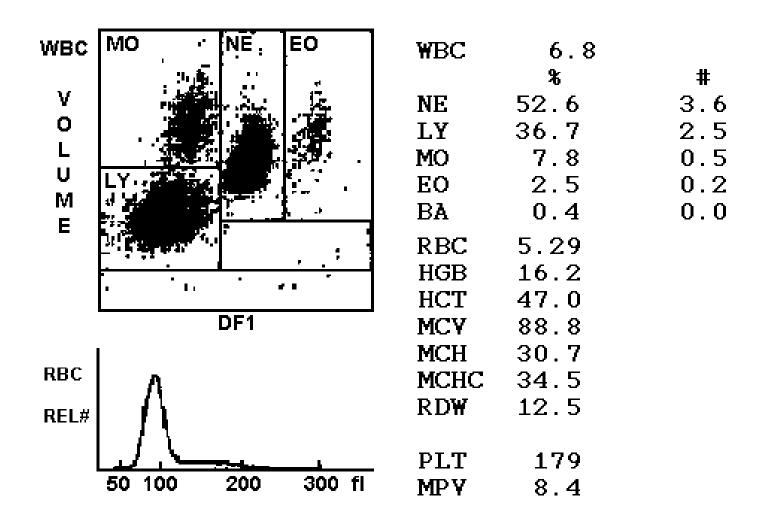
RED BLOOD CELL DISORDERS

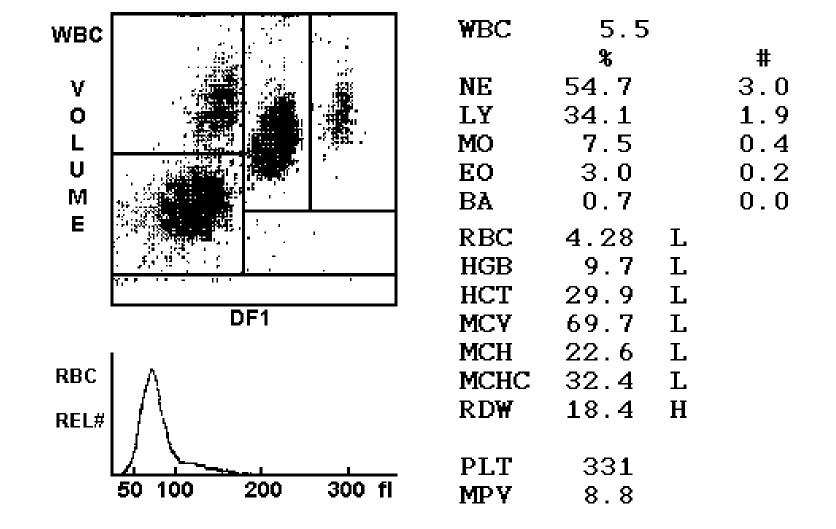
Decreased erythrocyte number \rightarrow ANEMIA Increased erythrocyte number \rightarrow POLICYTEMIA

Adult Reference Ranges for Red Blood Cells

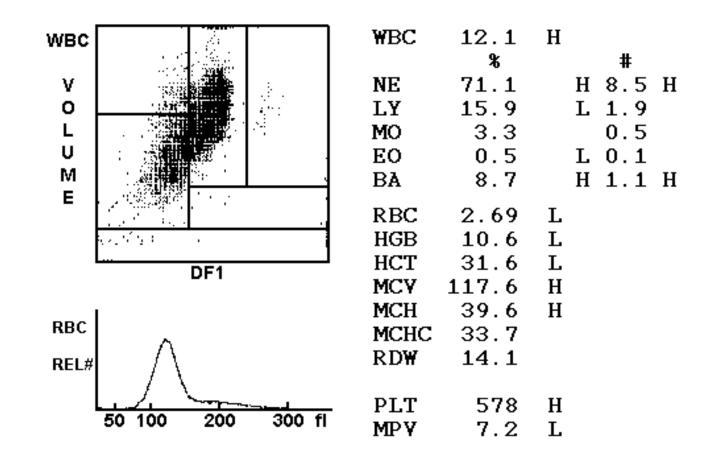
	Men	Women
Hemoglobin (g/dL) HGB	13.6-17.2	12.0-15.0
Hematocrit (%) HCT	39-49	33-43
Red cell count (10 ⁶ /µL) RBC	4.3-5.9	3.5-5.0
Reticulocyte count (%)	0.5-	-1.5
Mean cell volume (MCV; µm ³)	82-	-96
Mean corpuscular hemoglobin (MCH; pg)	27-	-33
Mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration (MCHC; g/dL)	33-	-37
RBC distribution width (RDW; coefficient of variation of volume)	11.5-	14.5



