 into Tissue o OxyHaemoglobin \rightarrow Becomes **DeOxyHaemoglobin**:
 - § Resumes its former 2D shape
 - § Becomes Dark Red
- CO2 Transport:

o CO2 binds to Globin's Amino Acids; Rather than on the Haem Group



HAEMOGLOBIN – OXYGEN DISSOCIATION CURVE:

- Oxygen exchange operates between 95% Saturation (Arterial Blood) & 70% Saturation (Englishing of the second seco
- P50 = Partial Pressure of O2 at which Haemoglobin is ½ saturated with O2 (Approx 26 mmHg)
- As the curve *shifts to the right*, O2 is given up *More Readily* to the Tissues
- During CO2 Unloading in the lungs, the curve shifts to the left, \rightarrow O2 uptake increases

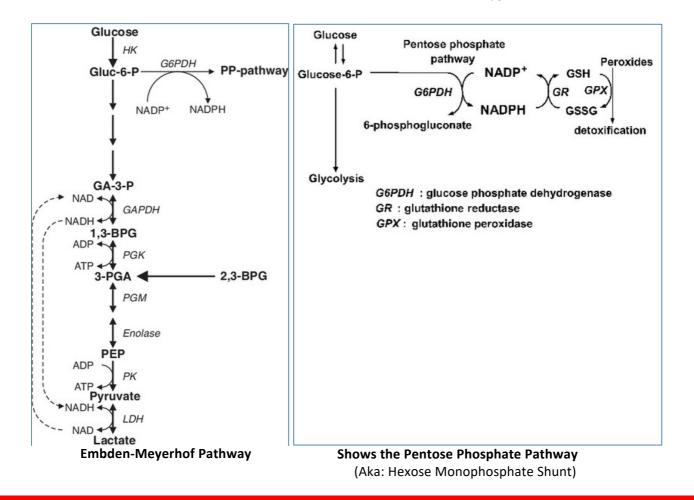


ERYTHROCYTE METABOLISM:

- *RBC's don't have Mitochondria, so they're forced to generate energy via *anaerobic pathways*:
 o Embden-Meyerhof Pathway:
 - § Glucose metabolised to produce ATP

o Pentose-Phosphate Pathway (aka: Hexose Monophosphate Shunt):

- § Glucose metabolised to produce NADPH
- § NADPH used by Methaemoglobin Reductase to maintain Iron in Ferrous Form (Fe2+)
- § Iron in the *Ferric Form* is useless because it doesn't bind oxygen \rightarrow Leads to Oxidative Stress

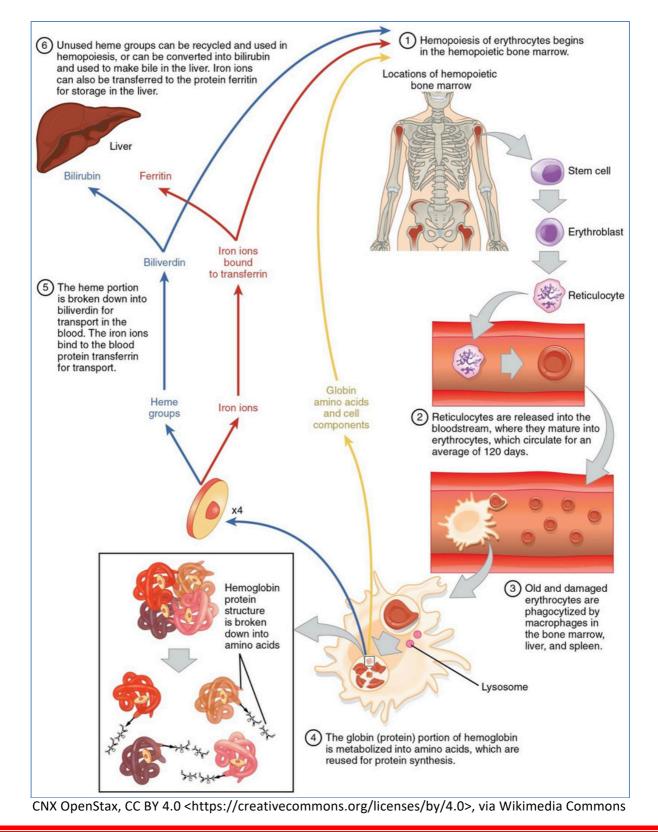


ERYTHROCYTE DEATH:

- Average Erythrocyte Lifespan: 120 Days



- Beyond 100 Days:
 - 0 0 Glycolysis slows
 - o Merriblanelbeleolines less flexible
- Dying Cells Removed by Macrophages in Spleen & Liver
 - 0 Iron is reused:
 - § \rightarrow Transported back to Bone Marrow (bound to *Transferrin*)
 - $\S \rightarrow$ Stored as *Ferritin* in Bone Marrow
 - o Protoporphyrin (Heme minus the Iron) is Metabolized:
 - § Protoporphyrin \rightarrow Bilirubin \rightarrow Conjugated in Liver \rightarrow Excreted in Bile \rightarrow Faeces





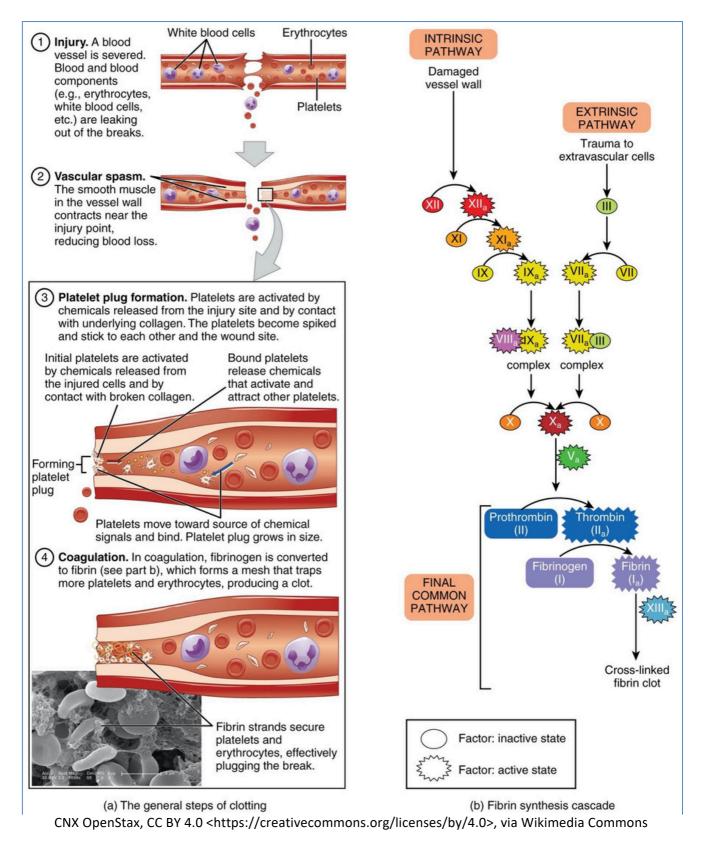
HAEMOSTASIS/HEMOSTASIS:

HAEMOSTASIS/HEMOSTASIS:



What is Haemostasis?

- Literally means "Blood Halting"; le: Stopping Bleeding
- When a blood vessel is broken, Haemostasis is responsible for 'plugging' the hole
- o Without Haemostasis, we would 'bleed-out' from even the smallest cuts
 - The Haemostatic Response is Fast, Localised & Finely Regulated 0 0 Involves a chain reaction of 12 Blood Coagulation FACTORS (Procoagulants)
 - o Alsoun viewers standing factors (fifted s released by platelets and injured tissue cells
- Results in a stable 'Platelet Plug' (clot) at the site of injury



Important Components of Haemostasis:

- Endothelial Cells:

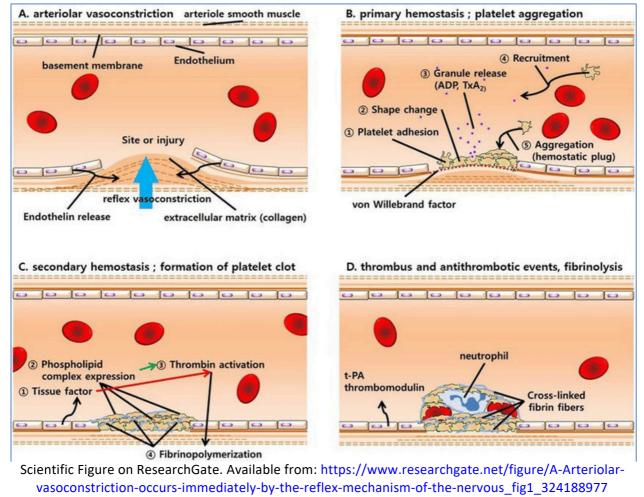
o = Simple Squamous Epithelium that Lines the blood vessels



- o (Plus Small amount of Smooth Muscle around outside)
- o Important For:

§ §

- § Barrier between intra/extra vascular tissues
 - Regulate/mediate inflammation facilitate movement of leukocytes
 - Leukocytes must be able to migrate from intra-extra vascular sites
- § Fluid Distribution can change permeability → Fluid (Plasma) can exit to Interstitial Space Angiogenesis:
 - Formation of new vessels
 - Or Vessel Repair
- o Role in Haemostasis:
 - **§** Promote Plug Formation & Coagulation when injured:
 - Pro-Platelet Effects:
 - 0 Exposure of SubEndothelial Collagen
 - o Produce Von Willebrand Factor (the glue)
 - Pro-Coagulant Effects:
 - o Exposure of Tissue Factor ightarrow Triggers Extrinsic P-way of Coagulation Cascade
 - Anti-Fibrinolytic Effects: (pro-fibrin deposition) o Blocks the Tissue Plasminogen Activator
 - **§** Inhibits Plug Formation & Coagulation when intact:
 - Anti-Platelet Effects:
 - o Nitric Oxide
 - Anti-Coagulant Effects:
 - o Heparin
 - o & Thrombomodulin
 - Fibrinolytic Effects:
 - o Tissue Plasminogen Activator

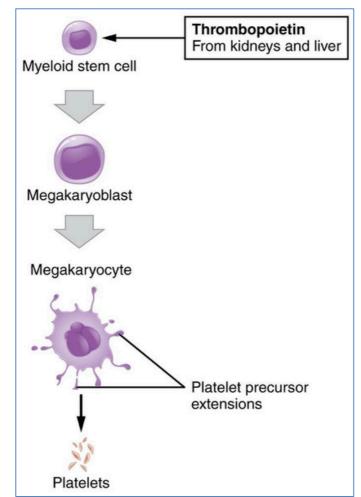


- Platelets:

o Produced in bone marrow: From Megakaryocytes



- § Fragment into many platelets
- § 4000 platelets/megakaryocyte
- o Production Stimulated by Thrombopoietin (produced by Liver & Kidneys)
- 0 Functions:
 - § Central role in Haemostasis
 - § Form platelet-plugs at vascular injury



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- Coagulation Factors (Cascade):



o Role: To stabilise primary platelet plug § Protects plug from being washed away by flowing blood

Dependant on Coagulation Factors

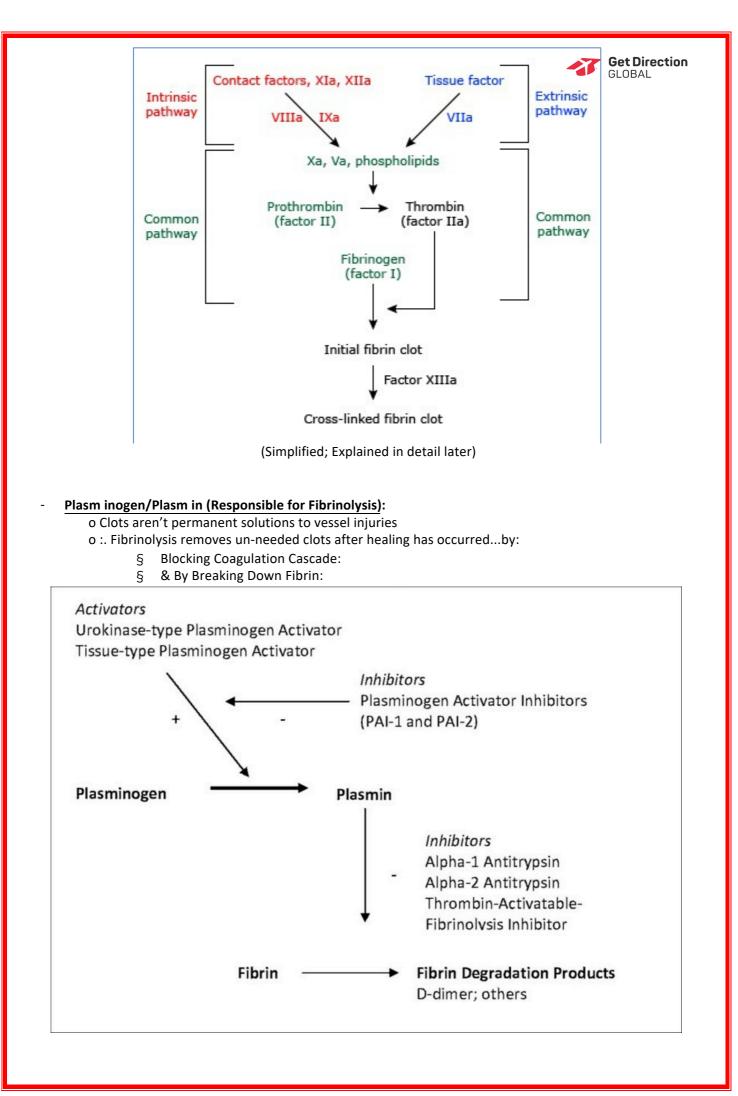
§ Mainly produced in liver; (Some severe liver diseases → clotting deficiencies) o Has an Intrinsic, Extrinsic, & Common Pathway

§ (See simplified diagram below; explained in more detail later)

Clotting Factors					
Factor number	Name	Type of molecule	Source	Pathway(s)	
I	Fibrinogen	Plasma protein	Liver	Common; converted into fibrin	
11	Prothrombin	Plasma protein	Liver*	Common; converted into thrombin	
III	Tissue thromboplastin or tissue factor	Lipoprotein mixture	Damaged cells and platelets	Extrinsic	
IV	Calcium ions	Inorganic ions in plasma	Diet, platelets, bone matrix	Entire process	
V	Proaccelerin	Plasma protein	Liver, platelets	Extrinsic and intrinsic	
VI	Not used	Not used	Not used	Not used	
VII	Proconvertin	Plasma protein	Liver *	Extrinsic	
VIII	Antihemolytic factor A	Plasma protein factor	Platelets and endothelial cells	Intrinsic; deficiency results in hemophilia A	
IX	Antihemolytic factor B (plasma thromboplastin component)	Plasma protein	Liver*	Intrinsic; deficiency results in hemophilia B	
x	Stuart-Prower factor (thrombokinase)	Protein	Liver*	Extrinsic and intrinsic	
XI	Antihemolytic factor C (plasma thromboplastin antecedent)	Plasma protein	Liver	Intrinsic; deficiency results in hemophilia C	
XII	Hageman factor	Plasma protein	Liver	Intrinsic; initiates clotting in vitro also activates plasmin	
XIII	Fibrin-stabilizing factor	Plasma protein	Liver, platelets	Stabilizes fibrin; slows fibrinolysis	

Table 18.1 *Vitamin K required.

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3 PHASES OF HAEMOSTASIS:



PHASE 1- PRIMARY HAEMOSTASIS:

a) Vascular Spasms:

- o Vasoconstriction: The immediate response to vessel damage
- 0 Triggered by:
 - § Local Neural Pain-Reflexes
 - § Chemicals released by: Endothelial Cells & Platelets
 - § Direct Smooth Muscle Injury
- o Significantly reduces blood loss→ allows time for Platelet-Plug Formation & Clotting
- o Most effective in smaller vessels

b) Primary Platelet Plug Formation:

- o Platelets form a 'plug' \rightarrow Temporarily seals the break in vessel wall
- o Platelets normally flow smoothly through an undamaged vessel HOWEVER....
- o When vessel is damaged \rightarrow **Sub-Endothelial Collagen** is exposed....
 - § Platelets (+ Von Willebrand Factor [glue]) adhere strongly to the Collagen Fibres...
 - Platelets Activate \rightarrow Conformational Change \rightarrow
 - o Swell
 - o Form Spiked Processes
 - o Become 'Sticky'
 - → Primary Platelet-Plug 'Sandwich':

Surface Glycoproteins on Platelets Von Willebrand Factor Sub-Endothelial Collagen

c) Platelet Aggregation:

§

§

o Once attached, Platelets \rightarrow Activated \rightarrow *Release Several Chemicals:*

(Platelet Activation & Secretion Enhanced by Thrombin)

- § Serotonin: Vasoconstrictor
 - ADP: Potent Platelet-Aggregating Agent
 - Calcium (Factor IV): A cofactor that Activates other Inactive Pro-Coagulation Factors
- § Thromboxane A2:
- :. Important in Coagulation Vasoconstrictor
 - Potont Platolot-Aggrog

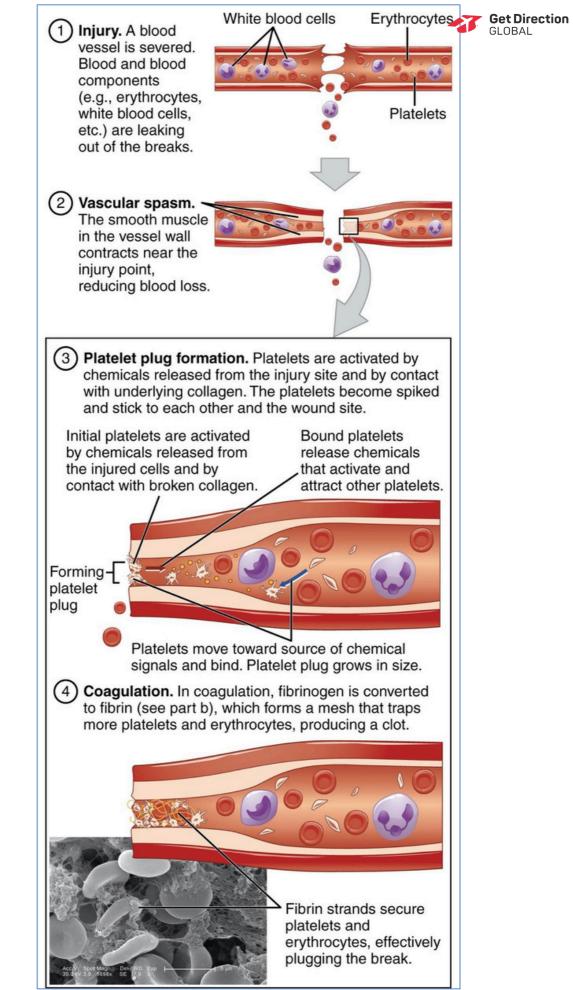
Potent Platelet-Aggregating Agent

o Initiates a Positive Feedback Cycle \rightarrow Activates & Attracts more & more Platelets

§ Within 1min, a platelet plug is built \rightarrow further reduces blood loss

d) Platelet-Plug Localisation:

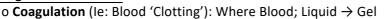
- O Prostacyclin:
 - § A Prostaglandin Produced by Intact Endothelial Cells
 - § A Strong Inhibitor of Platelet Aggregation



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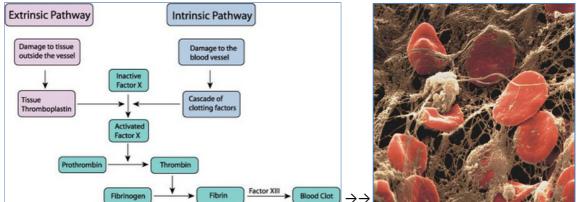
PHASE 2- SECONDARY HAEMOSTASIS:

a) Coagulation Cascade:





- - = Series of enzymatic conversions of *Inactive* \rightarrow *Active Coagulation Factors* ξ
- **Intrinsic Pathway:** 0
 - →Triggered by Exposed Sub-Endothelial Collagen δ
 - All factors needed for clotting are in the blood δ
- **Extrinsic Pathway:** 0
 - →Triggered by Exposed Tissue Factor (Factor III) §



o Common Pathway:

Both Pathways eventually lead to Activation of Factor-X δ

- **1-** Activated Factor-X combines with other factors \rightarrow
- 2- Prothrombin Activator is formed...
- **3-** Prothrombin Activator; converts the plasma-protein: Prothrombin → Thrombin

b) Fibrin Deposition:

- o 4- Thrombin Catalyses Conversion & Deposition of Fibrinogen→Fibrin
 - Also +Ve Feedback on Coagulation Cascade (Amplification of Prothrombin Activation)
- o 5- Fibrin Mesh \rightarrow + Active Factor-XIII \rightarrow Stabilises the Platelet-Plug \rightarrow Seals the hole
 - Primary Platelet Plug + Mesh → Secondary Platelet Plug δ
- c) Regulation:
 - **O ProCoagulants (Clotting Factors):**
 - Factors enhancing clot-formation (Factors I XIII) ξ
 - Most are plasma proteins (inactive) made by the liver §
 - § These factors Dominate in Damaged-Vessels
 - AntiCoagulants: 0
 - Factors inhibiting clot-formation ξ
 - These factors Dominate in Undamaged-Vessels δ
 - d) Coagulation Localisation:

δ

Activation of Coagulation Factors is Restricted to Sites of Exposed Phospholipids: 0

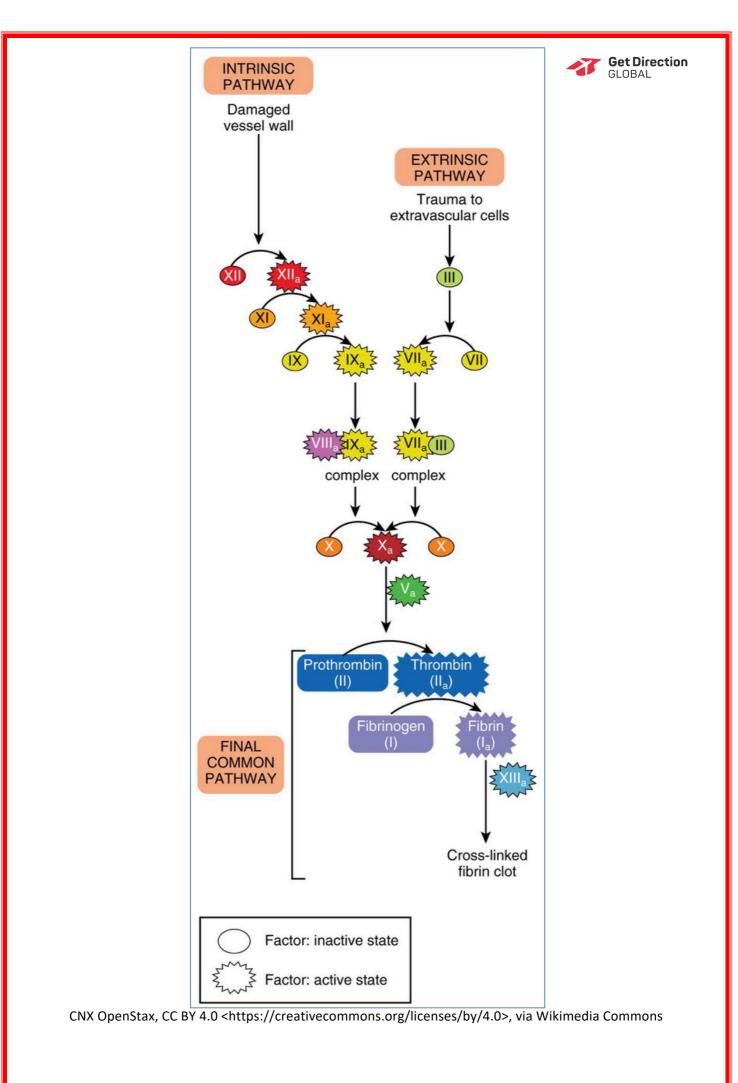
- Ie: Phospholipids on platelet membranes δ
- Platelet Phospholipids are exposed by Platelet-Activation ξ
- Anticoagulants: See Above 0

Tissue Factor Pathway Inhibitor:

- (Inhibits Extrinsic Pathway)
- → Inactivates Factor-Xa
- → Inhibits [Factor-VIIa Tissue Factor Complex]
- Thrombomodulin: ξ
 - \rightarrow Blocks Coagulation Cascade
 - → Binds Thrombin Fibrinogen can't convert to Fibrin
 - $o \rightarrow$ Then Activates Protein-C
- ş **Protein C & Protein S:**
 - →Combine to Inactivate Factor-Va & Factor-VIIIa

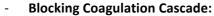
Antithrombin (+ Heparin):

- \rightarrow Inhibits Thrombin
- →Inhibits Factor-Xa & Factor-XIa



PHASE 3- FIBRINOLYSIS:

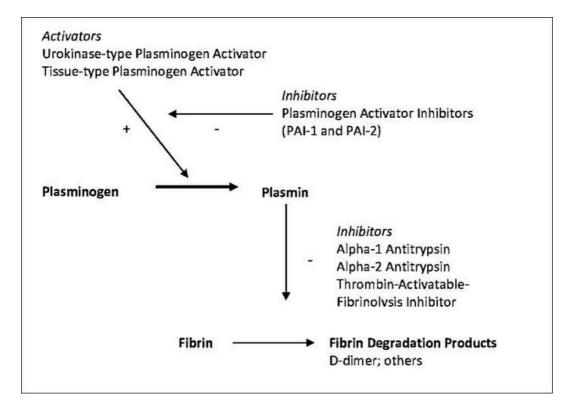
- Clots aren't permanent solutions to vessel injuries
- :. Fibrinolysis removes un-needed clots after healing has occurred...by:



- o Thrombomodulin:
 - § Blocks Thrombin from activating Fibrinogen :. No Fibrin Deposition
- <u>& By Breaking Down Fibrin:</u>

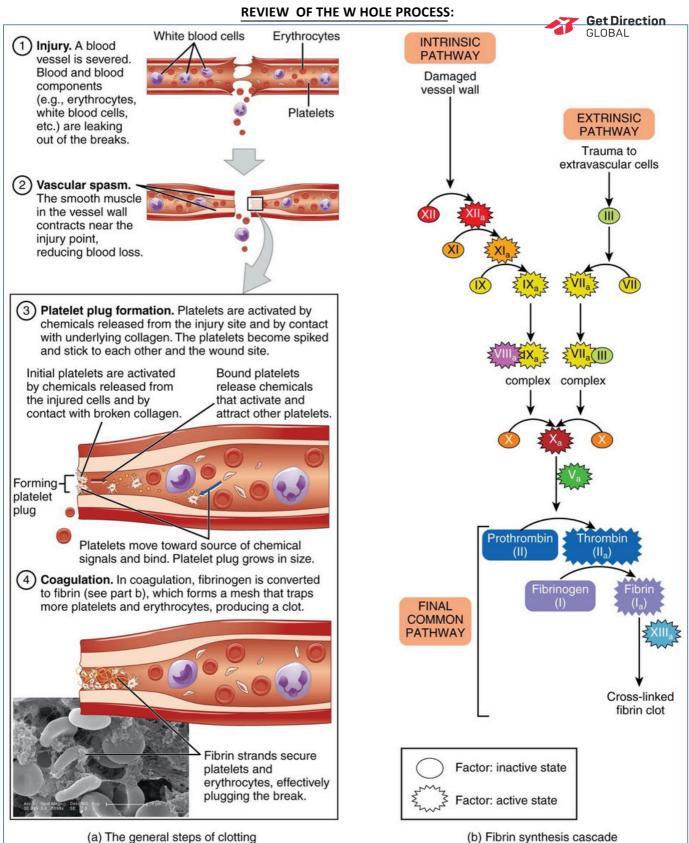
• Via a Fibrin-Digesting Enzyme: Plasmin → Degrades fibrin & :. The clot as well

- § Plasmin: Produced when *Plasminogen* is activated
- § Plasminogen is initially incorporated into a forming clot \rightarrow Remains inactive until clot forms
- § Plasminogen Activation: (once clot is formed)
 - Endothelial Cells: secrete Tissue Plasminogen Activator (tPA)
 - Activated Factor XII: also Activates Plasminogen
 - Thrombin: also Activates Plasminogen
- **O** Results in Fibrin Degradation Products (FDP's):
 - § Eg: D-Dimer
 - § Can be measured in the blood
 - § Tested to see whether there has been excessive blood clotting



Get Direction

GLOBAL



(b) Fibrin synthesis cascade

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THE ROLE OF BLOOD IN THE IMMUNE SYSTEM

THE ROLE OF BLOOD IN THE IMMUNE SYSTEM

Get Direction

(Basic Summary; More Detail in our Immunology/Rheumatology Subject)

The Immune System:

- The immune system is more a *functional system rather than an anatomical or organ-based* system
- Consists of:
 - o a diverse array of molecules
 - o -and trillions of immune cells (especially lymphocytes)
 - o These molecules & immune cells inhabit lymphoid tissues & circulate in body fluids

- Functions to protect the body from:

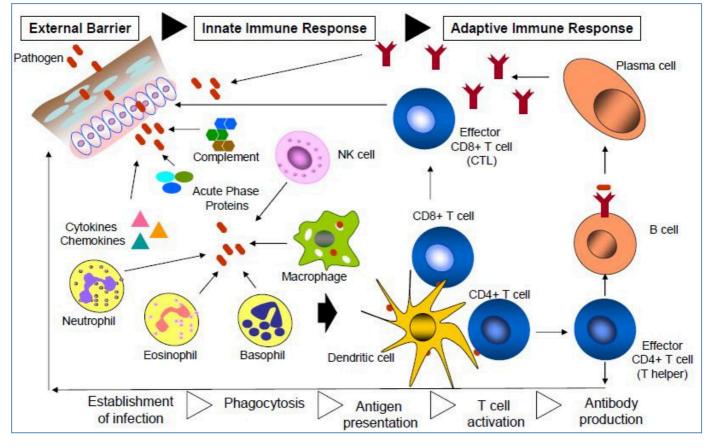
- o Most infectious microorganisms
- o Cancer cells
- o Transplanted organs
- o Grafts
- o Any other foreign material
- Can act directly by cell attack
- Can act indirectly by releasing mobilising chemicals & antibody molecules

Terminology:

- Pathogen: microorganism that is able to cause disease
- Pathogenicity: the ability of a microorganism to cause disease
- Virulence: the degree of pathogenicity
- **Opportunistic pathogens:** bacteria which cause disease in a compromised host
- Normal flora: harmless bacteria consistently associated with the host
- Infection: when an organism (Incl: Normal flora) breaches a body surface
 - 0 Note: Infection Doesn't necessarily lead to disease; Depends on:
 - § Route of entry
 - § Number of pathogens
 - § Immune status of host

Basic Diagram of the Immune System:

- Note that there is an External Barrier, An Innate Immune Response & an Adaptive Immune Response



INNATE VS ADAPTIVE IMMUNE SYSTEM

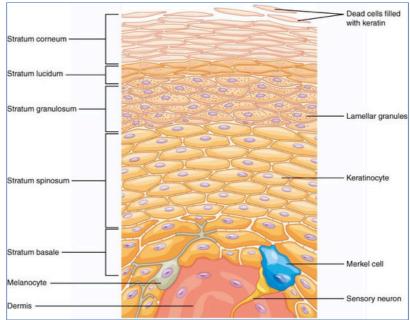


INNATE (NON-SPECIFIC) IMMUNE SYSTEM:

- Features:
 - 0 O Already in place at birth
 - o Relspot works sworth in an and utes
- Role:
 - o Protects the body from all foreign substances
 - 0 Are often sufficient to ward off invading pathogens single-handedly
 - o Essentially, it exists to reduce the workload of the adaptive system

- 1st Line of Defence: Surface Barriers:

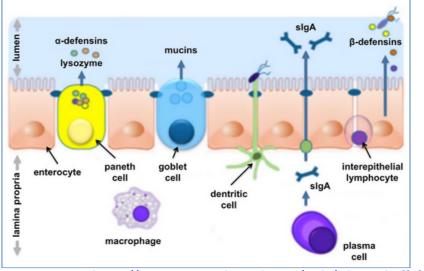
- 0 Role: Prevents Entry of Pathogen
 - § Skin
 - Stratified
 - Heavily keratinised



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§ Mucous membranes

- Lysozyme: enzyme found in saliva & tears →destroy bacteria
- Sticky Mucus: in digestive & respiratory tracts →traps bacteria
- Cilia nasal & respiratory →sweep bacteria into mouth→swallowed
- Acid secretion: skin, vagina, stomach →kills microbes



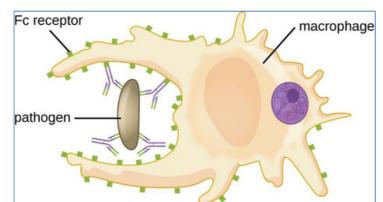
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2ndLine of Defence: Internal Defences:

0 Role: Prevents Spread of Pathogen If Surface Barriers are Breached

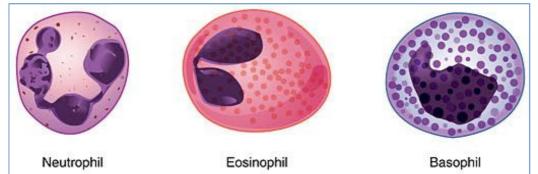


§ Macrophages – Large phagocytic cells



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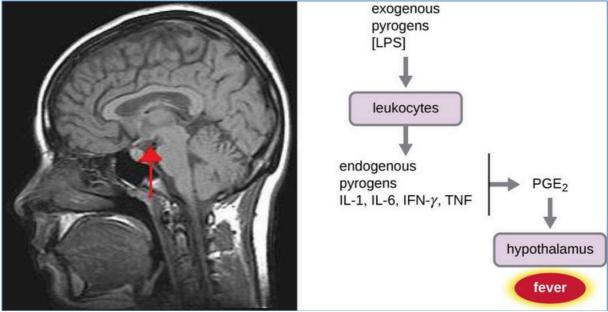
- § Granulocytes possess cytoplasmic granules
 - **Neutrophils** they release toxic chemicals into the extracellular fluid, killing both the target and themselves (kamikaze)
 - Eosinophils another type of white blood cell kill parasitic worms Basophils – important in allergic reactions



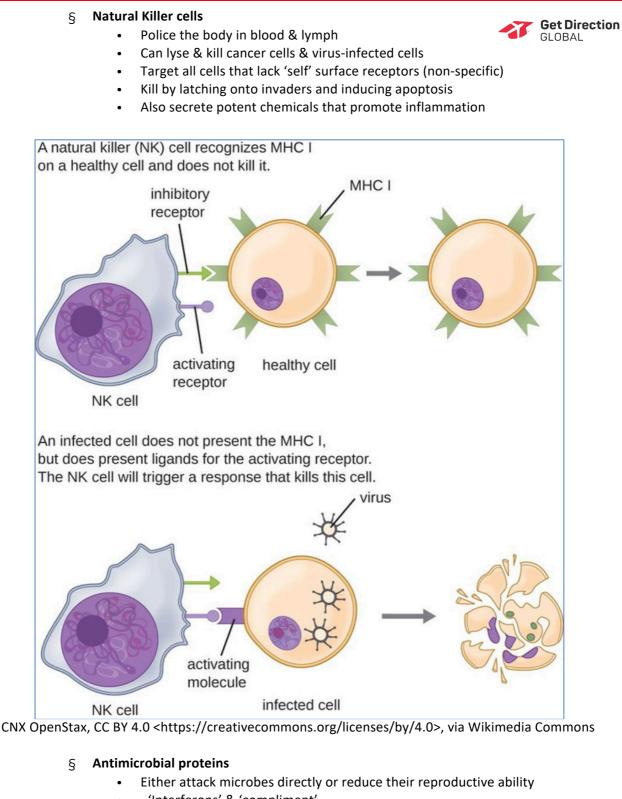
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§ Fever

- When exposed to foreigners, leukocytes & macrophages secrete pyrogens \rightarrow
- increases the body's thermostat
- Increases metabolic rate, kills microbes, speeds up repair



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- –'Interferons' & 'compliment'
- § Inflammation
 - In response to physical trauma/intense heat/bad chemicals/infection
 - Prevents spread of damaging agents to nearby tissue
 - Disposes of cell debris & pathogens
 - Sets stage for repair
 - Characterised by heat, redness, pain & swelling

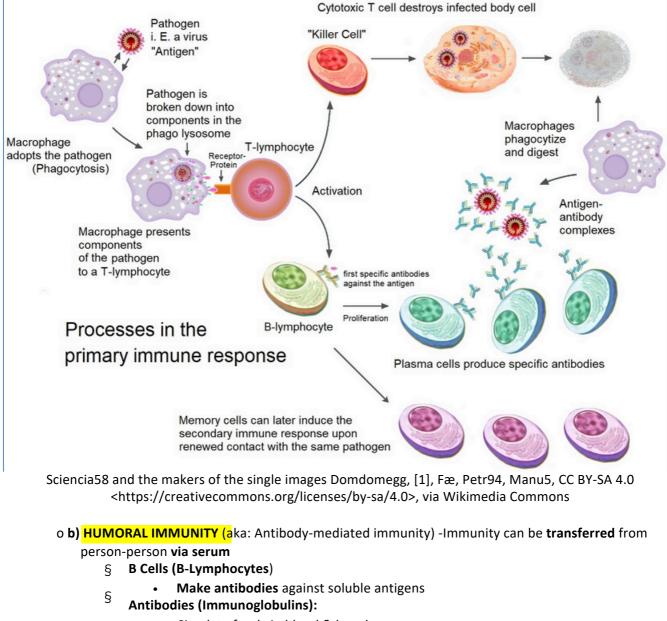
ADAPTIVE (SPECIFIC)IMMUNE SYSTEM:

- Think of the Adaptive Immune System as "The body's elite special forces" with high-term weapons
- Features:
 - 0 >It is Specific: recognises particular pathogens/antigens
 - o >It is Systemic: immunity isn't restricted to initial infection site
 - o >It has Memory Adaptive responses are called into action as 'reinforcements'
- Roles:
 - o Tremendously amplifies the inflammatory response
 - o Attack specific foreign substances Incl: Antigens and abnormal body cells
 - o mounts stronger attacks on previously encountered pathogens

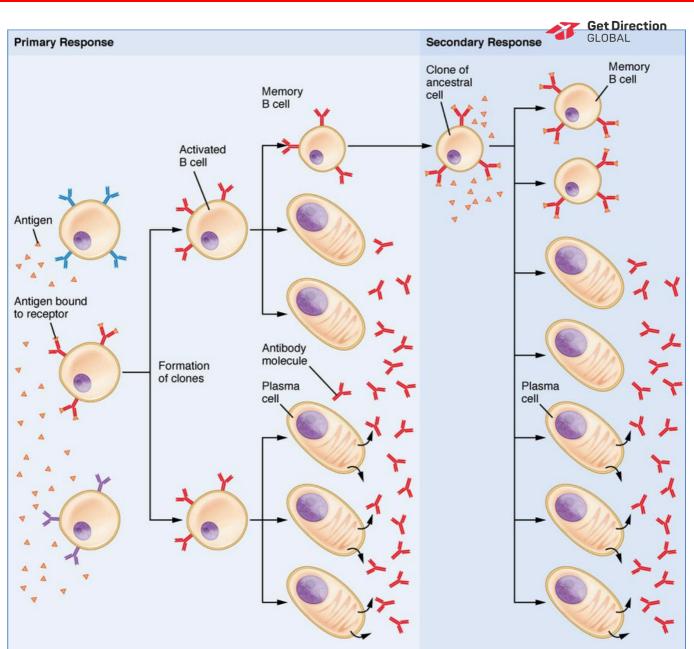
The body's 3rd line of defence (Humoral & Cellular Immunity):

o a) CELLULAR IMMUNITY:

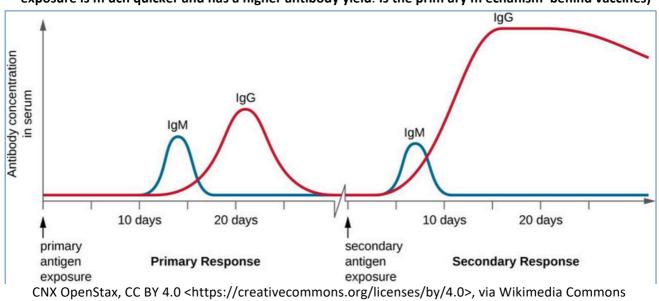
- § Antigen causes activation of macrophages, NK-cells, T-lymphocytes & cytokines
 - Macrophages & NK-Cells destroy intracellular pathogens
 - T Cells (T-Lymphocytes) induce apoptosis of body cells with viruses/intracellular
 - bacteria/cancerous traits
 Cytokines are secreted enhance inflammatory response and/or activate other lymphocytes/macrophages
- § Activated cells **destroy** infected/foreign cells



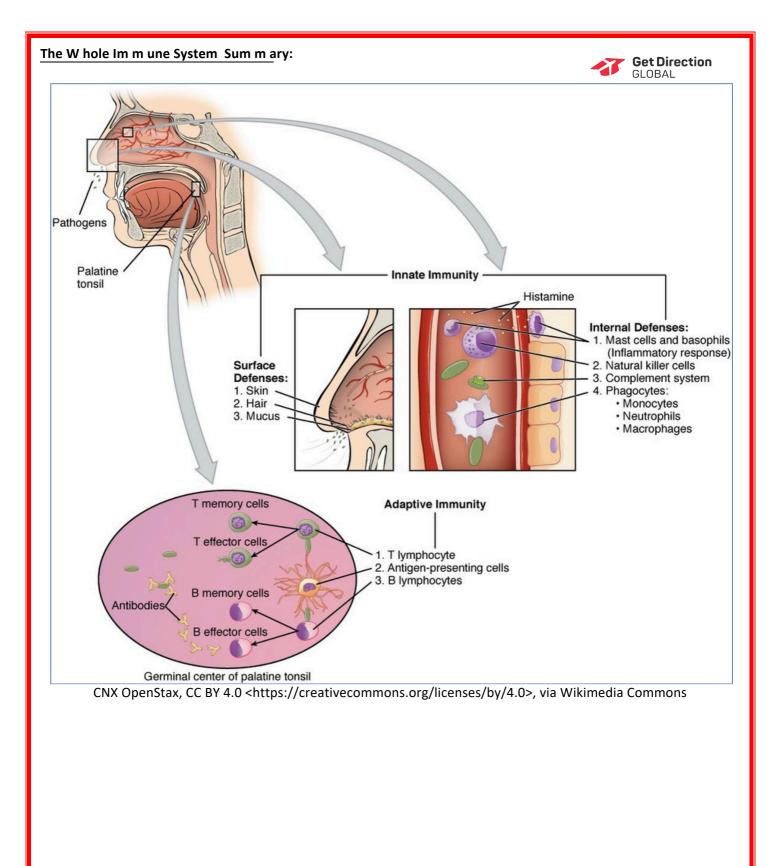
- Circulate freely in blood & lymph
- Neutralises bacteria/toxins/& viruses →marks for destruction by phagocytes or com plim ent



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(Note: Once the body has Memory B-Cells from the first immune response, the immune reaction to the second exposure is m uch quicker and has a higher antibody yield. Is the prim ary m echanism behind vaccines)





BLOOD GROUPS, TRANSFUSION & BLOOD PRODUCTS.

BLOOD GROUPS, TRANSFUSION & BLOOD PRODUCTS.



BLOOD GROUP ANTIGENS:

- There are ≈400 known RBC Antigens
- We are only concerned with 2 categories; the ABO & Rh Antigens
- 1- 'ABO' Blood Group Antigens:

o Sugar Chains emanating from the RBC membrane o Determines the 'A/B/AB/O' blood types

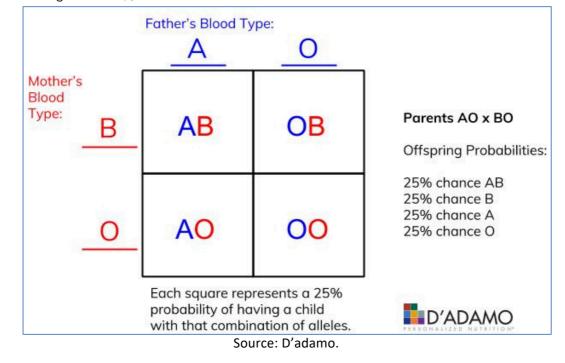
- A-Antigen § B-
- § Antigen A & B-
 - Antigens H-
- § ξ Antigen (O-Type)

	Blood Type			
	А	В	AB	0
Red blood cell type		A B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B	AB	
lsohemag- glutinins	Anti-B	Anti-A	None	Anti-B
Antigens on red blood cell	A antigen	♦ B antigen	● ♦ A and B antigens	None

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0 Exist due to 3 allelic genes (A, B & O)

- A & B alleles can show Codominance (AB-Type) §
- § A & B alleles are Dominant over the 'O' allele
- Homozygous 'OO' is dominant over A or B alleles ξ

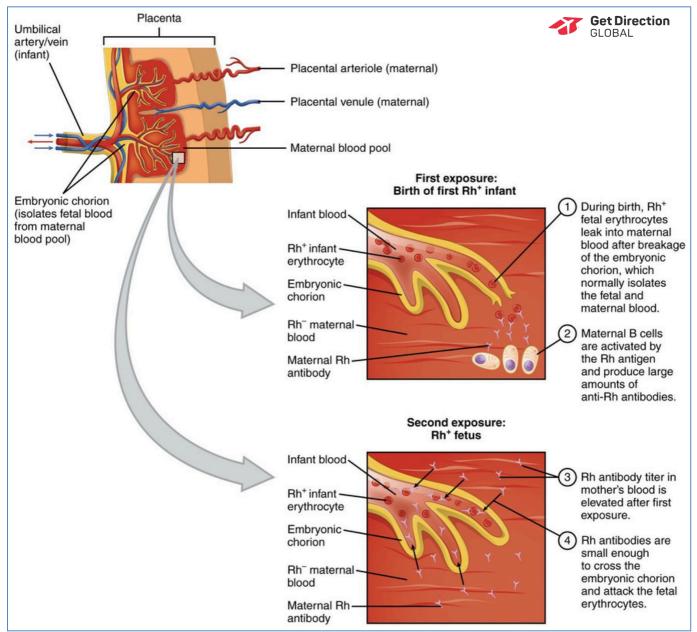


2- 'Rh' (Rhesus/Rh-D) Blood Group Antigens:



- o Membrane-Bound protein on RBC
- o Presence/Absence of the Rh'D'-Gene determines +ve/-ve blood type
 - § Presence of $RhD \rightarrow Positive$
 - § Absence of RhD \rightarrow Negative
- **O** Relevance in Transfusions:
 - § Rh-Positive Patients: Can receive either Rh-Positive OR Rh-Negative Blood
 - S Rh-Negative Patients: Should ONLY receive Rh-Negative Blood (except in extreme emergencies and Rh-Negative blood is unavailable)
- **O** Relevance in Pregnancy:
 - § If the mother is Rh-Negative, but the fetus is (potentially) Rh-Positive \rightarrow
 - \rightarrow 'Rh-Incompatibility'
 - (If father is Rh-Positive or father's Rh-status is unknown)
 - § Normally, maternal and fetal blood don't mix, but sometimes a **sensitizing event** can occur, causing fetal blood to contact maternal blood
 - Eg: Abdominal trauma during pregnancy
 - Eg: Amniocentesis
 - Eg: Miscarriage
 - Eg: Ectopic pregnancy
 - Eg: Chorionic villus sampling
 - Eg: Bleeding during pregnancy
 - § If Rh-Negative mother gets sensitized to Rh-Positive Fetus \rightarrow
 - \rightarrow Mother's immune system produces **Rh-Antibodies**
 - → Rh-Antibodies Cross the placenta
 - \rightarrow Enter fetal bloodstream \rightarrow Attack fetal RBC's \rightarrow Hemolytic Anemia
 - § **Note:** You can prevent an Rh-Negative mother from being sensitized by administering Rh-Immunoglobulin (aka: Anti-D-Antibodies) at strategic times during the pregnancy

Mother's Rh factor	Father's Rh factor	Baby's Rh factor	Precautions
Rh positive	Rh positive	Rh positive	None
Rh negative	Rh negative	Rh negative	None
Rh positive	Rh negative	Could be Rh positive or Rh negative	None
Rh negative	Rh positive	Could be Rh positive or Rh negative	Rh immune globulin injections



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BLOOD GROUP ANTIBODIES:

- Anti-A / Anti-B Antibodies:

O Are Naturally-Occurring Antibodies:

- § Ie: Present at birth
- § Ie: Do not require an immune-sensitizing event

o Are Immunoglobulins of type:

§ IgM type antibodies

${\rm o}$ Are Present In $\it plasma$ of people who lack the corresponding Antigen

- § Eg: A-type individual will have 'Anti-B' Antibodies (against B-Antigens)
- § Eg: B-Type individual will have 'Anti-A' Antibodies (against A-Antigens)
- § Eg: O-type individual will have 'Anti-A' & 'Anti-B' Antibodies

${\rm o}$ If Antibodies contact their respective Antigen, A Haemolytic Reaction may occur

O Clinical significance:

§ Determines a patient's ABO-compatibility when receiving transfusions

	Blood Type			
	A	В	AB	0
Red Blood Cell Type		A B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B	AB	
Antibodies in Plasma	Anti-B	Anti-A	None	Anti-A and Anti-B
Antigens in Red blood Cell	A antigen	∲ B antigen	A and B antigens	None
Blood Types Compatible in an Emergency	A, O	B, O	A, B, AB, O (AB ⁺ is the universal recipient)	O (O is the universal donor)

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Anti-D Antibodies:

o Are Immune Antibodies:

- § Ie: Produced following an immune-sensitizing event
 - Eg: Via transfusion ...or
 - Eg: Trans-Placental Passage

o Are Immunoglobulins of type:

- § IgG type antibodies
- § Note: Only IgG-Ab's are capable of trans-placental passage

o Most Important IgG = the 'Rh-Antibody' (Anti-D)

- **O** Clinical Significance:
 - § Determines a foetus' risk of Haemolytic Disease of the Newborn
 - § Determines a patient's absolute ability to receive a Rh-Positive transfusion

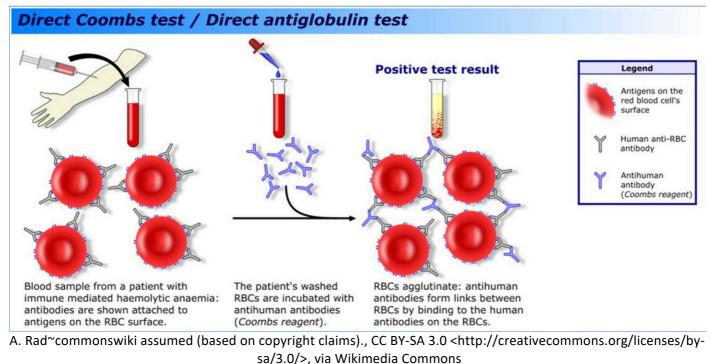


ANTIGLOBULIN TEST (COOMB'S TEST):

- 2 Clinical Blood Tests – Direct & Indirect

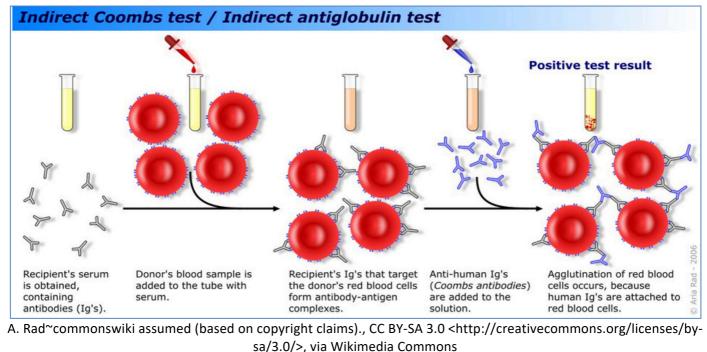


- 0 Direct (DAT): ξ Deter
 - Detect if antibodies or complement have bound to RBC surface antigens in vivo
 - § Used clinically when immune-mediated hemolytic anemia (antibody-mediated destruction of
 - § RBCs) is suspected A Positive Result → means an immune mechanism is attacking the patient's RBC's



0 Indirect (IDAT):

- § Detects antibodies against RBCs present in the patient's serum
- § Serum is extracted from the blood, and is incubated with RBCs of known antigenicity
- § If agglutination occurs, the indirect Coombs test is positive
- § It is used to detect very low concentrations of antibodies present in a patient's
- _δ plasm a/serum prior to a blood transfusion
- In antenatal care, the IAT is used to screen pregnant women for antibodies that may cause haemolytic disease of the newborn



BLOOD DONATION PROCESS:

1- Blood Donation:





- 0 Donors carefully selected:
 - § Healthy
 - § 18-65yrs
 - § Minimum Hb Level (not anaemic)
 - § No infection
 - § No Meds/Drugs
- o Frequency: 2-3times/year
- o Volume: 450mL (A Pint)

2- Collection:

0 0 Can be stored for 5-6 weeks

o Watto Aarchiro By Clamas:

- § Citric Acid
- § Na
- § Sodium Phosphate (NaH2PO4)
- o Additive Solution:
 - § Adenine for ATP production
 - § Glucose to feed Glycolysis
 - § Saline maintain isotonic

o Bags are refrigerated – NOT FROZEN – Freezing would crystalize cells \rightarrow lysis

3- Lab Screening:

- o HIV
- O Hep B/C
- o HTLV (Leukaemia Virus)
- o CMV (Cytomegalovirus)
- o Syphilis

4- Serology Tests:

- O ABO Typing:
 - § By Addition of Antibodies 'A' & 'B' to blood sample
 - If Type-A: Reacts if 'A-Antibodies' added
 - If Type-B: Reacts if 'B-Antibodies' added
 - If Type-AB: Reacts if 'A' or 'B-Antibodies' added
 - If Type-O: No reaction with addition of either 'A'/'B'
 - § Reaction = Agglutination of RBCs (Not Clotting)
- 0 **Rh-D Typing:**
 - § By Addition of Antibody-'D' to blood sample
 - If Positive: Agglutination Reaction
 - If Negative: No Reaction
 - Reaction = Agglutination of RBCs (Not Clotting)
- § Reaction o Rh C & E Typing
- o Screening for serum RBC Antibodies

5- Quality Assurance Tests:

- o Whole Blood Volume
- o RBC Concentrate (Packed Cell Volume)
- 0 Platelet Concentrate
- o Fresh Frozen Plasma Volume
 - § Factor VIII Concentration
- O Sterility Testing
- 6- Pre-Transfusion Tests:
 - O Recipient's Blood is Typed
 - o Cross-Matching:
 - § Testing Donor-RBC's against serum of patient
 - § Ie: Mixing the 2 blood samples (recipient & donor) check for reaction
 - o To ensure donor-recipient compatibility
 - o Still a slight possibility of mismatch even between 'compatible' patients (due to other RBC Antigens)

Blood Products:



--Whole Blood: 0 Cells/Platelets

o Plasma

- 0 Reason For Transfusion:
 - § Acute Blood Loss
- Packed Red Blood Cells:
 - o RBC's
 - 0 Reasons for Transfusion of RBCs:
 - § Mainly to Quickly improve O2 Delivery to Tissues
 - Expect a rise of 10g/L of Haemoglobin Per Unit of Blood (450mL)
 - Egs of Eligible Recipients:
 - Acute Blood Loss
 - Preoperative
 - Anaemias
 - Renal failure
 - Bone Marrow Failure
 - Septicaemia
 - Haemolytic Disease of the Newborn

Granulocyte Concentrates:

o White Blood Cells (leukocytes)

0 Reason For Transfusion:

- § Supportive Therapy for Neutropenia (Low White Cell Count)
 - Eg: Pts following radiotherapy
- Platelet Concentrate:

§

- o Platelets
- O Reasons For Transfusion:
 - § Severe Thrombocytopenia
 - § Severe Bone-Marrow Failure (Ie: Acute Leukaemia)
 - § Myelotoxic Chemotherapy

--Plasma:

- 0 Blood proteins
- 0 Clotting Factors
- 0 Reasons For Transfusion:
 - § Replacement of Coagulation Factors
 - § Eg: Haemophilia & other Bleeding Disorders

- Cryoprecipitate:

- O Clotting Factors
- o Fibrinogen

ξ

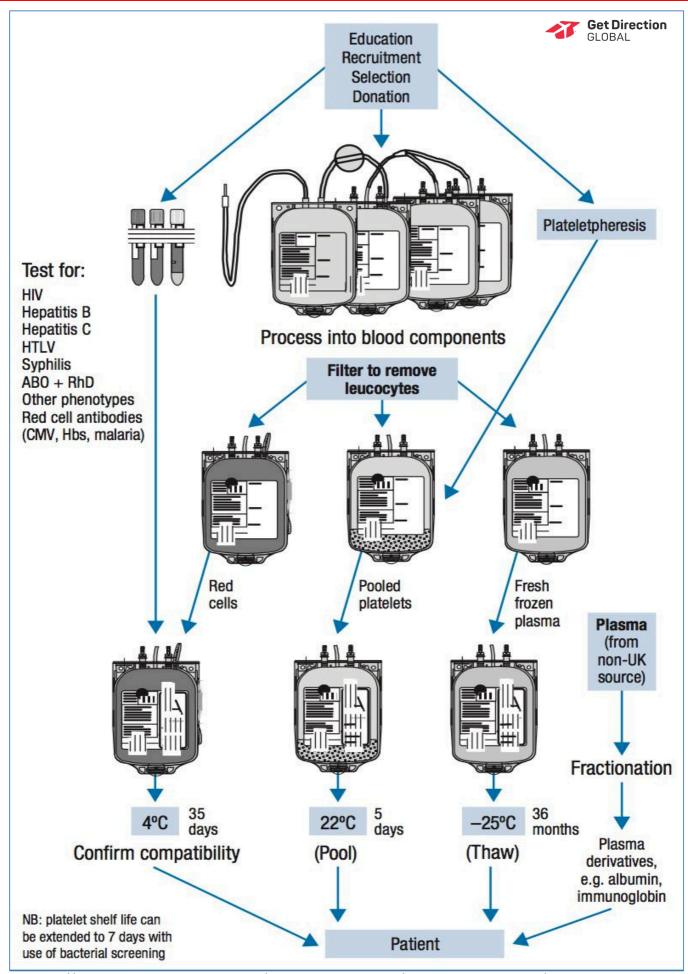
- 0 Reasons For Transfusion:
 - § Used To Control Clotting Disorders
 - § Factor VIII & Fibrinogen:
 - Treatment of Haemophilia

Factor IX & Prothrombin:

- Treatment of Factor IX Deficiency
- Treatment of Christmas Disease

- Cryosupernatant:

- o Albumin
- o Immunoglobulins
- **O** Reasons For Transfusion:
 - § Used as 'Volume Expanders' in Hypovolemic Shock
 - § Albumin:
 - Volume Expander
 - To Treat Hypoalbuminaemia Eg: Burns/Renal Patients
 - § Immunoglobulins:
 - Treatment of Immunocompromised Patients



https://www.transfusionguidelines.org/transfusion-handbook/3-providing-safe-blood/3-3-blood-products

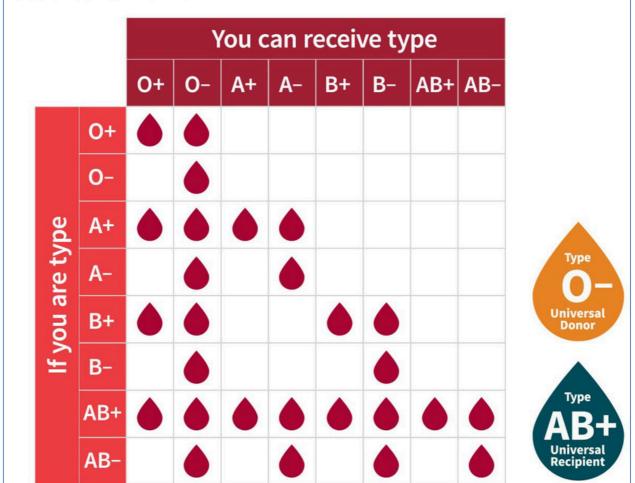
BLOOD TRANSFUSIONS:

- What is it?