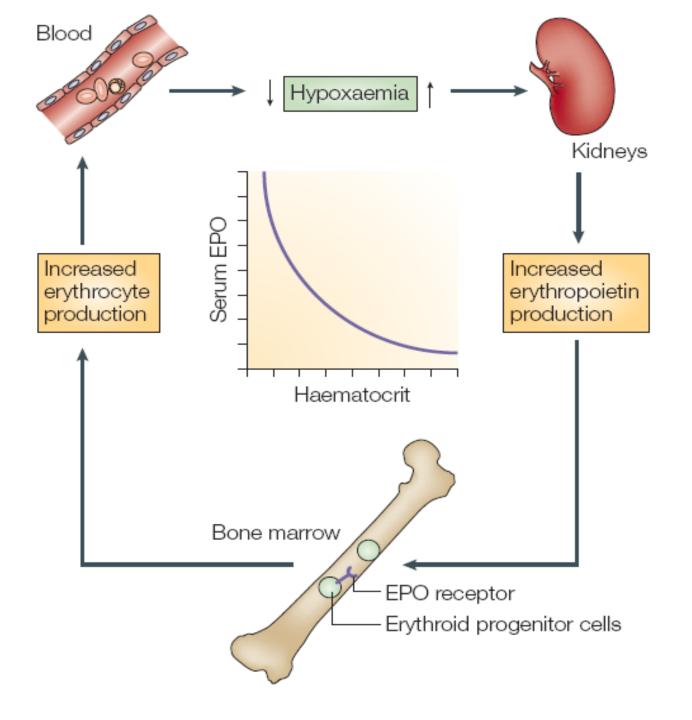
This is normal data from a complete blood count as performed on an automated instrument, including an automated WBC differential count.

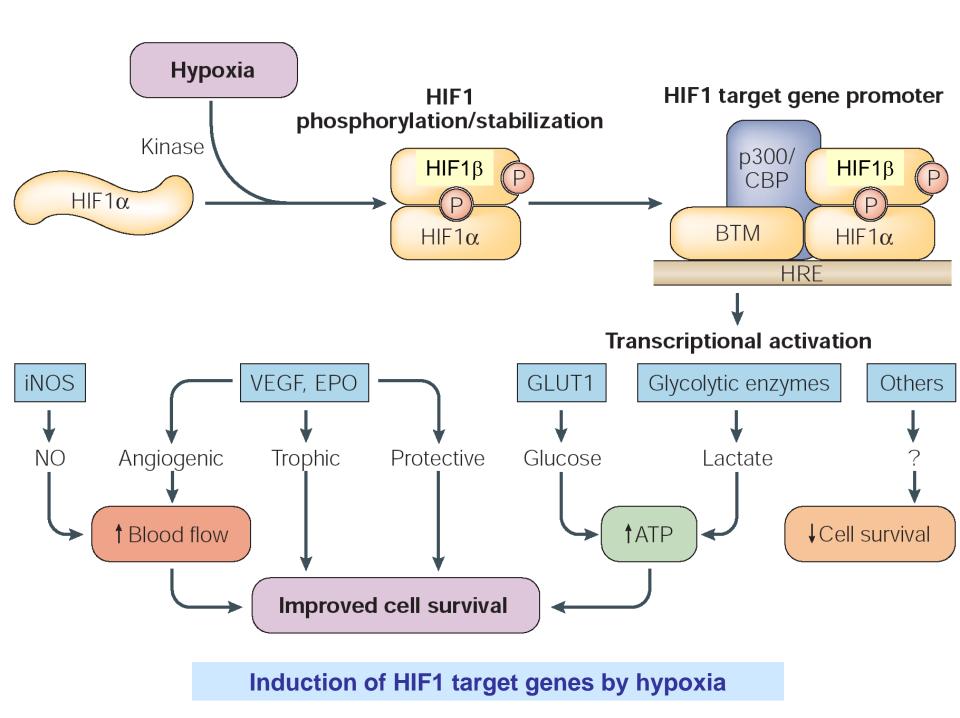


Here is data from a CBC in a person with iron deficiency anemia. Note the low hemoglobin (HGB). Microcytosis is indicated by the low MCV (mean corpuscular volume). Hypochromia correlates here with the low MCH (mean corpuscular hemoglobin).



The CBC here shows a markedly increased MCV, typical for megaloblastic anemia. The MCV can be mildly increased in persons recovering from blood loss or hemolytic anemia, because the newly released RBC's, the reticulocytes, are increased in size over normal RBC's, which decrease in size slightly with aging.