- o Involves the infusion of blood from a donor to a recipient
- o Compatibility between Donor RBC Antigens & Recipient Plasma Antibodies Essential
- o If incompatible haemolytic reaction may occur
- Universal Donor:
 - o O-Negative
 - § No A or B Antigens
 - § No Rh-D Antigens
- Universal Recipient:
 - o AB-Positive
 - § No anti-A or anti-B Antibodies
 - § No anti-Rh-D Antibodies
- Group Specific Blood Vs Cross Matched Blood:
 - o Group Specific = Blood of any 'Type' (ABO,Rh) that's compatible with the Recipient (20mins)
 - o Cross Matched = Complex Pre-Transfusion Testing for Compatibility across all Blood Types (1hr)
- In Emergency Situations:
 - o In emergencies, there's often no time to do a blood group or do a full cross match, so O-Neg is given

Blood Type Compatibility

A blood type is a classification of blood based on the presence or absence of antigens on the surface of red blood cells. Human blood is divided into one of four main blood types: A, B, AB, and O, and is further divided into Rh+ or Rh–.

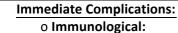


https://stanfordbloodcenter.org/donate-blood/blood-donation-facts/blood-types/0318-southbay-centerinfographics_compatibility-web/

www.getdirectionglobal.com



COMPLICATIONS OF BLOOD TRANSFUSION:





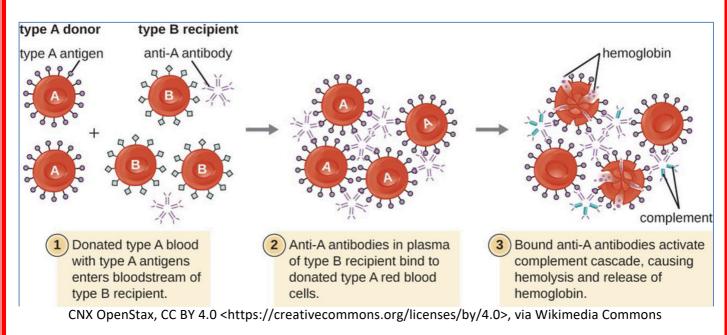
- § Haemolytic Reaction Fever, Tachycardia, Hypotension, Shock
 - Reaction → Intravascular Haemolysis
 - Ie: Rapid Destruction of RBCs → Reduced O2-Carrying Capacity
 - 0 Involving ABO Antibodies = Life threatening
 - 0 Involving Rh Antibodies = Less severe
 - Managed by Maintaining BP & Renal Perfusion (by giving Plasma & Diuretics)
 - § Pyrogenic Reaction Fever
 - Due antibodies formed after previous sensitisation (Transfusion/Pregnancy)
 - Allergic Reactions
 - Triggered by IgE Antibodies (covered more in 4th year)
 - May result in Anaphylactic Shock
- o Non-Immunological:

§

- § Bacterial Contamination
- § Circulatory Overload → Left Ventricular Failure
- § Hyperkalaemia Excess Blood K+
- § Clotting Abnormalities
- Delayed Complications:

o Immunological:

- **5** Delayed Hemolytic Reactions
- § Alloimmunisation development of antibodies in response to alloantigens (antigens derived
- § from a genetically dissimilar animal of the same species)
 Graft-Versus-Host-Disease Where immune cells in the transfused blood
 - **Graft-Versus-Host-Disease** Where immune cells in the transfused blood recognizes the recipient as "foreign" and mounts an immunologic attack
- o Non-Immunological:
 - § Infectious Disease Eg: HIV, Hep-B/C, Bacteria, Parasites
 - § Iron Overload accumulation of iron in the body Affects liver, heart & endocrine glands
 - Occurs in people who rely on Regular RBC Transfusion
 - Eg: Renal patients lack erythropoietin
 - Excessive transfusion \rightarrow Iron overload





ANAEMIAS

ANAEMIAS



General:

- Definition = "Decreased haemoglobin concentration in blood"
 - o May be Low Hb
 - o OR low Haematocrit/Packed Cell Volume
 - o Anaemia = generally less than 100g/L

Normal Hb Range:

- o (Normal Hb Concentration depends on age/sex/geographical location)
- o 13 16g/dl (male) (130-160g/L)
- o 11.5 16g/dl (Female) (115-160g/L)

Aetiologies:

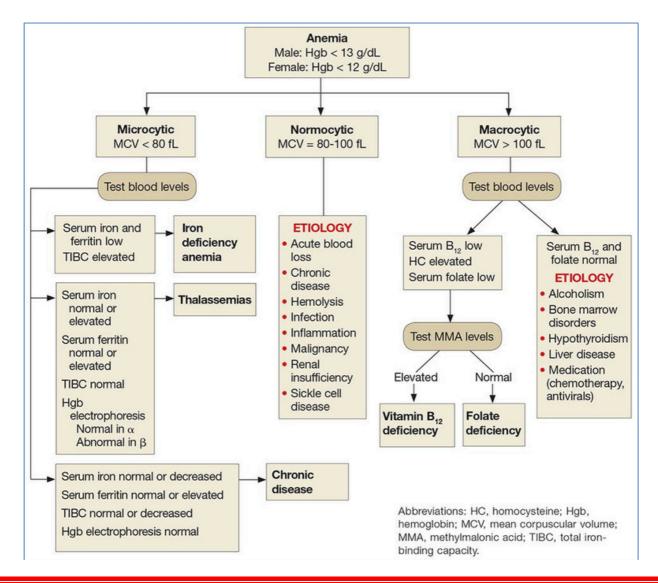
- Decreased Production (Fe/Folate/B12 Deficiency Incl: Pernicious/Chronic Disease/Aplastic)
- Blood Loss (Haemorrhage/Hookworm/Menorrhagia)
- Destruction/Abnormality of RBCs (Haemolytic/Microangiopathy/G6PD/Sickle/Thalassaemia/Spherocytosis)
- Spurious (Increased Plasma Volume Eg: Pregnancy/Fluid Overload)

M orphologies:

- Size Classifications:
 - o Microcytic: Small Reduced MCV
 - o Normocytic: Normal MCV
 - o Macrocytic: Large Increased MCV

- Staining/Colour:

- o Normal RBCs stain well (Normochromic)
- o Anaemic cells stain lightly (Hypochromic)



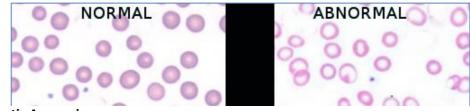
M icroscopy (Blood Film s):

Iron Deficiency Anaemia:

o Hypochromic RBCs - Increased Central Pallor o Microcytic

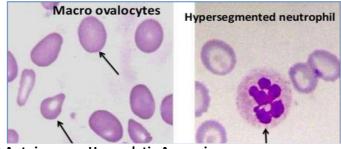


o Pencil Cells (RBCs with a single sharp edge)

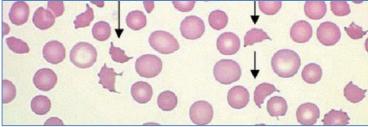


M egaloblastic Anaem ia:

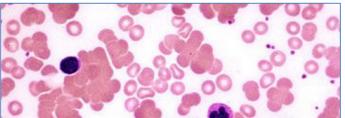
- o Oval Macrocytic RBCs
- o Hypersegmented Neutrophils
- o Normochromic



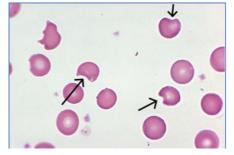
- Warm Antibody (IgG) Autoimmune Haemolytic Anaemia:
 - o Microspherocytes (Small, RBCs with No Central Pallor) o Evidence of Haemolysis (Reticulocytes, Nucleated RBCs, Schistocytes)



 Cold Antibody (IgM) Autoimmune Haemolytic Anaemia: o Agglutination of RBCs (Ugly clumping of) @ <200C o May agglutinate in peripheries @ cold temperatures →Raynaud's Phenomenon



- Oxidative Haemolysis (Eg: G6P Deficiency):
 - O (Affects cell fluidity, Hb Condenses)
 - o Bite Cells (RBCs) Macrophages take bites out of RBCs
 - § Note: an Indication for Splenectomy
 - o Blister Cells (RBCs)
 - o Irregularly contracted microspherocytes

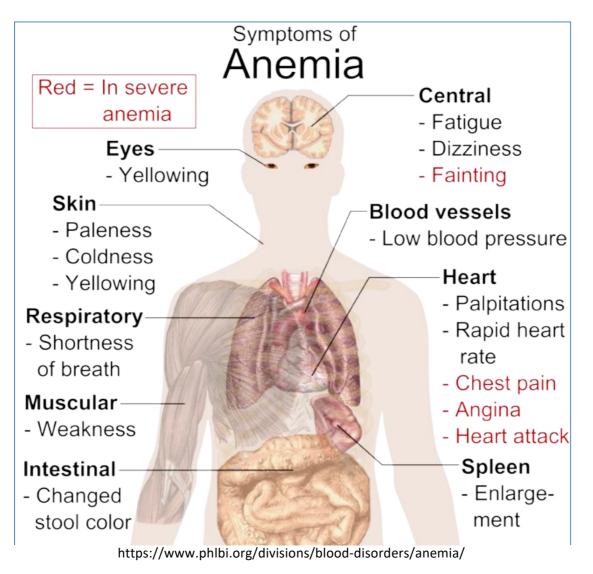


Clinical Features of Anaemia:

- May be Asymptomatic
- General Anaemia Symptoms:
 - 0 0 Eatigue, Headaches & Faintness
 - o Interentioeat Olymphication
 - Exertional Angina
- General Anaemia Signs:
 - o Pallor (Mucosal/Facial/Palmar Crease)
 - o Tachycardia
 - o Systolic Flow Murmur (Hyperdynamic Circulation)
 - o Cardiac Failure

Some Signs Specific to Different Types of Anaemia:

- 0 O Koilonychia (Spoon-shaped nails) Iron Deficiency
- o Jalosditie Iron / Baan Defititien Aynaemia o Splenomegaly Haemolytic Anaemia, Leukaemia, Lymphoma o Bone Pain/Deformities – Thalassemia Major, Myeloma
- o Leg Ulcers Sickle Cell



Investigations:

Mean Cell Haemoglobin Concentration (MCHC):



- o The average concentration of haemoglobin in a given volume of blood
- o Derived from the measurement of haemoglobin and the haematocrit
 - § Haemoglobin value = amount of haemoglobin in a volume of blood while the haematocrit is the ratio of the volume of red cells to the volume of whole blood) The normal range for the MCHC is 32 - 36%

- Mean Cell Haemoglobin (MCH):

- o The average amount of haemoglobin in the average RBC
- o Derived from the measurement of haemoglobin and the red cell count
 - § The haemoglobin value = amount of haemoglobin in a volume of blood
 - § The red cell count = number of red blood cells in a volume of blood)
- o The normal range for the MCH is 27 32 picograms

- Mean Cell Volume (MCV):

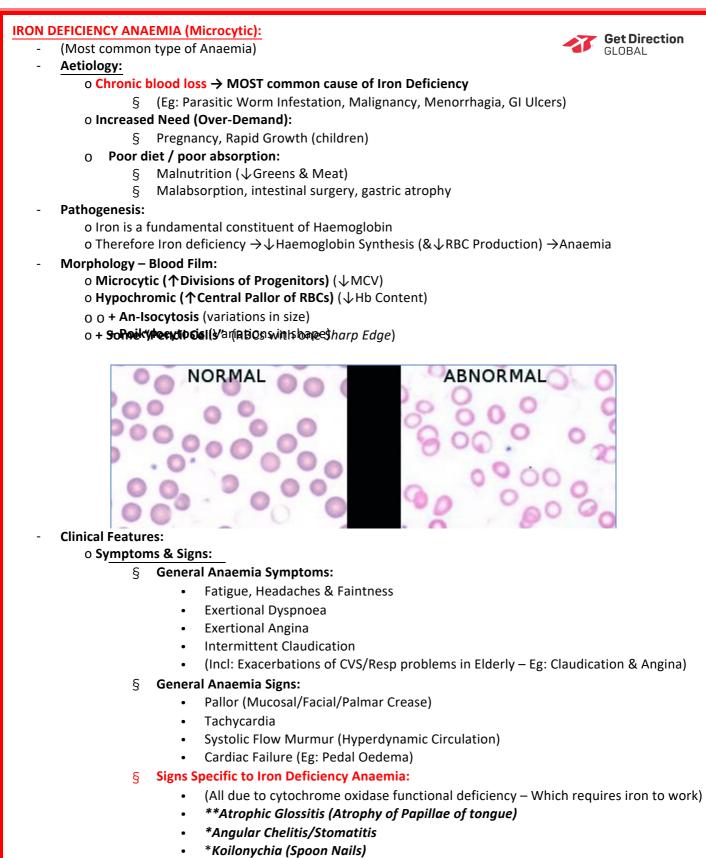
- O Average size of RBC
- o Described as:
 - § Microcytic (smaller than normal)
 - § Normal
 - § Macrocytic (larger than normal)

Differential Diagnosis of Anaemia Based On MCV				
Hypochromic Microcytic (MCV <80)	Normochromic Norn	Macrocytic (MCV>100)		
Fe Deficiency Thalassemia Lead Poisoning Sideroblastic Anemia Chronic disease (Some cases)	Low Reticulocytes: Myelodysplasia Infiltration (leukemia, myeloma, mets, infection) Myelofibrosis Aplasia Chronic disease (some cases) Liver disease Uremia Hyper/hypo-thyroid Addison's disease	High Reticulocytes Hemolytic anemia Post-hemorrhagic anemia Treated nutritional deficiency	Megaloblastic (B12, Folate, Drugs) Myelodysplasia Liver disease Alcohol Reticulocytes	

- Iron Studies Interpretation:

Condition	MCV	Iron	Ferritin	TIBC	Transferrin	Transferrin saturation
Iron deficiency	\downarrow	\downarrow	\downarrow	↑	Ŷ	\downarrow
Inflammatory anaemia	\leftrightarrow	\downarrow	Ŷ	\downarrow	\downarrow	\downarrow
Thalassaemia minor	\downarrow	\leftrightarrow	\leftrightarrow	\leftrightarrow	\leftrightarrow	\leftrightarrow
Thalassaemia major	\downarrow	$\leftrightarrow /\uparrow$	Ŷ	\downarrow	\downarrow	Ŷ
Sideroblastic anaemia	\downarrow	1	1	\leftrightarrow	$\leftrightarrow /\uparrow$	Ŷ
Iron overload	\leftrightarrow	Ŷ	Ŷ	\downarrow	\downarrow	Ŷ

Microscopic Features:	Differential Diagnoses:	Further Lab Evaluation:
Anaemia Low MCV (Microcytic)	Iron Deficiency Anaemia of Chronic Disease/Inflammation	Iron Studies, Fe-Binding, Ferritin Blood Film (Pencil Cells = IDA)
Low Retics	Sideroblastic Anaemia Thalassemias A & B Lead Poisoning	
Anaemia High MCV (Macrocytic/ Megaloblastic)	Megaloblastic (B12/Folate Deficiency) - Eg: Pernicious Anaemia - Eg: Coeliac Disease/Short bowel Alcohol Abuse	Serum B12 RBC Folate Levels Blood Film (Macroovalcytes, Pancytopenia)
	Liver Disease Myelodysplastic Syndromes or Leukaemia High Retics? = Bleeding, Haemolysis	Marrow Biopsy (Dysplasia/Neoplasia)
Anaemia Normal MCV	Acute Blood Loss Primary Bone Marrow Failure - Aplastic Anaemia/Drugs/Chemo - Leukaemia - Myelodysplastic Syndromes Secondary Bone Marrow Failure - Uraemia - Endocrine Disorder - HIV/AIDS - Anaemia of Chronic Disease Haemoglobinopathies (Sickle/Thalassemia) Haemolysis – Immune/Mech/Toxic Renal Failure Pregnancy (Spurious)	Blood Smear Iron Studies, Fe-Binding, Ferritin Kidney, Thyroid, Liver Function Tests Cortisol Levels EPO Levels
Anaemia High Reticulocyte Count	Bleeding – Blood Loss (Internal/External) Haemolysis – Immune/Mech/Toxic	Blood Film – nRBC, spherocytes, parasites Bilirubin/Haptoglobin (Haemolysis) Coombe's (Direct & Indirect) G6PD screen



- * Brittle Nails, Brittle Hair
- 0 Diagnosis:
 - § Blood Count & Film (Microcytic, Hypochromic, Poikylocytosis, Anisocytosis, Pencils)
 - § **Iron Studies** (↓Ferritin;↓Iron; 个TIBC)
- o Differentials (for low MCV):
 - § Thalassaemia
 - § Anaemia of Chronic Disease
 - § Sideroblastic Anaemia (Very Rare)
- o Tr<u>eatment</u>:
 - § Iron Supplementation

ANAEMIA OF CHRONIC Inflammatory DISEASE (Microcytic/Normocytic):
- Actiology:
O Chronic Infection (Eg: Tuberculosis)
o Chronic Inflammatory Disease (Eg: Crohn's/Rh Arthritis/SLE/Malignancy)
- Pathogenesis:
o Chronic Infection/Inflammation →
§ \downarrow RBC Survival \rightarrow RBC Death outpaces RBC production \rightarrow Anaemia
§ \downarrow EPO Release \rightarrow Reduced Stimulus for Erythropoiesis
§ \downarrow Iron Transfer/Release from Macrophages in Bone Marrow \rightarrow Functional iron deficiency \rightarrow
Morphology: Anaemia
-
o Typically Normocytic (Sometimes Microcytic) [Debatable] o Hypochromic
o Fewer RBCs
000000000000000000000000000000000000000
Mild Microcytic, Hypochromic
Decreased RBC* & Reticulocytes *
10 20 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0000. 000000000000000000000000000000000
00 0000 0 000 0
- Clinical Features:

- o General Anaemia Symptoms & Signs
- Investigations:
 - 0 Iron Studies:
 - § ↓Serum Iron
 - § ↓TIBC
 - § Normal Serum Ferritin
 - 0 B12/Folate
 - o Blood Film
- Treatment:
 - o Treat Underlying Chronic Inflammation/Infection
 - § Corticosteroids (↓Inflammation)
 - o Correct Anaemia:
 - § Exogenous EPO (个Erythropoiesis)

THALASSAEMIAS:



- Aetiology:
 - o Genetic mutation/deletion in the Alpha or Beta Globin genes for Haemoglobin
 - o Alpha Thalassaemia:
 - § Deletion of 1/more of the 4 Alpha Globin genes
 - o Beta Thalassaemia:
 - § Mutations in the Beta Globin genes prevent B-chain formation
- Pathogenesis:
 - o \downarrow Synthesis of Alpha/Beta Globin chains Haemoglobin Disorder Ineffective erythropoiesis
 - o \uparrow Haemolysis due to aggregation of unmatched globin chains
- Microscopy:
 - o May exhibit Poikylocytosis (RBCs weird shapes/sizes)