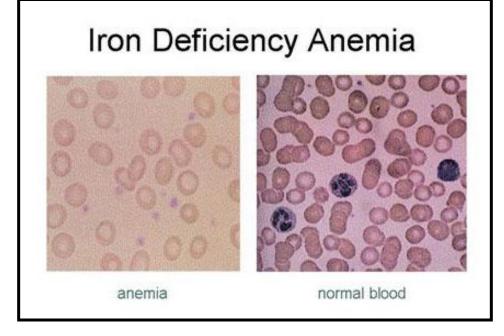
DECREASED RED CELL PRODUCTION

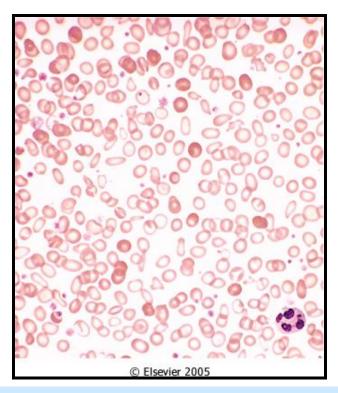
Specific Examples
Fanconi anemia, telomerase defects
Thalassemia syndromes
B ₁₂ and folate deficiencies
Iron deficiency anemia
Renal failure, anemia of chronic disease
Aplastic anemia, pure red cell aplasia
Anemia of chronic disease
Acute leukemia, myelodysplasia, myeloproliferative disorders
Metastatic neoplasms, granulomatous disease
Parvovirus B19 infection
Endocrine disorders, hepatocellular liver disase

SIDEROPENIC ANEMIA

Due to reduced intake or to metabolic problems

Iron need: •man: < 1.0 mg/day •fertile woman: 1.5 mg/day, increases during pregnancy

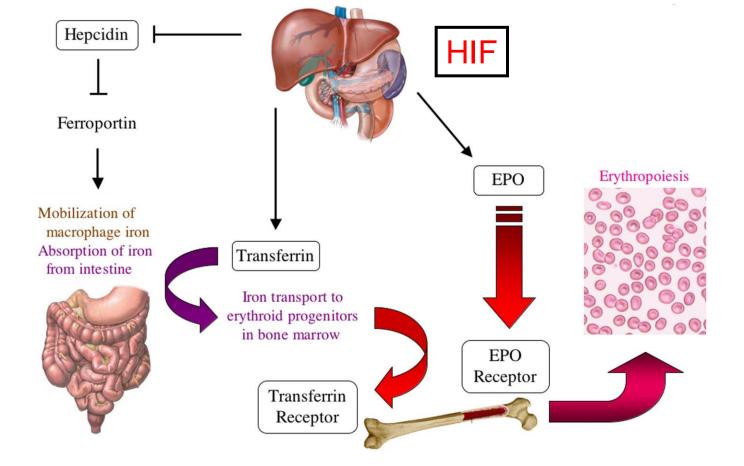




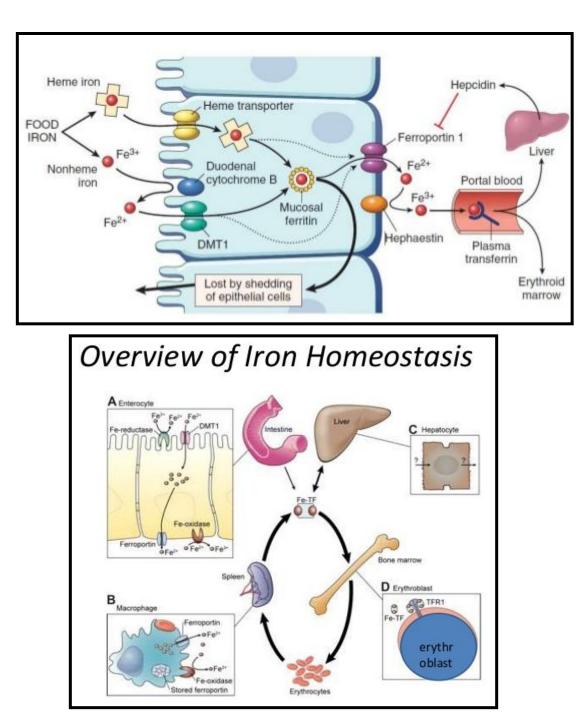
Hypochromic microcytic anemia of iron deficiency (peripheral blood smear). Note the small red cells containing a narrow rim of peripheral hemoglobin. Scattered fully hemoglobinized cells, present due to recent **blood transfusion**, stand in contrast.

Main proteins involved in iron metabolism					
 transferrin (Tr; binds 2 iron atoms) Tr receptor (binds 2 Tr = 4 iron atoms) ferritin (binds about 4.500 iron atoms) hemosiderin (insoluble ferritin, in bone marrow, spleen, liver) 					
iron distribution in the adult (50-40 mg/kg body weight)					
	mg/kg				
	man	woman			
functional iron					
• Hb	31	28			
 myoglobin 	5	4			
• enzymes	2	2			
transport iron					
• Tr	< 1	< 1			
iron stores					
ferritin	8	4			

• hemosiderin 4 2



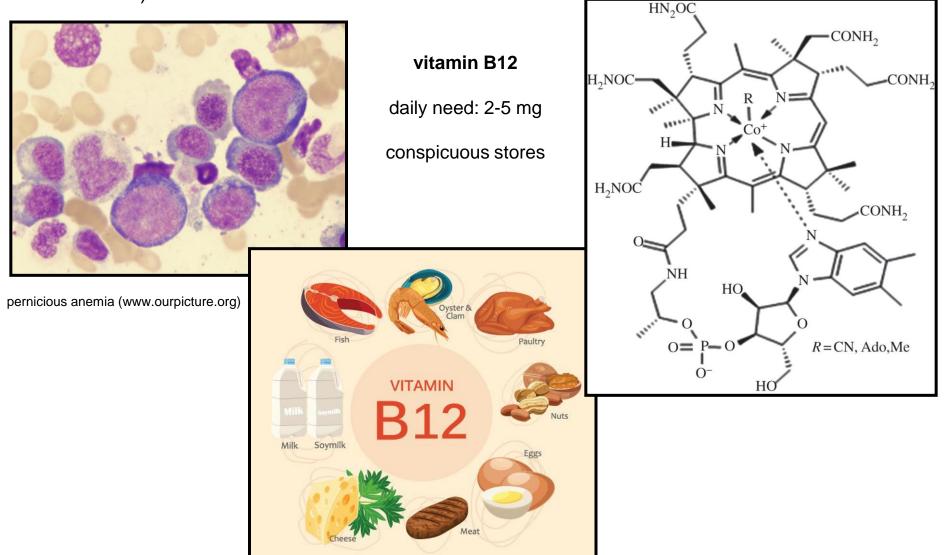
HIF-1 regulates the expression of multiple genes to stimulate erythropoiesis in response to hypoxia. HIF-1 stimulates production of the EPO in the kidney, which binds to its receptor (EPOR) on erythroid progenitors in the bone marrow (in the adult and yolk sac in the embryo) to stimulate their survival, proliferation, and differentiation. Erythropoiesis involves uptake by the marrow of large amounts of iron, which are used in the synthesis of hemoglobin. In the liver, HIF-1 stimulates iron uptake by repressing the gene encoding hepcidin, which is an inhibitor of ferroportin, the major protein responsible for intestinal iron uptake. HIF-1 also activates hepatic synthesis of transferrin, the major plasma protein responsible for transporting iron from the intestine to the bone marrow via the transferrin receptor. Thus, HIF-1 directly regulates the expression of 5 gene products (EPO, EPOR, hepcidin, transferrin, and transferrin receptor) involving 5 different organs (kidney, liver, intestine, blood, and bone marrow) to control erythropoiesis (Semenza, 2009).

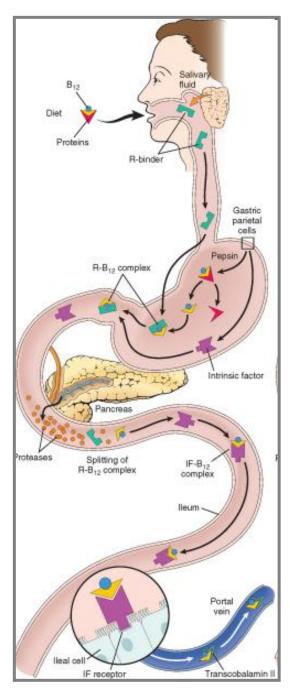


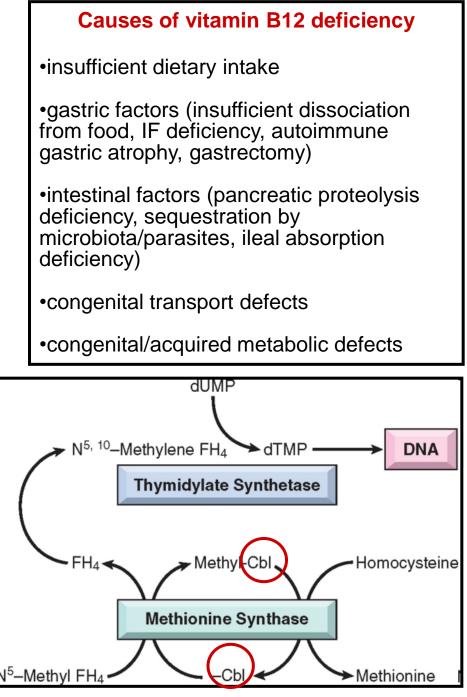
CAUSES OF IRON DEPLETION
A. <u>Increased need</u>
 bleeding growth pregnancy and milking
<u>B. Insufficient uptake</u>
 inadequate diet malabsorption