Clinical Features:

- o May be mild \rightarrow Minimal symptoms / No treatment required
- o May be more severe \rightarrow Typical anaemia-type symptoms
 - § Eg: Fatigue, weakness
 - § Eg: Jaundice/Dark urine
- Treatment:
 - o Severe forms may require regular blood transfusions

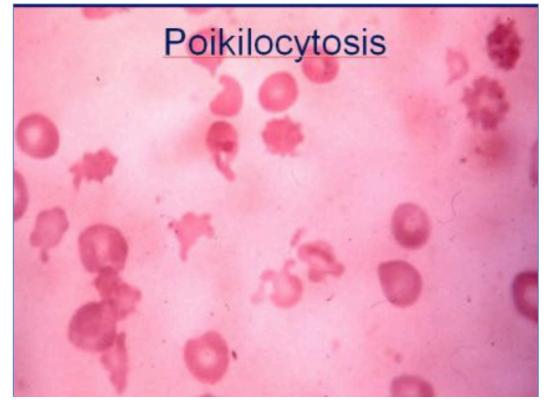
Complications:

- o Iron Overload (Eg: From frequent blood transfusions) \rightarrow Damage to heart/liver/endocrine organs
- o Infection (Especially post splenectomy)
- o Bone Deformities (Thalassemia can cause physical bone marrow expansion ightarrow abnormal bone

structure; especially in face and skull)

o Splenomegaly (May require splenectomy)

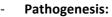
- o Slowed growth & delayed puberty
- o Congestive heart failure



SICKLE CELL ANAEMIA:

- Aetiology:

- o Inherited genetically
 - 0 Prevalent in Afro-Caribbean populations



- o Abnormal Beta-Haemoglobin Chain \rightarrow
 - § Abnormal Hb Insoluble Forms crystals @ low O2 Tension
 - § Leads to sickle-shaped RBC → RBCs are rigid, sticky & get stuck in blood vessels
 - § RBCs Clog small capillaries → Tissue Necrosis
 - § Episodes of haemolysis \rightarrow Further anaemia

- Microscopy:

o sickle-shaped RBCs

Clinical Features:

- o Episodes of Haemolysis
- o Anaemia Symptoms

O *Episodes of Pain ('Pain crises'):

- § Due to microangiopathic blockages due to sickle cells \rightarrow tissue hypoxia/ischaemia \rightarrow Pain
- $\S \rightarrow$ Chest/Abdo/Joint/Bone pains
- § 'Pain crises' may occur infrequently, or many times a year
- O Swelling of hands and feet
- o Frequent infections
- O Delayed growth/puberty

- Treatment:

- o Currently no cure; But Stem cell transplants have future promise
- o Treatment aimed at avoiding pain, relieving symptoms & preventing complications
- 0 Hydroxyurea reduces frequency of painful crises
- o L-Glutamine Reduces frequency & severity of pain crises
- 0 Analgesics

- Complications:

- o Retinopathy
- o Growth delay
- o Renal disease
- o Stroke
- o Pulmonary hypertension
- o Heart disease
- o Leg ulcers
- o Priapism
- o Gallstones
- o Increased risk of miscarriage



CNX OpenStax, CC BY 4.0 <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>, via Wikimedia Commons



MACROCYTIC ANAEMIA:

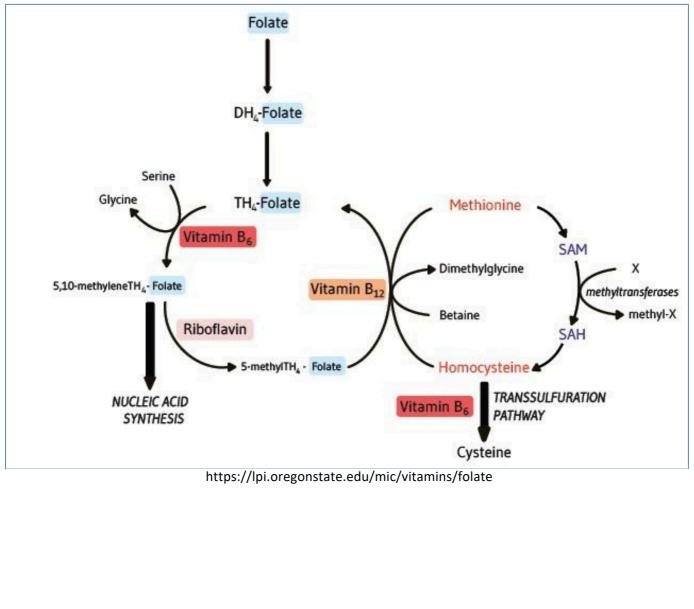
- (2nd most common type of anaemia)
- ("Megaloblasts" = large, Erythroblasts with Immature Nuclei seen in the Marrow)
- Aetiologies:

O VitB12 Deficiency; Possible causes:

- § **Malnutrition Lack of VB12 Dietary Intake
- **Gastric** Deficiency of *Intrinsic Factor* (Eg: Pernicious Anaemia autoimmune response to $\frac{9}{2}$ narie tallo e lls of stoma ch $\rightarrow 1$, $\frac{1}{2}$ $\rightarrow 1$, $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{$
 - p a rie ta l c e lls o f sto m a c h $\rightarrow \downarrow$ IF $\rightarrow \downarrow$ V itB 12 A b so rp tio n) Intestinal – Eg: Resected Ileum/Crohn's Disease

0 Folate Deficiency; Possible causes:

- § **Malnutrition Lack of Folate Dietary Intake
- § Malabsorption Eg: Coeliac Disease/Intestinal Resection
- § Excess Utilization Eg: Pregnancy/Lactation/Chronic Inflammation/Cancers
- § Excess Urinary Loss Eg: Acute Liver Disease/Congestive Heart Disease
- **O** Other General Causes:
 - § ****Alcoholism (or Liver Disease)**
 - **S** Cytotoxic Chemo Drugs (Eg: Methotrexate)
 - § Old Age
- Pathogenesis:
 - 0 VitB12/Folate are Necessary for Nuclear DNA Synthesis
 - $o \rightarrow$ defective nuclear maturation of erythroblasts
 - $o \rightarrow Reduced RBC Production$



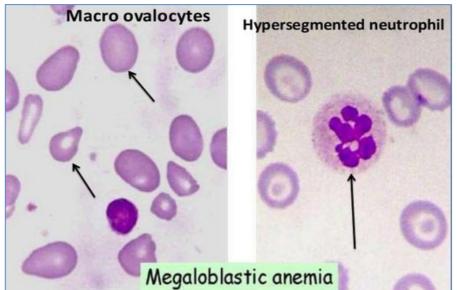


- Morphology:



§ **Megaloblasts in Bone Marrow** (*large, Erythroblasts with Immature Nuclei*) o **Blood Film:**

- § *Normochromic
- § *Oval Macrocytes (Large, Oval RBCs)
- § *Hypersegmented Neutrophils (Some with >6 Lobes in Nucleus)
- § *Pancytopenia (Reduction in Number or ALL Cells RBCs/WBCs/Platelets)
- **§** Attempted ↑↑Erythropoiesis:
 - 个Reticulocytes
 - Some "Polychromatophils" (Bigger, Blueish RBCs)
 - Some Nucleated RBCs
- § + An-Isocytosis (variations in size)
- § + Poikylocytosis (Variations in shape)



Clinical Features:

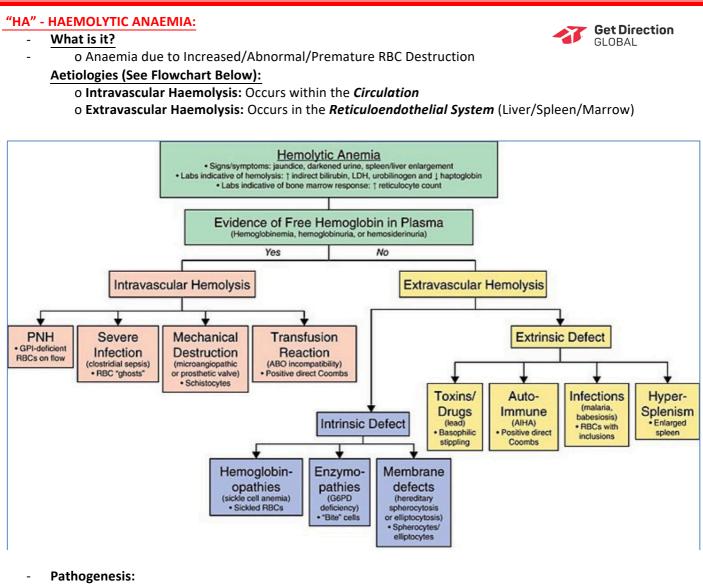
o General Anaemia Symptoms & Signs

o Signs & Symptoms Specific to Megaloblastic Anaemia:

- § Glossitis (Red Sore Tongue)
- S Angular Stomatitis/Chelitis
- S Peripheral Neuropathy (Paraesthesia, \sqrt{V} Vibration, \sqrt{P} Proprioception, Weakness & Ataxia)
- Investigations:
 - o Blood Film (Oval Macrocytes, Hypersegmented Neutrophils, Pancytopenia)
 - o FBC (个MCV, Pancytopenia)
 - o Bone Marrow Biopsy (Shows Megaloblasts) Rarely Required
 - o Serum B12/Folate (\downarrow if B12/Folate Deficiency)
- Treatment:
 - O Oral B12
 - 0 Oral Folate
 - o Corticosteroids + B12 Supplements (If Pernicious Anaemia)

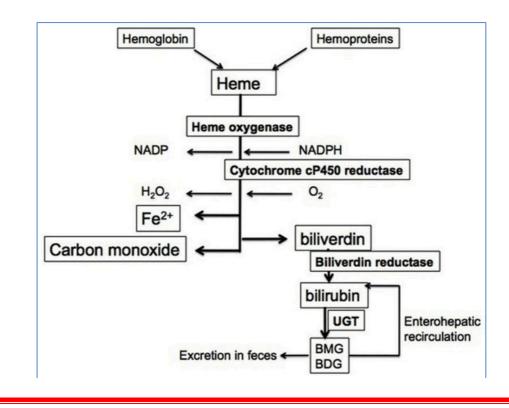
Get Direction

GLOBAL



 \circ Breakdown of RBCs due to any cause \rightarrow Release of *Free Haemoglobin* in Plasma

- § → Heme Molecule → Protoporphyrin & Iron
- § \rightarrow Protoporphyrin \rightarrow Excess Bilirubin $\rightarrow \uparrow$ Bilirubin (Unconjugated) \rightarrow Jaundice
- § \rightarrow **Bilirubin Conjugated in Liver** \rightarrow Excreted in Bile & Faeces



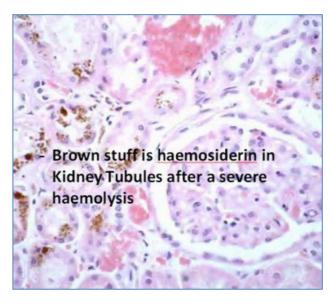
Clinical Features:

o Symptoms:

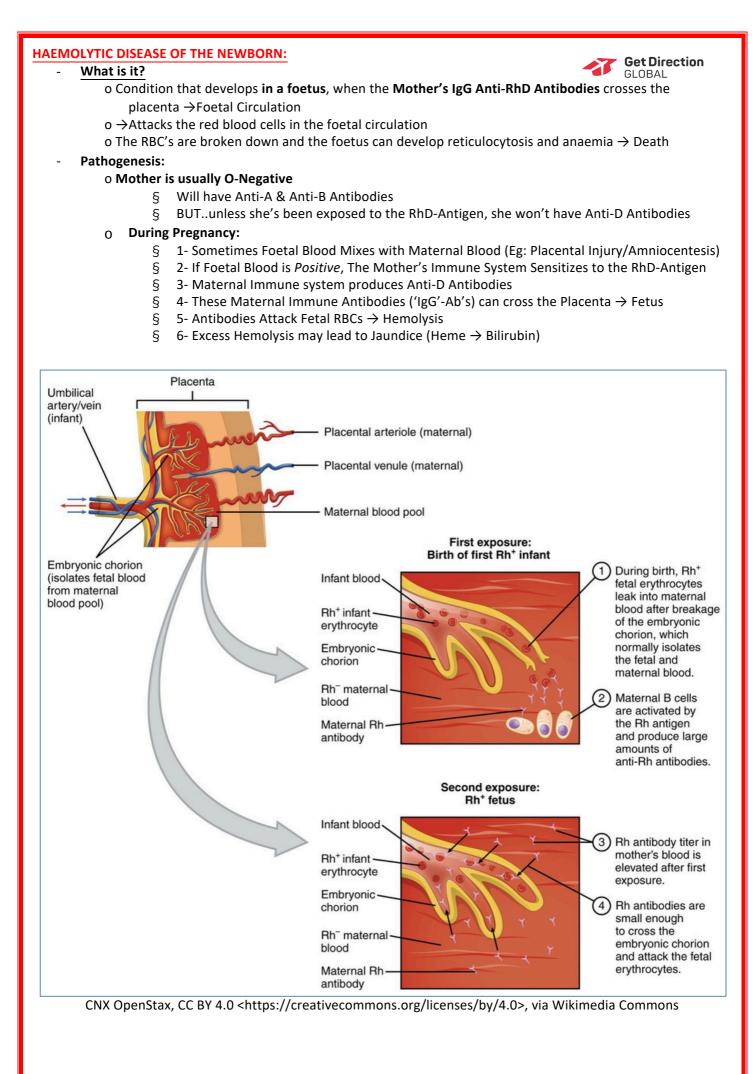




- Symptoms Specific to Haemolytic Anaemia:
 - Jaundice (Mild & Fluctuating)
 - Splenomegaly
 - Pigment Gall Stones (If Chronic HA)
 - Venous Stasis Ankle Ulcers (Sickle Cell)
 - Microangiopathy/Infarction/Raynaud's
- **O** Laboratory Evaluation:
 - § Hb Low
 - § Reticulocytes Elevated
 - § Elevated Free-Hb in Blood (Haemoglobinaemia)
 - § **Hb** in Urine (*Haemoglobinuria*) \rightarrow Red-Brown Urine
 - § Haemosiderin (iron from Hb) in Urine (Haemosiderinuria)
 - § LFTs (\uparrow Bilirubin, \downarrow Haptoglobins)
 - § Blood Smear (Broken RBCs, Reticulocytosis, Congenital RBC Disorders, Anaemia)
 - § Coombe's Test (?Autoimmune Haemolytic Anaemia)
 - § LDH Elevated
 - § Bilirubin Elevated



- A 4Q Approach to Diagnosing Haemolytic Anaemias:
 - o 1- Is there ↑ RBC Breakdown?
- (Anaemia?/Jaundice?/Urinary Urobilinogen?) (Reticulocytes?/个MCV?/Polychromasia?)
- o 2- Is there ↑ RBC Production?
 o 3- Is it *Extravascular* or *Intravascular*?
 - § *Extravascular* = (Splenomegaly?)
 - § *Intravascular* = (\uparrow Plasma Hb?/ \downarrow Plasma Haptoglobin?/Haemoglobinuria?)
- o 4- Why is there Haemolysis?
 - S Is it Autoimmune (WAHA/CAHA)? → +ve Coomb's Tests
 - Is it Congenital (Sickle / Thalassemia / G6PD / Hereditary Spherocytosis)? → Blood Smear
 - Is it Mechanical (Microangiopathy / March Syndrome / DIC) → Blood Smear
- Treatment:
 - 0 Treat Underlying Cause
 - o Plasmapheresis if Autoimmune
 - o Splenectomy if Hypersplenism/Hereditary Spherocytosis
 - O Blood Transfusion if Severe



- Lab Findings:

0 Cord Blood:



- § Rh-D Antigen Present (Positive)
- § Positive Direct Coomb's Test (Ie: Mother's Anti-D Antibodies detected on Foetal RBCs)
- § 个 Bilirubin
- o Maternal Blood:
 - § Rh-D Antigen Absent (Negative)
 - § Positive Indirect Coomb's Test (Ie: High levels of maternal serum Anti-D Antibodies)
- Prophylaxis Against Rh Sensitization:
 - o Passive administration of Exogenous Rh-D-Antibodies into mother can prevent the Primary Immune Response from occurring in the first place
 - O Ie: The Exogenous Rh-D-Antibodies destroy any fetal Rh-Positive Blood cells (that cross the placenta) before the immune system has time to become sensitized

Mother's Rh factor	Father's Rh factor	Baby's Rh factor	Precautions
Rh positive	Rh positive	Rh positive	None
Rh negative	Rh negative	Rh negative	None
Rh positive	Rh negative	Could be Rh positive or Rh negative	None
Rh negative	Rh positive	Could be Rh positive or Rh negative	Rh immune globulin injections

APLASTIC ANAEMIA (Ie: MARROW FAILURE):

- (Aplastic Anaemia = "Pancytopenia with Bone Marrow Hypocellularity (aplasia))



Aetiology:

o Simple Bone Marrow Failure (NOT Malignant)

- § Primary:
 - Congenital
 - Idiopathic
- § Secondary:
 - Cytotoxic Drugs
 - Sensitivity to other drugs (Eg: Chloramphenicol, Chlorpromazine, Phenytoin, NSAIDs)
 - Ionizing Radiation

Pathogenesis:

- o Reduction in Pluripotent Stem Cells
- o Remaining Stem Cells are FAULTY or IMMUNOGENIC:. Cannot repopulate the Marrow
- $o \rightarrow Pancytopenia$ (Deficiency of all cells)

- Morphology:

- o Pancytopenia with Bone Marrow Hypocellularity (Aplasia)
- o There are NO Leukemic, Cancerous or Abnormal Cells in Marrow OR Peripheral Blood

Clinical Features:

o Symptoms & Signs:

§ General Anaemia Symptoms:

- Fatigue, Headaches & Faintness
- Exertional Dyspnoea
- Exertional Angina
- Intermittent Claudication
- (Incl: Exacerbations of CVS/Resp problems in Elderly Eg: Claudication & Angina)

§ General Anaemia Signs:

- Pallor (Mucosal/Facial/Palmar Crease)
- Tachycardia
- Systolic Flow Murmur (Hyperdynamic Circulation)
- Cardiac Failure

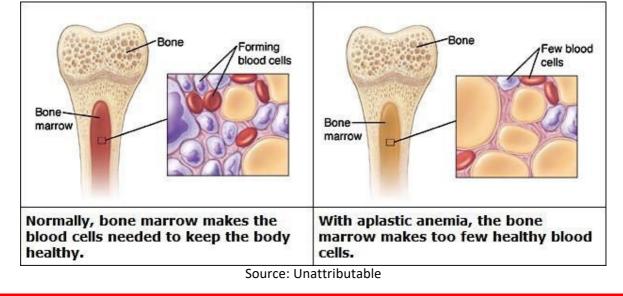
Signs Specific to Aplastic Anaemia:

- Anaemia (↓RBCs)
- Infection (↓WBCs)

O Investigations:

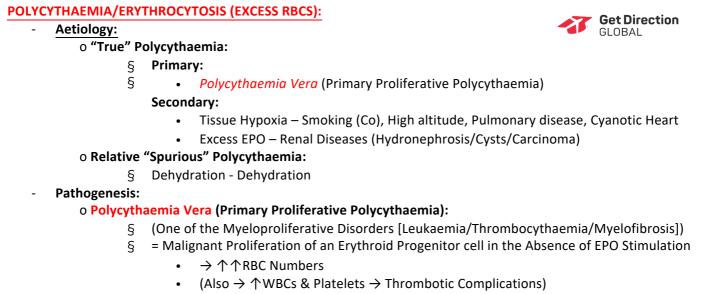
- § ****Bone Marrow Biopsy** For Hypocellularity Necessary for Diagnosis
- § Reticulocyte Count Complete Absence of Retics
- § Blood Count Pancytopenia
- o Treatment:

§ *Bone Marrow Transplant + Supportive Transfusions





POLYCYTHAEMIA



- O Excess EPO:
- § Tissue Hypoxia \rightarrow Renal Hypoxia \rightarrow Stimulates EPO Secretion $\rightarrow \uparrow$ Erythropoiesis o **Spurious Polycythaemia**:
- § Dehydration -

Dehydration $\rightarrow \downarrow$ Plasma Volume \rightarrow Relative \uparrow in RBC Concentration

- Morphology:
- o Hypercellular Marrow with Erythroid Hyperplasia

Clinical Features:

- o Most common in Elderly (>60yrs)
- o May be Asymptomatic

o Vague Symptoms of Hyperviscosity:

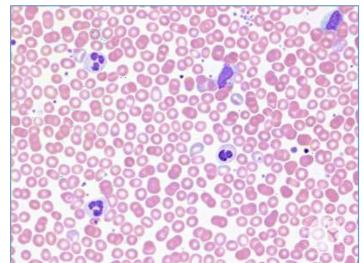
- § Headaches
- § Dizziness
- § Tinnitus
- § Visual Disturbances

o Pathognomonic Symptoms:

- § Itch after a Hot Bath
- § Burning sensation in fingers & toes (AKA: Erythromelalgia) Relieved by cold
- o Signs: Facial Plethora
 - § Splenomegaly
 - § Signs of Art/Ven Thrombosis
 - §

- Treatment:

- 0 Treat Underlying Cause
- 0 Venesection
- 0 Anticoagulation/Antiplatelet



https://imagebank.hematology.org/reference-case/73/polycythemia-vera-with-progression



HAEMOCHROMATOSIS

HAEMOCHROMATOSIS:

- Aetiology:



- **O** (Iron Overload in the Body Due to):
 - § **Primary (**Hereditary Mutation in HFE Gene $\rightarrow \uparrow \uparrow$ Iron Absorption)
 - § Secondary (Repeated Transfusions, Excess Iron Supplements/Dietary Iron)
- Pathogenesis:
 - o → Iron Deposition in multiple Organs (Skin/Joints/Liver/Pancreas/Pituitary)
 - § **Liûner**hosis
 - § Heart Cardiomyopathy
 - § Endocrine Glands:
 - Testicular Failure
 - Pituitary Gland
 - Tanning of the skin
 - Diabetes (Due to Islet Cell Failure)
 - Joints Arthritis (Iron Deposition in the Joints)

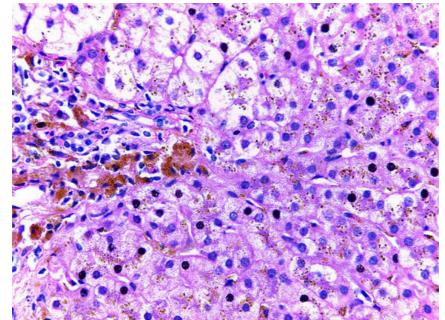
Clinical Features:

o Symptom Profile:

ξ

- § Initially Asymptomatic
- § Early Symptoms:
 - Fatigue
 - Arthralgia
 - Loss of Libido
- § Later Symptoms:
 - Skin Bronzing
 - Abdo Pain, Hepatomegaly
 - Liver Cirrhosis
 - Hypogonadism (from Pituitary Dysfunction)
- Diagnosis:
 - o Iron Studies (\uparrow Serum Ferritin & Iron Levels, \uparrow Transferrin Saturation & \downarrow TIBC)
 - o +ve HFE Genetic Mutation
 - 0 LFTs (Cirrhosis)
 - o Echocardiogram (Cardiomyopathy)
- Treatment:
 - 0 Venesection
 - 0 Low Iron Diet

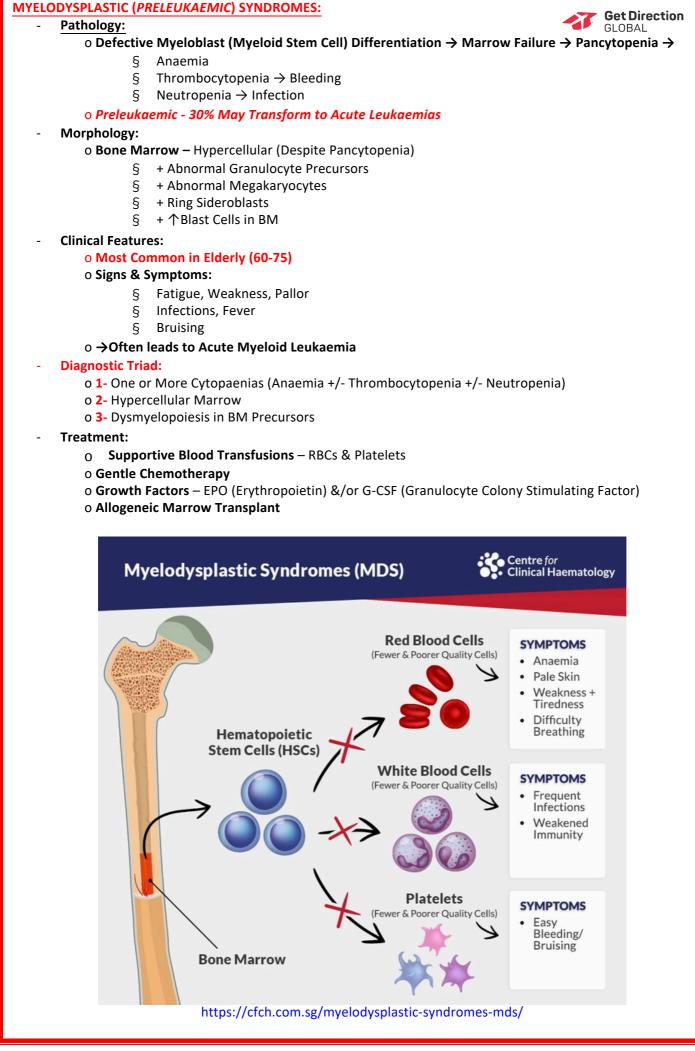
Haemochromatosis Liver with Coarse Hemosiderin Granules Within Hepatocytes

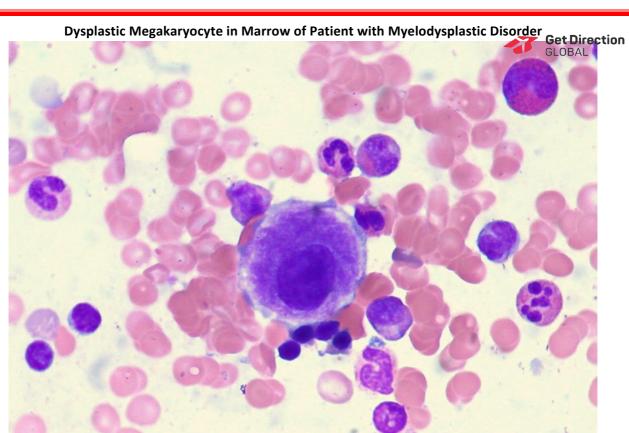


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MYELODYSPLASTIC (PRELEUKAEMIC) SYNDROMES



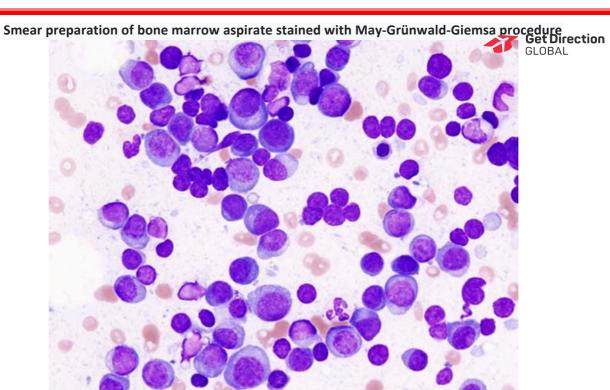


Ed Uthman from Houston, TX, USA, CC BY 2.0 <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/2.0>, via Wikimedia Commons MULTIPLE MYELOMA



MULTIPLE MYELOMA: Get Direction Aetiology: GLOBAL o Malignancy (Overproduction) of FUNCTIONING Plasma Cells in Bone Marrow Pathology: o Over-Proliferation of Plasma Cells \rightarrow → Only Produces *Monoclonal* Igs → Recurrent Infections ξ ξ $+ \rightarrow$ Increased **Osteoclastic Activity** \rightarrow **Lytic Bone Lesions** \rightarrow Bone Pain **Clinical Features:** o Elderly, Males o Symptoms: Bone Pain (Typically Back Pain – Vertebral Involvement) § BM Failure - Anaemia/Bleeding/Recurrent Infections § **O Signs: Pathological Fractures** Hypercalcaemia § **BM Failure** → Aaemia/Bleeding/Infection § Ig Deposition in Renal Tubules → Renal Impairment § **Recurrent Infections** § § **Diagnosis:** o FBC & Blood Film – (个个Plasma Cells (BM & Peripheral Blood)) o ↑ESR/CRP o UEC - (个Ca) o CT/MRI/XR – Lytic Bone Lesions o BM Biopsy - Infiltration of BM by Plasma Cells Treatment: o Supportive Treatment – Transfusions/Antibiotics o Allogeneic BIM Transplant **Bisphosphonates** Inhibit Osteoclast Activity 0 o Radiotherapy/Chemotherapy Multiple Myeloma Red marrow Normal plasma cells where plasma cells are made Antibodies Multiple myeloma cells (abnormal plasma cells) Bone https://www.cancer.gov/types/myeloma/patient/myeloma-treatment-pdq





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LEUKAEMIAS



W hat Are Leukaem ias?:

- = Myeloproliferative & Lymphoproliferative Disorders
- **=A Type of** <u>Cancer</u> Caused by <u>Unregulated Proliferation of Abnormal 'White Cells' from a **Mutant** Haematopoietic Stem Cell</u>
 - o Successive generations of cells from that **Mutant** Haematological Stem Cell \rightarrow 'Clonal Expansion'

LEUKAEMIAS

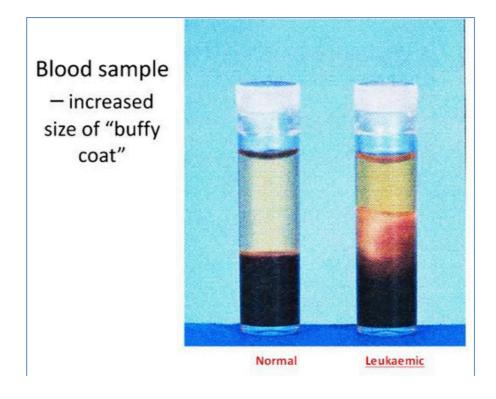
- 0 Note: Disease occurs when sufficient excess in Leukocytes
- Mutation Genetic Alteration within a Single Myeloid OR Lymphoid Tissue Progenitor
 - o Chromosomal Translocations:
 - *Philadelphia Chromosome:
 - #1 Cause of: \rightarrow *CHRONIC MYELOID LEUKAEMIA
 - o Chromosomal Deletions/Additions:
 - § ***Monosomy 7:**
 - #1 Cause of: \rightarrow *ACUTE MYELOID LEUKAEMIA
 - o Point Mutations

ξ

- o Gene Amplification:
 - **§ Changes in Proto/Anti-Oncogenes:**
 - Oncogenes: Code for proteins involved in cell proliferation/differentiation
 - Abnormal Proto/Anti-Oncogenes → Cancers (Ie: Leukaemia)
 - Eg: A Hypermorphic Mutation in an *Oncogene* \rightarrow Hyperactive Proliferation
 - Eg: A Hypomorphic Mutation in a *Tumour-Suppressive* Gene → Hyperactive Proliferation

Result:

- Extreme numbers of White Cells in blood \rightarrow Altered Haematocrit:
 - o Huge Buffy Coat (of WBCs generally abnormal)
 - o Low Proportion of RBCs (Results in Anaemia)



Risk Factors:

- Radiation Exposure – Nuclear/X-Ray/Microwave



- Previous Chemotherapy Particularly Alkylating Agents
- Genetic Eg: Down's Syndrome
- Occupational Chemical Exposure Benzene/Other Aromatic Organic Solvents
- Viral Infection

Classifications of Leukaemia:

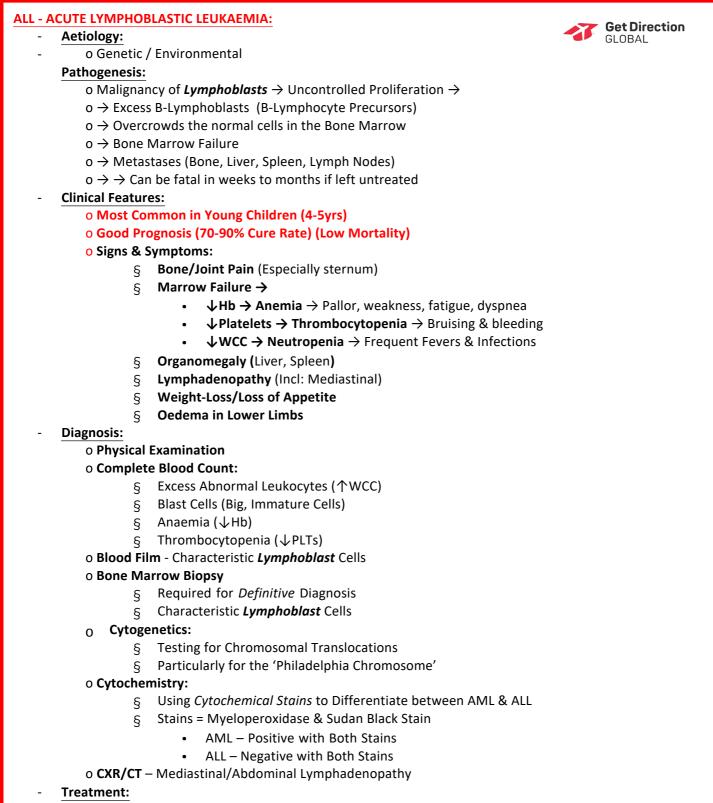
- Acute OR Chronic:
- o See table below
- Myeloid OR Lymphoid
 - o See table below

Other:

• Hairy-Cell Leukaemia • Prolymphocytic Leukaemia • T-Cell Leukemic Lymphoma

Type of Leukaemia	Distinguishing Features
ALL – Acute Lymphoblastic Leukaemia	Children
	Good Prognosis
	Small Lymphoblasts, Small Cytoplasm, No Granules/Nucleoli
AML – Acute Myeloid Leukaemia	Adults
	Poor Prognosis (2mths if untreated)
	Gum Hypertrophy
	"Auer Rods" in AML Myeloblast Cells
	Big Myeloblasts, Big Cytoplasm, Granules, Nucleoli
CLL – Chronic Lymphocytic Leukaemia	Elderly
	Commonest Leukaemia
	Insidious Onset
	Good Survival (9yrs) but NO Cure
	"Smear Cells" on blood film
CML – Chronic Myeloid Leukaemia	Adults
	Philadelphia Chromosome in 80%
	Good Prognosis with Glivec (Imatinib)
	3 Phases: Chronic, Accelerated, Blast Crisis
	Marked Splenomegaly

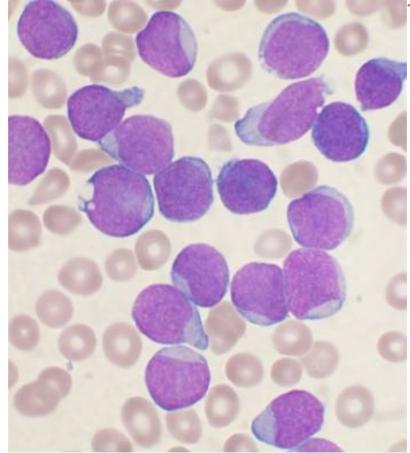
(N ote: M yeloids are ALW AYS in Adults; Lym phoids are EXTREM ES of Age) (All are ~Good Prognosis EXCEPT AML) (CM L = Philadelphia Chrom osom e & Tri-Phasic w ith "Blast Crisis")



- 0 0 Supportive Transfusions/Fluids
- o CHUMAntileintigs A Antivir RepAinstitum gals

Allogeneic Marrow Transplant

A Wright's stained bone marrow aspirate smear of patient with precursor B-cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia Get Direction GLOBAL



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AML - ACUTE MYELOID LEUKAEMIA:

- Aetiology:



- o Genetic / Environmental o Or Progression from Myelodysplastic States
- Pathology:
 - o Malignancy of **Myeloblasts** \rightarrow Uncontrolled Proliferation \rightarrow
 - o ightarrow Accumulation in the Bone Marrow ightarrow
 - $o \rightarrow$ 'Packs Out' the bone \rightarrow interfere with the production of normal blood cells
 - $o \rightarrow$ Bone Marrow Failure
 - $o \rightarrow Metastases$
- Clinical Features:
 - o Poor Prognosis (High Mortality)
 - o Most Common in ADULTS \uparrow Incidence with Age
- Signs & Symptoms:
 - o Bone Pain (Especially sternum)
 - o Marrow Failure →
 - § \downarrow Hb \rightarrow Anemia \rightarrow Pallor, weakness, fatigue, dyspnea
 - § \downarrow Platelets \rightarrow Thrombocytopenia \rightarrow Easy Bruising & bleeding
 - § \downarrow WCC \rightarrow Neutropenia \rightarrow Vulnerable to Infections
 - o Organomegaly (Liver, Spleen)
 - o Lymphadenopathy (Incl: Mediastinal)

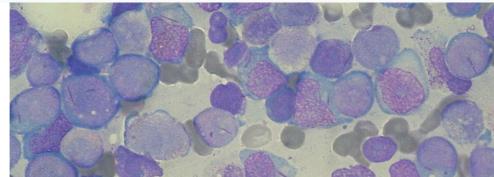
§ Gum Hypertrophy

- Diagnosis:
 - o Complete Blood Count:
 - § Excess Abnormal Leukocytes (个WCC)
 - § Blast Cells (Big, Immature Cells)
 - § Anaemia (↓Hb)
 - § Thrombocytopenia (\downarrow Plts)
 - o Blood Film Characteristic Myeloblast Cells
 - o Bone Marrow Biopsy Characteristic Myeloblast Cells with pathognomonic "Auer Rods"
 - o CXR/CT Mediastinal/Abdominal Compression & Infection
 - 0 Cytogenetics:
 - § Testing for Chromosomal Translocations
 - o Cytochemistry:

§

- § Using Cytochemical Stains to Differentiate between AML & ALL
 - Stains = Myeloperoxidase & Sudan Black Stain
 - AML Positive with Both Stains
 - ALL Negative with Both Stains
- Treatment:
 - 0 Supportive Transfusions/Fluids
 - 0 IV Antibiotics + Antivirals/Antifungals
 - o **Chemotherapy** Aim for Remission
 - o Allogeneic Marrow (Haematopoietic Stem Cell) Transplant

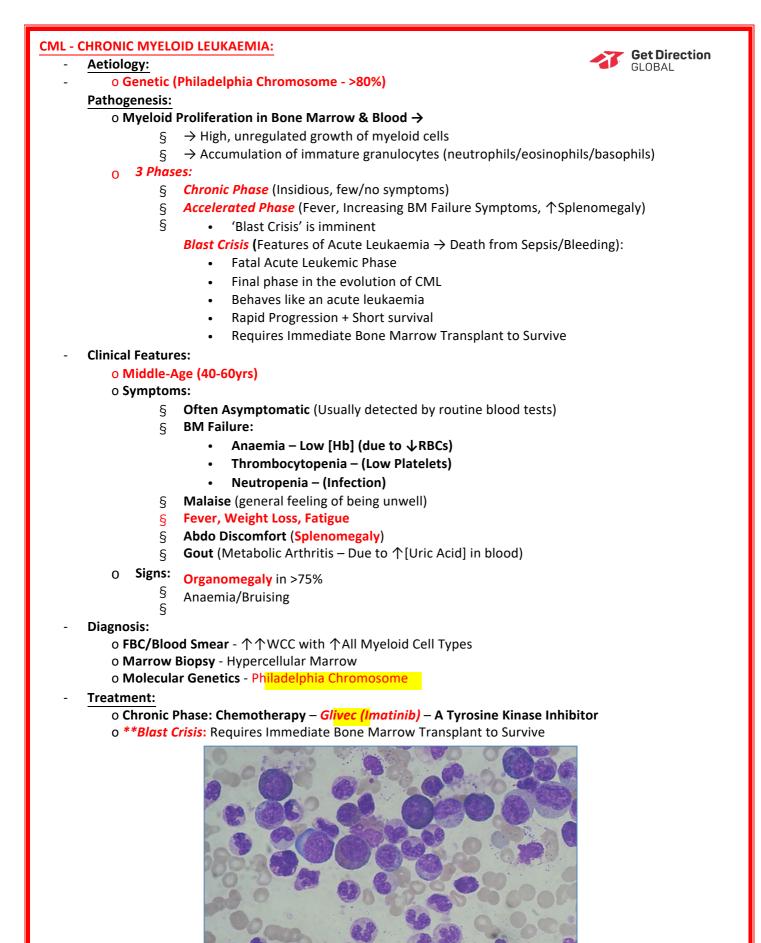
Myeloblasts with Auer rods seen in Acute Myeloid Leukemia (AML), advanced stage. Bone Marrow



Paulo Henrique Orlandi Mourao, CC BY-SA 3.0 < https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-sa/3.0>, via Wikimedia Commons

CLL - CHRONIC LYMPHOCYTIC LEUKAEMIA:	
- Aetiology:	Get Direction GLOBAL
- o Thought to be acquired Genetic Mutations over time \rightarrow Malignancy	
Pathology:	
o Malignancy of Neoplastic, Mature, Poorly-Functioning B-Cells ->	
$o \rightarrow Overproliferation of Mutated B-Cells \rightarrow Can't Fight Infection$	
o $ ightarrow$ The cells accumulate mainly in the bone marrow and blood o Slow Bone Marrow Failure $ ightarrow$ Slow Metastasis	
- Clinical Features:	
• Clinical realures: • The Commonest Leukaemia, Mainly in Elderly (50-60yrs)	
o Good Survival – 9yr Median Survival – But NO CURE (Death due to infection, i	not mets)
o Symptoms:	
§ Typically Asymptomatic @ Dx – 60% (Diagnosed on routine blood	test)
§ If Bone Marrow Failure – (Anaemia, Recurrent Infection, Bruising)	
§ If Severe – Weight Loss, Sweats, Anorexia	
O Signs: Lymphadenopathy (Especially Cervical) Enlarged, Rubbery, Non-Tenton	der
S Organomegaly (Especially Splenomegaly, Hepatomegaly)	
§	
- Diagnosis:	
- o Blood Count & Film – (个个Lymphocytosis, Anaemia, Neutropenia, Thrombocy	ytopenia)
Treatment: O Early CLL is not treated	
o CLL is only Treated when symptoms affect Quality of Life	
$_{\rm O}$ Late CLL treated with:	
§ IV-Ig – For Infections;	
S Chemotherapy/Radiotherapy – Palliative	
o (Stem Cell Transplant – Curative)	
Wright's stained peripheral blood smear showing chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL). Th darkly staining nuclei and scant cytoplasm are the CLL cells.	e lymphocytes with the
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LYMPHOMAS



HODGKIN'S LYMPHOMA (15%):

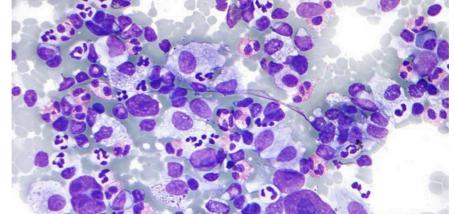
- Aetiology:
 - 0 Idiopathic
 - o Risk Factor = EBV (Infective Mononucleosis)
- Pathology:
 - o Malignant Lymphocytes → Accumulate in Lymph Nodes, Peripheral Blood & Other Organs Clinical Features:
 - o Bimodal Age Distribution
 - § Young Adulthood (15-35)
 - § Late Adulthood (55+)

O Good Prognosis – High Cure Rate

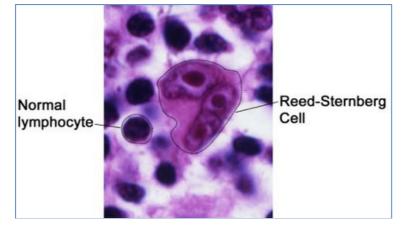
o Signs & Symptoms:

- § *****Asymmetrical & Painless Lymphadenopathy** Non-Tender, Rubbery (Neck, Axillary)
- § Systemic "B" Symptoms (Fever, Night Sweats, Weight Loss, Fatigue)
- § Splenomegaly/Hepatomegaly
- **§ Pathognomonic Symptoms:**
 - Pruritis
 - Alcohol Induced Lymph Node Pain
- Diagnosis:
 - o *Lymph Node Biopsy Presence of Reed-Sternberg Cells
 - o *Bone Marrow Biopsy Presence of Reed-Sternberg Cells
 - o CT Chest/Abdo/Pelvis (Look for Mets)
- Treatment:
 - o (Depends on Staging; Curative Intent)
 - o Radiotherapy +/- Chemotherapy
- Complications:
 - o SVC obstruction (due to Mediastinal Masses) $\rightarrow \uparrow$ JVP, Facial Plethora, Dyspnoea

Mixture of cells common in Hodgkin Lymphoma (Eosinophils, Reed-Sternberg cells, Plasma Cells)



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NON-HODGKIN'S LYMPHOMAS (85%):

What Are They?:



- o Complicated Classification
- 0 Occur At Any Age
- o May be Aggressive/Benign
- Aetiology:
 - 0 Post-Viral Infections HTLV-1, EBV, HHV8, HIV, H-pylori
 - o Environmental Toxins Pesticides, Organic Solvents
- Pathology:
- o Malignant Lymphocytes → Accumulate in Lymph Nodes, Peripheral Blood & Other Organs Clinical Features:
 - 0 *POOR Prognosis 5yrs for treated pts
 - o Signs & Symptoms:
 - § Initially Painless Lymphadenopathy Non-Tender, Rubbery (Neck, Axillary)
 - § Systemic "B" Symptoms (Fever, Night Sweats, Weight Loss, Fatigue)
 - **S** Splenomegaly/Hepatomegaly
 - § Metastases → GIT, Lungs, Brain, Testes, Thyroid & Skin
- Diagnosis:
 - o Bone Marrow Biopsy o
 - Lymph Node Biopsy

GXR/CT – for Staging

- Treatment:
 - O (Depends on Staging)
 - o Radiotherapy may be Curative if Localised Disease
 - o Chemotherapy in Diffuse Disease

Ann Arbor staging system for Hodgkin disease and Non-Hodgkin lymphomas



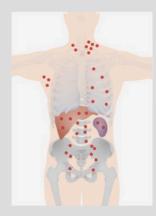
Stage I Involvement of single lymph node region or single extralymphatic site



Stage II Involvement of two or more lymph node regions on same side of diaphragm; may include localized extralymphatic



Stage III Involvement of lymph node regions on both sides of the diaphragm; may include spleen or localized extralymphatic



Get Direction

Stage IV Diffuse extralymphatic disease (e.g. in liver, bone marrow, lung, skin)

Source: https://www.lecturio.com/magazine/non-hodgkins-lymphoma/



BLEEDING DISORDERS

BLEEDING DISORDERS



There Are Many Potential Causes Of Bleeding Disorders. Eg:

- Vascular Disorders:

- o Abnormalities in Blood Vessel Structure or Perivascular Connective Tissue
- o Leads to: Easy Bruising
- Thrombocytopenia:

o Due to *deficient number of platelets*

- o Results from either:
 - § \downarrow Platelet Production
 - § ↑ Platelet Destruction
 - § ↑ Platelet Consumption (in large injuries/burns)

- Defective Platelet Function:

- 0 There are enough platelets, but not working properly
- o May be Inherited (rare)...OR
- o Acquired: (Eg: From Aspirin/other blood thinners)
- Von Willebrand's Deficiency:
 - o Either Not enough vWF....or Dysfunction of vWF
 - o vWF is necessary for platelet adhesion. Therefore Deficiency \rightarrow Poor platelet plug formation
- Coagulopathy = Defective Coagulation:

o Bleeding disorders due to deficiency in 1 or more Coagulation Factors

- 0 Hereditary Coagulopathies:
 - **§ Haemophilia A: Factor VIII Deficiency:**
 - Most common
 - Sex Linked Recessive (Female Carriers; Affected Males)
 - Treatment Recombinant clotting factors

§ Haemophilia B: Factor IX Deficiency:

- AKA: Christmas Disease
- Less common
- Sex Linked Recessive (only affects males)
- Treatment Recombinant clotting factors
- **S** Other deficiencies (Factors V, VII, X, XI & XIII) Rare
 - Just know they exist

O Acquired Coagulopathies:

- **§** Vitamin K Deficiency (Factors II, VII, IX, X)
 - Dietary
 - Malabsorption
 - Or Long-term warfarin
- **S** Chronic Liver Disease:
 - Eg: Biliary Obstruction:
 - o Hinders absorption of Fat-Soluble vitamins
 - O Reduced synthesis of Factors II, VII, IX & X
 - Eg: Severe Hepatocellular Damage:
 - O Reduced synthesis of Factor V & Fibrinogen

S DIC - Disseminated Intravascular Coagulation:

- AKA: Consumptive Coagulopathy
- Formation of small clots inside blood vessels throughout the body
- Leads to: ↑Consumption of Platelets & Coagulation Factors

Evaluation of Bleeding Disorders:

- Platelet Count

o Literally the number of platelets/volume of blood



- o Normal range = 150-400x109/L
- o Excessively Low platelet count \rightarrow Thrombocytopenia (bleeding disorder)

- Platelet Function Tests

o Complete Blood Count (CBC)/Full Blood Evaluation (FBE):

§ Include platelet count & morphology - Eg: Giant platelets

o Bleeding Time

- § Time taken for wound to clot
- § If bleeding time is high \rightarrow may suggest platelet dysfunction
- § If bleeding time is high, but normal platelet level \rightarrow May be due to vWF Deficiency

o Platelet Aggregometry:

- § Measures platelet aggregation with common haemostatic agonists
 - ADP
 - Epinephrine
 - Collagen
- § Measures the decrease in optical density that occurs in solution as platelets aggregate

Tests of Coagulation-Factor Function:

o Prothrombin Time (PT):

- § Time taken for plasma to clot after addition of tissue factor (Factor III)
- § Measures *Extrinsic Pathway* + part of *Common Pathway*
- § Measures factors VII, X, V, II (Prothrombin) and I (fibrinogen)
- § Normally 12-15sec
- § 15sec+ = One/more of above factors are deficient
- § INR (International Normalized Ratio) is derived from $PT \rightarrow Universal measurement$

o Activated Partial Thromboplastin Time (aPTT):

- *ξ* Time taken for plasma to clot after addition of phospholipids
- § Measures Intrinsic Pathway + the Common Pathway
- § Measures factors XII, XI, IX, VIII, X, V, II (Prothrombin) and I (fibrinogen)
- § Normally 25-45sec
- § 45sec+ = One/more of above factors are deficient

o Thrombin Time:

- § Measures how quickly Thrombin is being activated
- § Time taken for a clot to form, following addition of animal Thrombin
- § Measures:
 - The conversion of Fibrinogen \rightarrow Fibrin
 - Any deficiency of fibrinogen
 - Any inhibition of thrombin



THROMBOTIC DISORDERS

THROMBOTIC DISORDERS



Thrombosis = inappropriate formation of Platelet & Fibrin Clots

- Can cause obstruction to flow \rightarrow Ischaemia \rightarrow Necrosis
- Can Move Elsewhere = "ThromboEmbolism":
 - o Most are asymptomatic
 - o Fragments move swiftly in large vessels
 - o Lodge in small vessels Eg: Pulmonary Vessels \rightarrow Ischaemia/Necrosis of Lung Tissue
 - § 95% of Pulmonary Emboli due to Thrombosis of Leg/Calf muscles
- More common with 个age
- Affects both Arterial & Venous Systems

Arterial Thrombosis:

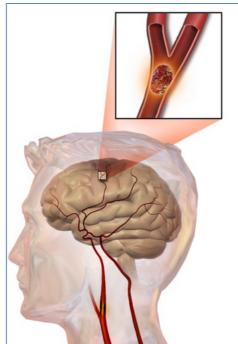
- 2 Mechanisms:
 - o 1- Atherosclerotic Plaque Rupture in Arterial walls → Arterial Thrombosis
 - § Ie: Rupture of Atherosclerotic Plaque \rightarrow
 - Exposure of SubEndothelial Collagen
 - Exposure of Tissue Factor
 - \rightarrow Thrombosis

o 2- Thromboembolism \rightarrow Arterial Thrombosis

§ Eg: Atrial thrombus formation during Atrial Fibrillation \rightarrow Embolus \rightarrow CVA/Stroke

- Risk Factors:

- o Family Hx
- o Males (more common)
- o 个Cholesterol
- o Diabetes
- о个ВР
- o Smoking
- o Obesity
- o Age
- Most common cause of:
 - o CerebroVascular Accidents (CVA's) aka: Stroke Clot in brain → Necrosis of Neurons
 - o **Myocardial Infarction (MI)** Due to Thrombi related to atherosclerosis in Coronary Arteries → Necrosis of Myocardium
 - O Peripheral Arterial Disease (PAD)



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Venous Thrombosis:

Occur Mostly in Lower Extremities (due to gravity pooling blood)



- O Includes Deep & Superficial Leg Veins
- o Patient may present with sore or swollen legs/calves

- Risk Factors:

O Hereditary Hypercoagulable States:

- § Factor V mutation
- § Prothrombin variant
- § Protein C deficiency
- § Protein S deficiency
- § Antithrombin Deficiency

O Acquired Hypercoagulable States:

§ High-Dose Oestrogen Therapy:

- 个Plasma levels of Coagulation Factors
- ↓ Antithrombin & Tissue-Plasminogen-Activator

§ Major Surgery/Trauma:

- Due to high tissue damage
- Immobility after surgery (Venous Stasis)
- Exposure of Tissue Factor
- **S** Pregnancy & Post-Partum (**A**Levels of Coagulation Factors during pregnancy)
- Sepsis (bacterial infection → widespread damage to endothelium)
- § Heparin-Induced Thrombocytopenia (some people on heparin develop antibodies to their
- § own platelets)
 - Blood Stasis:.....from:
 - Heart Failure (not pumping adequately)
 - Stroke
 - Prolonged Immobility
 - Nephrotic Syndrome (loss of Coagulation Factors through Urine)
 - Varicose Veins

- Treatment:

- O Anticoagulation (Either oral or parenteral)
- o Treat any Haemodynamic Instability of underlying cause

o Clot may require endovascular retrieval



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Evaluation of Thrombotic Disorders:

- Required if:
 - o Family History of Thrombosis
 - o Thrombosis at young age/unusual site
 - o Recurrent DVT

- Complete Blood Count ...&...Erythrocyte Sedimentation Rate:...Detect:

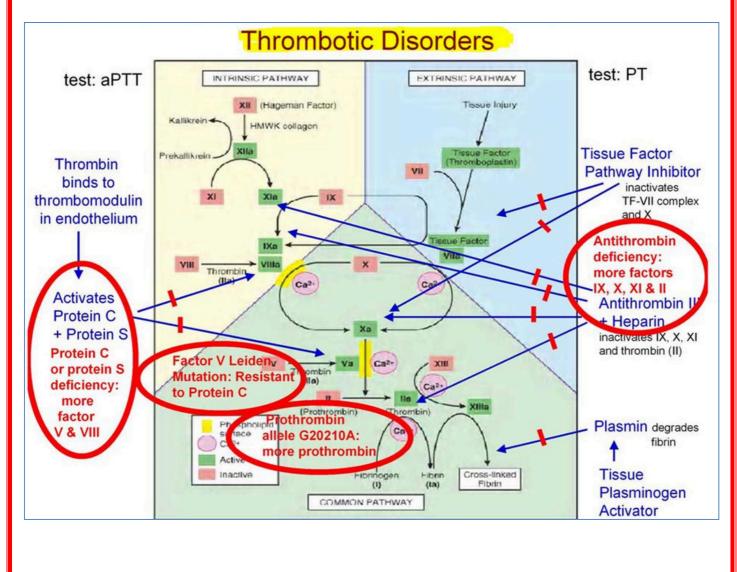
- o Change in Haematocrit
- o Change in White Cell Count
- O O Change in Platelet Count
- o Rechaelseriagfiterinagen

Prothrombin Time (PT):

- o Time taken for plasma to clot after addition of tissue factor (Factor III)
- o See above section for details
- 0 Detects deficiency of Factor VII

Activated Partial Thromboplastin Time (aPTT):

- o Time taken for plasma to clot after addition of phospholipids
- O See above section for details
- 0 Detects deficiency of Factors VIII, IX, XI or XII
- If Both PT & aPTT are Abnormal:
 - 0 Probably due to:
 - § Liver disease
 - § Vit-K Deficiency.....or
 - § Oral Anticoagulants
- INR If on Warfarin (Dose too low)









DRUGS FOR HAEMOSTASIS

DRUGS FOR HAEMOSTASIS Get Direction GLOBAL Factors Involved in Haemostasis – (Those in red are targeted by different Drugs to modulate Haemostasis): **Platelet Aggregating Agents:** o Sub-Endothelial Collagen (activates Platelets) o **Thromboxane** (Stimulates Expression of Glycoprotein Receptor "GP-IIb/IIIa" \rightarrow Aggregation) (Produced by Cyclo-Oxygenase in Platelets) ξ o ADP (Stimulates activation of Glycoprotein Receptor "GP-IIb/IIIa" \rightarrow Platelet-Aggregation) o Glycoprotein Receptor "GP-IIb/IIIa" - Allow platelets to physically combine with each other δ Promoted by ADP Receptor Activation **Anti-Platelet-Aggregating Factors:** o \uparrow cAMP \rightarrow \uparrow cAMP Inhibits Platelet Aggregation by decreasing Cytosolic Ca+ Levels \downarrow Ca+ \rightarrow Inhibits Ca-Mediated Vesicular Exocytosis of Pro-Aggregation Factors from the § Platelet (Particularly Thromboxane) **Pro-Coagulating Agents:** o Vitamin K (A Coenzyme in the synthesis of Prothrombin, Factors II, VII, IX & X (TV Channels) Coagulation Factors I-XIII 0 o Activated Factor X (Complex) o Prothrombin → Thrombin (Factor II) o Fibrinogen \rightarrow Fibrin Anti-Coagulating Agents (In Non-Damaged Tissue): o Antithrombin-III (Inactivates Thrombin {Factor II}→ Fibrinogen Activation → Fibrin) **Fibrinolysis Factors:** o Tissue Plasminogen Activator → Activates Plasminogen to become Plasmin o (Plasmin degrades fibrin clots) Remember, A "Clot" is Different to a "Thrombus": Clot: Occurs In-Vitro (Ie: Outside the Body) 0 o Also structurally different Thrombus: o Occurs In-Vivo (Ie: Inside the Body – Typically forms in moving blood) Also structurally different 0 Virchow's Triad: - Formation of Thrombosis: Three Conditions Predispose to Inappropriate Thrombus Formation: 1- Endothelial Injury: 0

- § Eg: Atherosclerosis
- § Eg: Aneurysm
- § Eg: Blood Vessel Disorders (Eg: Hereditary Haemorrhagic Telangiectasia)

2- Decreased Bloodflow (Or Stasis):

- § Eg: Atrial Fibrillation
- § Eg: Deep Vein Thrombosis
- § Eg: Incompetent Venous Valves

O 3- Hyper-Coagulability:

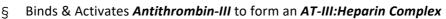
- § Eg: During Pregnancy
- § Eg: Drug Side Effects
- § Eg: Hyperproliferative Blood Conditions (Eg: Polycythemia Vera)



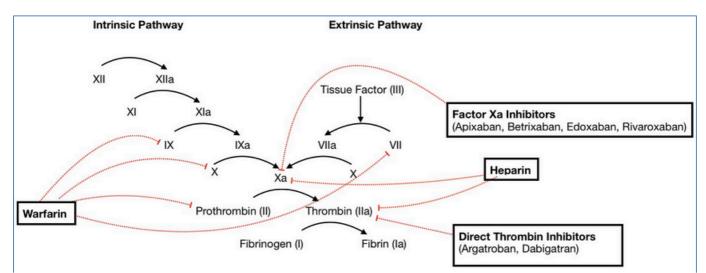
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ANTI-COAGULANTS:

Heparin (Including Low Molecular-Weight Heparins): • Mechanism of Action:



- § The **AT-III:Heparin Complex** \rightarrow :
 - 1- → Inactivates Thrombin (Factor-II):
 - o Therefore Inhibits activation of Prothrombin to Thrombin
 - $2 \rightarrow$ Inactivates Factor-X:
 - 0 Therefore Inhibits activation of Fibrinogen to Fibrin
 - 3- →Also Inhibits Most Intrinsic Pathway Factors (IX, XI, XII)



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0 Indications:

- § Any Acute Coronary Syndrome (Eg: NSTE-MI/Unstable Angina/Peripheral Arterial Occlusion)
- § Atrial Fibrillation
- § Deep-Vein Thrombosis & Pulmonary Embolism
- § Heart Surgery
- **O** Side Effects:
 - § *Haemorrhage (However *Protamine* is an antidote)
 - *Thrombocytopenia (See Next Page)
 - § (Osteoporosis)
 - § (Hypoaldosteronism with Hyperkalaemi)
 - § (Allergic Reactions/Local Reactions Skin Necrosis, Irritation, Haematomas)
- 0 Other Info:
 - § Rapid (Almost Instant) Onset of Action
 - § Heparin is ONLY used in a *Clinical Setting* (Ie: Pts can't be sent home on it)
 - § Cannot be administered orally (too lipophobic \rightarrow Poor absorption)
 - Therefore Delivered IV \rightarrow MUST BE MONITORED

Get Direction

GLOBAL



§ Thrombocytopenia = Low number of Platelets

o What is *Heparin-Induced* Thrombocytopenia?