MEGALOBLASTIC ANEMIAS

Most frequent causes: deficiency of vitamin B12 (pernicious anemia) or folic acid (perniciouslike anemias)







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GENETIC DISEASES OF GLOBIN CHAIN (mendelian inheritance)

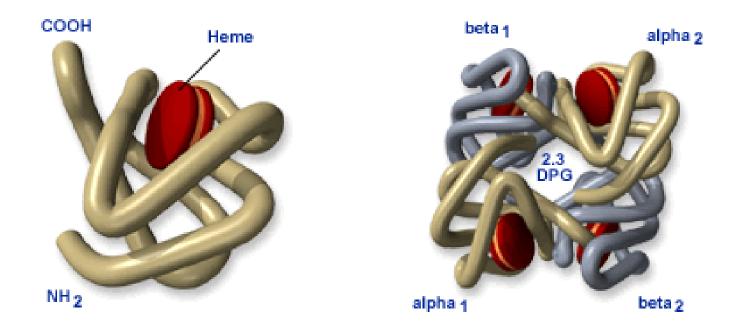
I. Structural defectsII. Synthesis rate defects

→ hemoglobinopaties

 $\rightarrow \alpha$ and β thalassemias

HEMOGLOBIN (Hb)

α2β2 tetramer (HbA1)
each globin chain bound to one heme (Fe²⁺)
95% of red blood cell content



GENE CHROMOSOME	ζ #16 -	a a	ε #11 -	Gy A	γ δ β
POLYPEPTIDE SUBUN PRODUCED IN:		α α α α	ε	↓ ↓ Gy A Gy A	γ γ β γ δ β
HEMOGLOBIN	FORMULA			NAME	
embryo	$\zeta_2 \epsilon_2$		Gowerl		
	α ₂ ε ₂		Gower II		
	ζ2	¥2		Port	and I
fetus	α ₂ β ₂		Α		
	α ₂ Υ ₂		F		
adult	α ₂ β ₂		A	97-98%	
	$\alpha_2 \delta_2$		A ₂ ^{2-3,5%}		
	α	β ₂ ^{glucos}	9	A	< 6% lc
R. T. Jones. 1997. McGraw Hill Encyclopedia of Science & Technology.					

ALTERED Hb SYNTHESIS RATES: α OR β THALASSEMIAS

<u>β-thalassemia</u>

homozygosis $\rightarrow \beta$ -thalassemia major (Cooley disease or mediterranean anemia) heterozygosis $\rightarrow \beta$ -thalassemia minor (β -thalassemic tract; compensated by HbA2 and HbF. Need to identify carriers)

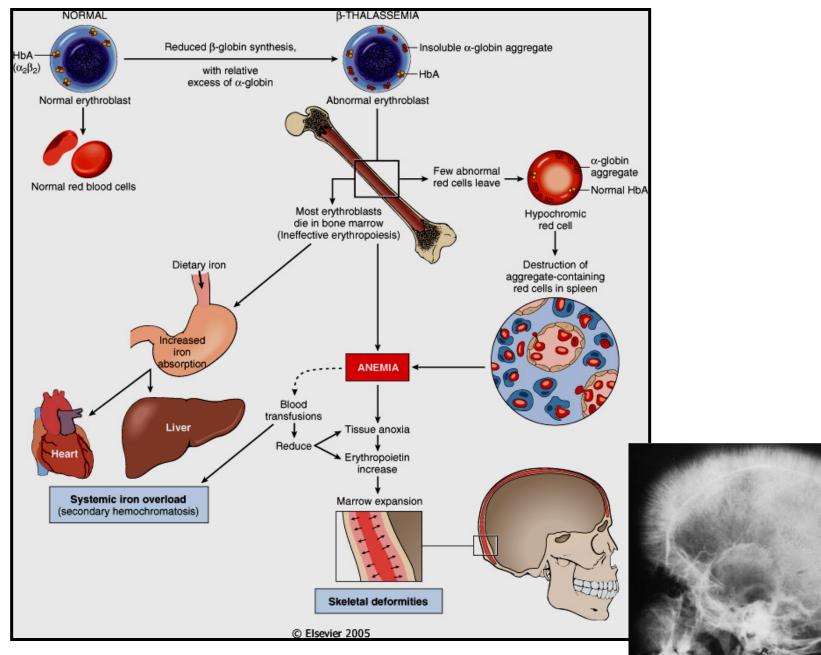
- exon nonsense mutations (recessive phenotype) $\rightarrow \beta^0$ -thalassemia (no transcript)
- intron mutations (recessive phenotype) → β⁺-thalassemia (uncorrect mRNA splicing→ reduced β chain synthesis)

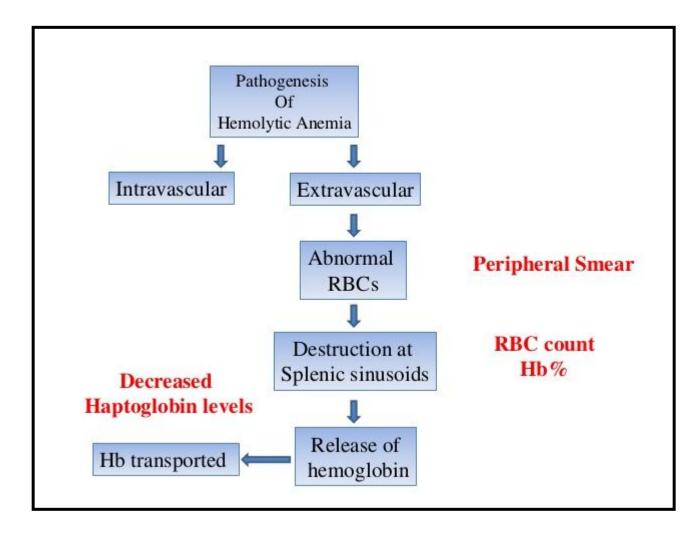
- unbalanced globin chain synthesis $\rightarrow \alpha$ chains aggregate and precipitate in erythrocytes (reduced half life) and in precursors (ineffective erythropoiesis due to destruction in bone marrow)