- § Type-I:
 - Occurs during the first 1-2days of Treatment
 - Transient & Asymptomatic
 - Clinically Insignificant
- § Type-II:
 - Occurs around Day 5 of Treatment
 - Consequence of an Immune Reaction
 - Associated with a Thrombo-embolic Risk

o Theory behind Heparin-Induced Thrombocytopenia:

- § Antibodies (IgG & IgM) directed against Complexes of Heparin & Platelet-Factor-4
- § Binding of Antibodies to Heparin:PF4 forms an Immune Complex (Ab:Hep:PF4) which *Activates Platelets* → Thrombus Formation (→Thrombocytopenia)

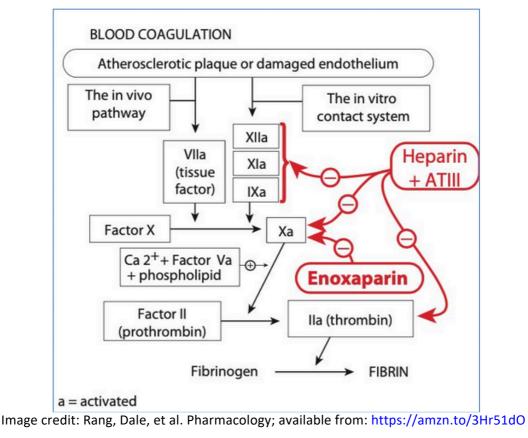
Low Molecular-Weight Heparins (LMWH) – Eg: ENOXAPARIN:

- o What are they?:
 - § = Small Heparin Fragments
- o Mechanism of Action:
 - § Binds & Activates Antithrombin-III to form an AT-III:Heparin Complex (Same as Heparin)
 - #1- → Inactivates Factor-X:
 - O Therefore Inhibits activation of Fibrinogen to Fibrin

§ Note: However, LMWHs are Too Small to inactivate Thrombin :. Only target Factor-X

o Advantages over Normal Heparin:

- § Longer T1/2
- § Self-Administration (Sub-Cut Injection)
- § Dose-Effects are more predictable
- § NO need for monitoring (Ie: Pt can go home \rightarrow Frees up a hospital bed)
- § (However, it is quite expensive)

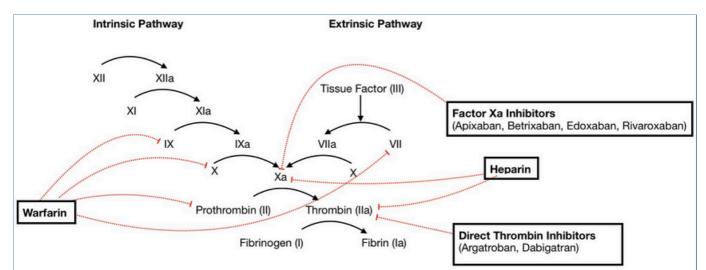


Coumarins/Coumadins (Warfarin):

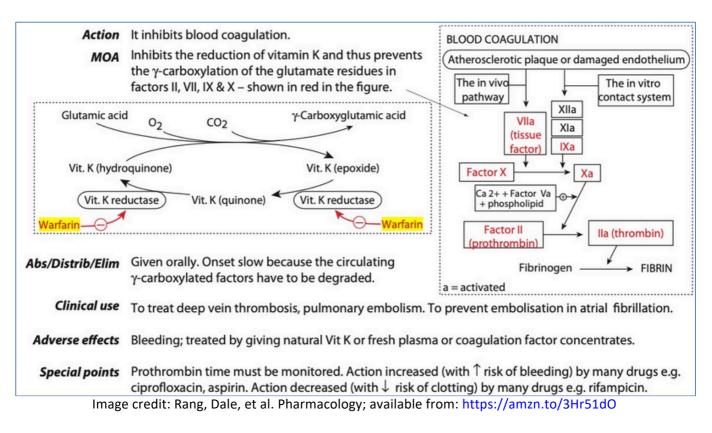
o Mechanism of Action:



- § A Vitamin-K Analogue \rightarrow Inhibits synthesis of Pro-Coagulation Factors:
 - ↓Prothrombin
 - \downarrow Factor-II (Thrombin)
 - ↓*Factor-VII*
 - ↓*Factor-IX*
 - ↓*Factor-X*
- § Explanation:
 - Normally: Vit-K is activated by 'Epoxide Reductase', allowing it to aid in the synthesis of the above coagulation factors
 - Warfarin: Warfarin Competes with Vit-K for 'Epoxide Reductase', reducing synthesis of coagulation factors



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$_{\odot}$ Side Effects:

§ *Bleeding – (However *Vitamin-K* is an antidote)



- § Note: Many factors influence effectiveness:
- S (Diet/Alcohol/Body Mass/Other Meds/Alternative Meds/Comorbidity/genetics) Is TERATOGENIC – CONTRAindicated in Pregnancy

Drug Interactions:

- § Warfarin is metabolised by Cytochrome-P-450 Liver Enzymes
 - Therefore, any drug that Induces CYP-450 enzymes significantly reduces effect of Warfarin
 - Eg: Carbamazepine, Phenytoin, Phenobarbitone ANTI-EPILEPTICS!!!

$_{\odot}$ Other Info:

§

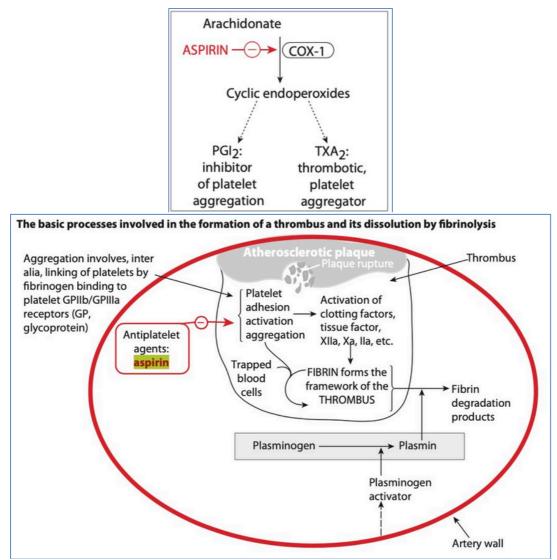
- § Slow Onset (Takes several days for sufficient competition to occur & for pre-existing
- § coagulation factors to be used up)
- § Used for *Long-Term* home-management & doesn't require monitoring Note: Vitamin-K can be used as an *Antidote* for Warfarin Overdose
 - Similarly, a high Vit-K diet can decrease warfarin's effectiveness

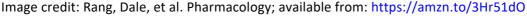
ANTI-PLATELET DRUGS: **Aspirin:



o Mechanism of Action:

- § COX-I Inhibitor Irreversibly Inhibits Cyclo-Oxygenase-1 (COX-1)→ Prevents Thromboxane formation from Arachidonic Acid
 - (COX-1 (and COX-2) is responsible for Prostanoid synthesis [Ie: Prostaglandins, Thromboxane & Prostacyclin] from Arachidonic Acid, and is expressed by all cells)
 o (Cox-2 is only expressed during inflammation & wound healing)
 - (Note: Thromboxane is a Platelet-Aggregator Acts by stimulating the expression of the Glycoprotein receptor "GP-IIb/IIIa" → Aggregation)
- § Note: Aspirin blocks a Platelet's Thromboxane-forming abilities for the life of the platelet
 - Why? Because platelets have NO Nucleus → Can't Re-synthesize Cyclo-oxygenase
 - Therefore Aspirin has an 'apparent' selectivity for Platelets





$_{\odot}$ Indications:

- § Reduce risk of Myocardial Infarction/Angina
- § Acute Stroke
- **○** Side Effects:
 - GI-Bleeding (due to loss of Prostaglandins [which are protective by ↓Acid & ↑Mucus])
 Toxic dose can cause Respiratory Alkalosis
- $_{\odot}$ Other Info:
 - § Note: Antiplatelet effects of Aspirin occur at Low Doses (~100-300mg/day)
 - Headaches ≈ 600-900mg/day
 - Anti-Inflammatory ≈ 5000mg/day (BUT → Now Obsolete due to GI Problems)







- § **Phosphodiesterase (PDE) Inhibitor:**
 - (Note: PDE normally inactivates cAMP)
 - PDE-Inhibitors *Prevent* inactivation of cAMP (& cGMP) $\rightarrow \uparrow$ cAMP \rightarrow
- **S** Adenosine Uptake Blocker:
 - \rightarrow Increased Intracellular Adenosine (the major constituent of cAMP) \rightarrow \uparrow cAMP \rightarrow
 - (Adenosine also acts as a Vasodilator)
 - →↑cAMP→↑cAMP Inhibits Platelet Aggregation by decreasing Cytosolic Ca+ Levels

o \downarrow Ca+ \rightarrow Inhibits Ca-Mediated Vesicular Exocytosis of Pro-Aggregation Factors from the Platelet (Particularly Thromboxane)

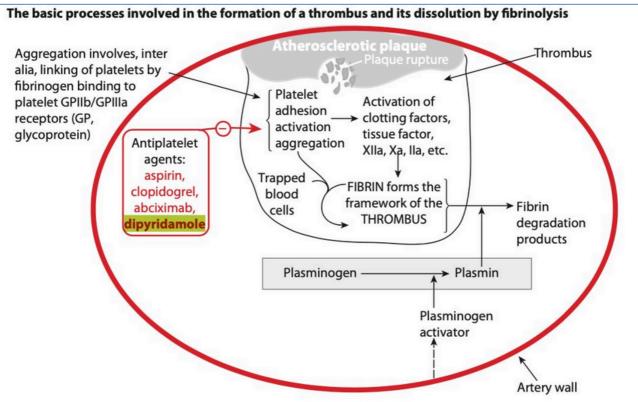


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$_{\odot}$ Indications:

- § Secondary Prevention of Ischaemic Stroke
- § Secondary Prevention of Transient Ischaemic Attacks (TIAs 'Mini strokes')

$_{\odot}$ Side Effects:

- § Headache
- § GIT Disturbances
- § Hypotension
- § Allergy

Clopidogrel:



- o Mechanism of Action:
 - **ADP-Receptor Antagonists** \rightarrow Prevents Binding of ADP to platelet \rightarrow ξ
 - \rightarrow Prevents ADP-Mediated activation of Glycoprotein Receptor "GP-IIb/IIIa" \rightarrow
 - $o \rightarrow$ Prevents Platelet-Aggregation

Indications: 0

- (Originally used for Patients Intolerant to Aspirin now *also* used in conjunction with Aspirin) §
- Myocardial Infarction (Prevention & Treatment) §

Side Effects: 0

- Bleeding §
- ξ GI Discomfort
- § Rashes

Other Info: 0

§

- Is a 'Pro-Drug' \rightarrow Must be metabolised by Cytochrome-P450 enzymes to be Activated §
 - (Note: Active metabolite is unknown)
- § Onset Takes ≈ 8-10 days

Action is augmented by other Antithrombotic Drugs

ABCIXIMAB:

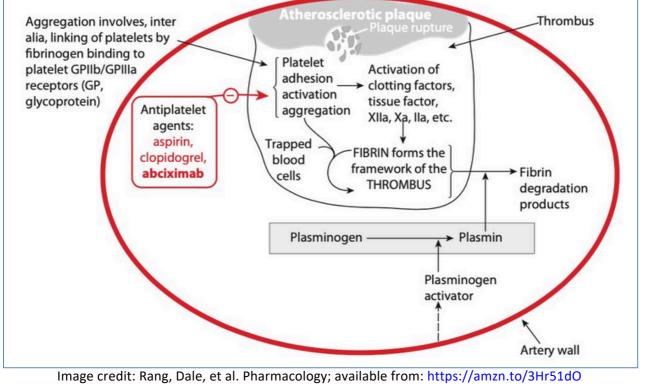
o Mechanism of Action:

- **GP-IIb/IIIa Antagonist:** §
- § A Monoclonal Antibody against the Platelet Glycoprotein Receptor "GP-IIb/IIIa" §
 - (GP-IIb/IIIa Destruction \rightarrow No Aggregation)
 - Surface-Proteins:
 - Vitronectin Receptors (which play a major role in platelet aggregation)

Indications: 0

- Used in Angioplasty (Ie: Widening a narrowed/obstructed vessel Typically Atherosclerotic) §
- § Possible use in preventing Thrombus/Embolus complications during Neurovascular Surgery
- Side Effects: 0
 - Bleeding §
 - δ Thrombocytopenia
- o Other Information:
 - Note: The name is simply the 'well number' + MAB (monoclonal antibody) ξ





THROMBOLYTICS: Get Direction Note: Schematic of Fibrin Formation & Degradation: GLOBAL **Extrinsic Pathway** Intrinsic Pathway prothrombin plasminogen Damage to tissue outside the vessel Damage to the blood vessel plasmin thrombin Fibrin (enzyme) (enzyme) Fibrin degradation Fibrinogen fibrinolysis coagulation products Throm Blood Clot

- Streptokinase:

o Mechanism of Action:

- § An exogenous Plasminogen Activator (Catalyses conversion of Plasminogen to Plasmin)
 - \rightarrow Plasmin Degrades Fibrin

O Indications:

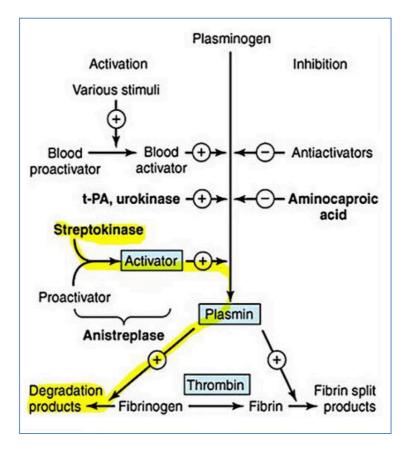
- § Thrombolysis of Inappropriate Blood Clots:
 - Pulmonary Embolism
 - Myocardial Infarction
 - Stroke

Side Effects:

§ Risk of Haemorrhage

Other Info:

- § Derived from Haemolytic-Streptococci Bacteria
- § *Inhibited by Lipoproteina (an endogenous lipoprotein now considered a risk factor for MI)



- (Exogenous) Recombinant Tissue Plasminogen Activator (r-tPA):

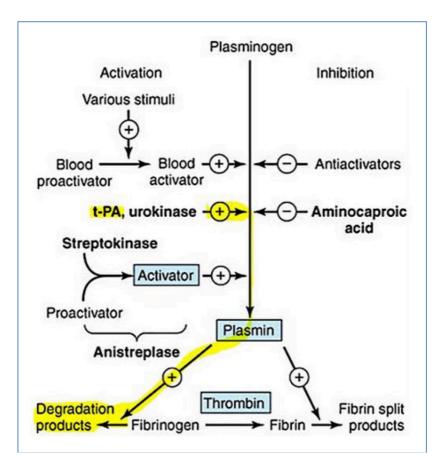
- Note: Tissue Plasminogen Activator (tPA) is normally a protein expressed on Indothelial Cells lining Undamaged Blood Vessels:
 - § Its role is to prevent inappropriate fibrin-clot formation in *Intact* Vessels
 - § However, tPA can be Manufactured using Recombinant Biotechnology \rightarrow r-tPA:

• Ie: "Alteplase/Tenecteplase/Reteplase"

- o Mechanism of Action:
 - § Exogenous Plasminogen Activator (Catalyse conversion of Plasminogen to Plasmin)
 - \rightarrow Plasmin Degrades Fibrin \rightarrow Thrombolysis
- o Indications:
 - § Thrombolysis of Inappropriate Blood Clots:
 - Pulmonary Embolism
 - Myocardial Infarction
 - Deep Vein Thrombosis
 - Stroke
 - Novel use = *Frostbite* \rightarrow fewer amputations
- § Nove o Side Effects:
 - § Risk of Haemorrhage (However, is 'clot-specific' \rightarrow fewer haemorrhages)
 - § (However, in tPA Overdose, *Aminocaproic Acid* is an Antidote)
 - § Nausea/Vomiting
 - *Inhibited by Lipoproteina (an endogenous lipoprotein now considered a risk factor for MI)

o Other Info:

§ Very expensive (Sometimes Not Cost-Effective)



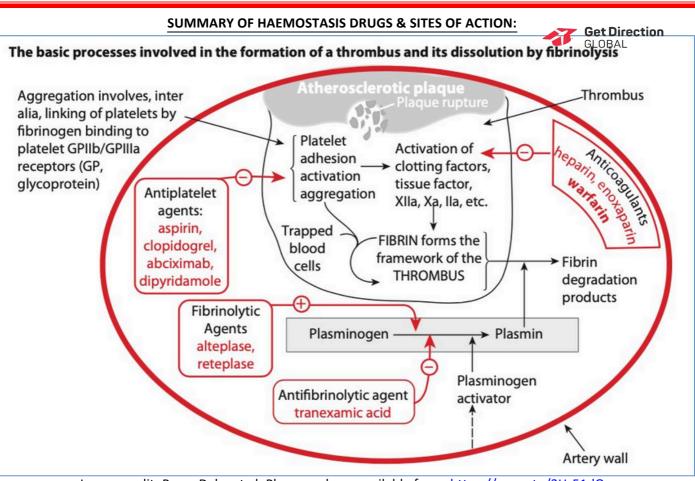


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