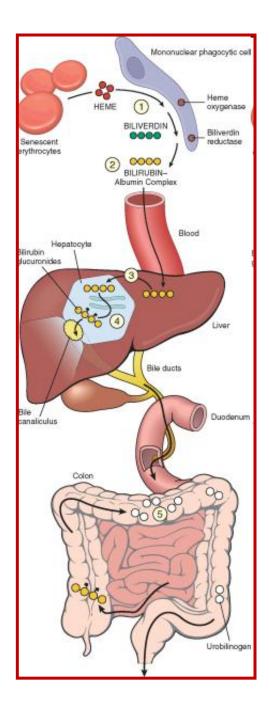
- sometimes HbF produced to compensate

ANEMIA: due to both reduced production and increased destruction of erythrocytes

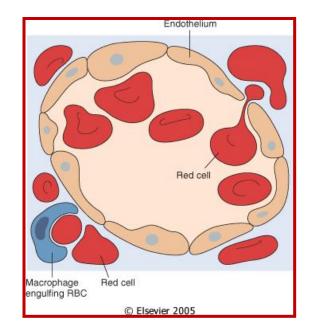
Thalassemia major: pathogenesis





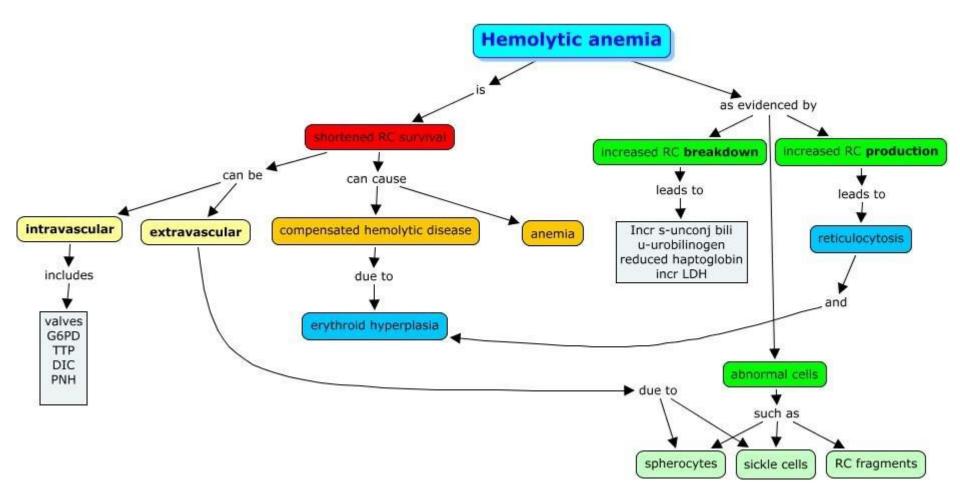


EXTRAVASCULAR HEMOLYSIS



Elsevier, 2010

Mechanism	Specific Examples
A. Inherited genetic defects	
Red cell membrane disorders	Hereditary spherocytosis, hereditary elliptocytosis
1. Enzyme deficiencies	
Hexose monophosphate shunt enzyme deficiencies	G6PD deficiency, glutathione synthetase deficiency
Glycolytic enzyme deficiencies	Pyruvate kinase deficiency, hexokinase deficiency
2. Hemoglobin abnormalities	
Deficient globin synthesis	Thalassemia syndromes
Structurally abnormal globins (hemoglobinopathies)	Sickle cell disease, unstable hemoglobins
B. Acquired genetic defects	
Deficiency of phosphatidylinositol-linked glycoproteins	Paroxysmal nocturnal hemoglobinuria
c. Extrinsic causes	
Antibody-mediated destruction	Hemolytic disease of the newborn (Rh disease), transfusion
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	reactions, drug-induced, autoimmune disorders
Mechanical trauma	
Microangiopathic hemolytic anemias	Hemolytic uremic syndrome, disseminated intravascular coagulation, thrombotic thrombocytopenia purpura
Cardiac traumatic hemolysis	Defective cardiac valves
Repetitive physical trauma	Bongo drumming, marathon running, karate chopping
Infections of red cells	Malaria, babesiosis
Toxic or chemical injury	Clostridial sepsis, snake venom, lead poisoning
Membrane lipid abnormalities	Abetalipoproteinemia, severe hepatocellular liver disease
Seguestration	Hypersplenism



HEMOGLOBINOPATIES

- **1. Single point mutations**: HbS β 6glu \rightarrow val
- 2. Double point mutations in the same globin chain
- **3.** *Nonsense mutations*: es. β 39 CAG(gln) \rightarrow TAG(stop) <u>frequent in thalassemias</u>
- 4. Mutations causing elongation
- 5. Mutationi due to fusion genes <u>Hb Lepore</u> $(\delta\beta)$
- 6. Codon deletion/insertion (in frame and frameshift)

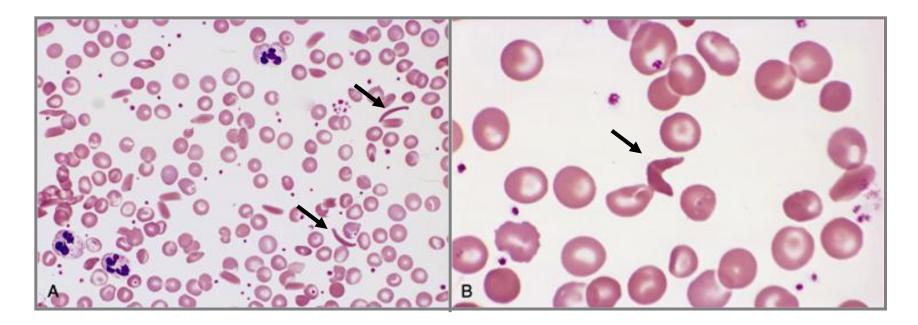
Α	SICKLE CELL DISEASE
в	UNSTABLE Hb
С	MODIFIED O2 AFFINITY
D	ALTERED O2 TRANSPORTATION

SICKLE CELL DISEASE

HbS: β 6glu \rightarrow val; autosomal recessive inheritance

heterozygosis carriers → low frequency clinical signs: HbS 35-40%, HbA1 55-60%

homozygosis SICKLE CELL DISEASE → early death

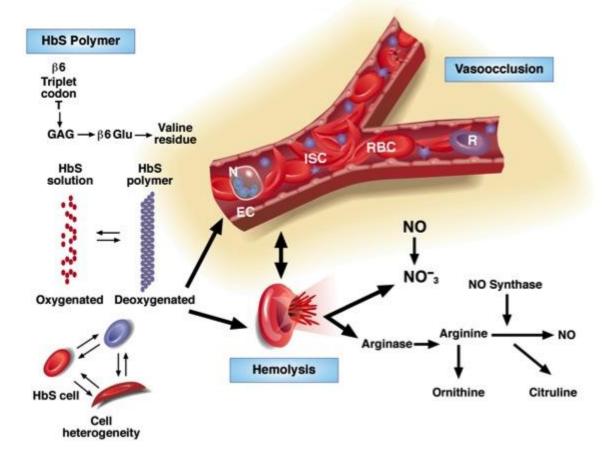


Deoxygenated blood: adjacent mutated β chain polimerize (β 6val)

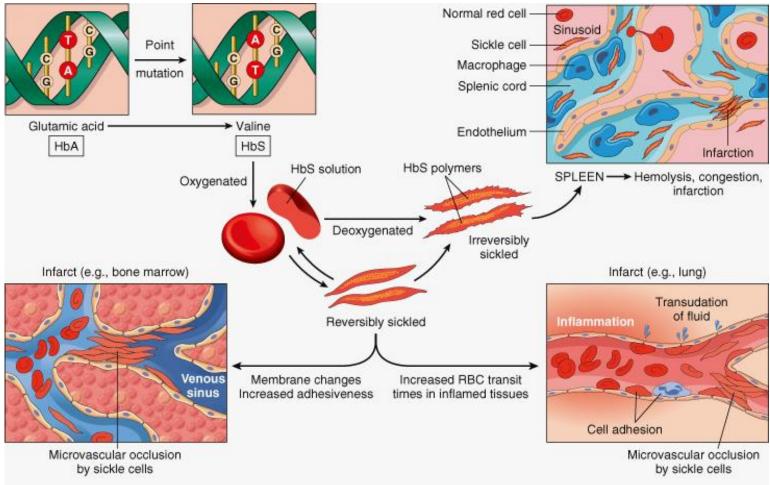
asymptomatic until HbF can compensate (6 months)

SICKLE CELL DISEASE: PATHOGENESIS

Pathophysiology of Sickle Cell Disease

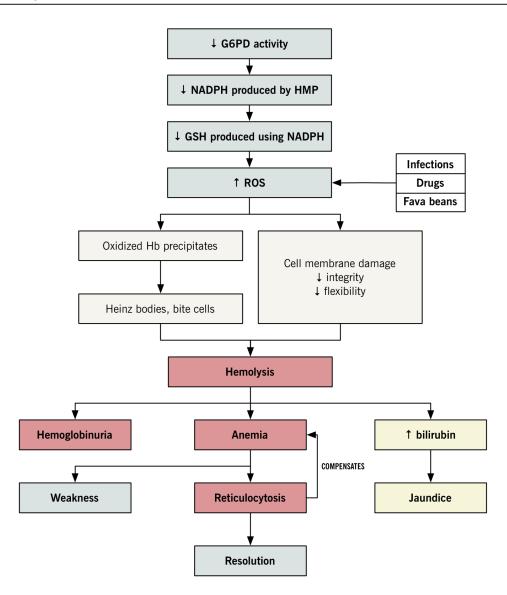


SICKLE CELL DISEASE: PATHOGENESIS





Jennifer Klowak

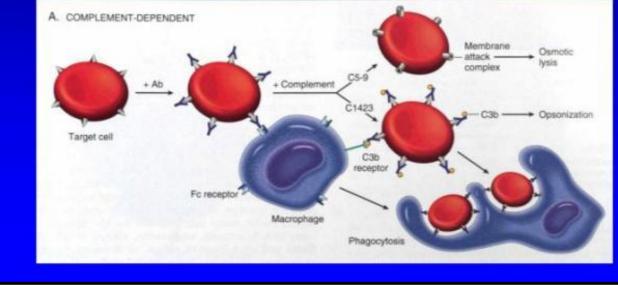


IMMUNOHEMOLYTIC ANEMIAS

Type II Hypersensitivity Reactions

Hemolytic Anemia

- 1. Antibody-Complement Mediated Lysis
 - Intravascular
 - Extravascular



ISOANTIBODIES

non compatible transfusion newborn hemolytic disease (Rh incompatibility)

AUTOANTIBODIES

warm Ab caldi (IgG) cold Ab (agglutinins, hemolysins) erythrocyte Ag acquiring immunogenicity

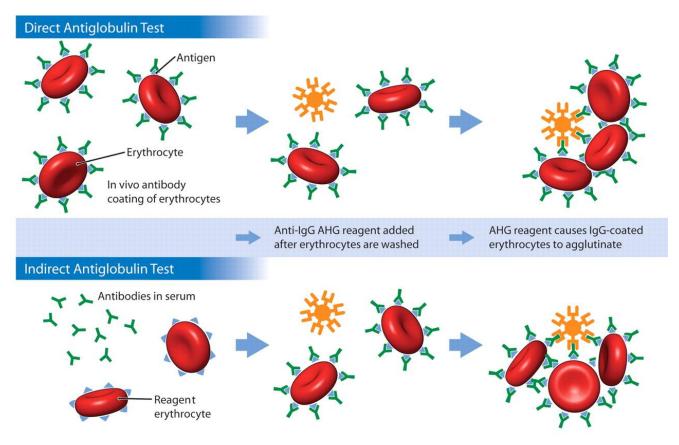
Diagnosis of immunohemolytic anemia

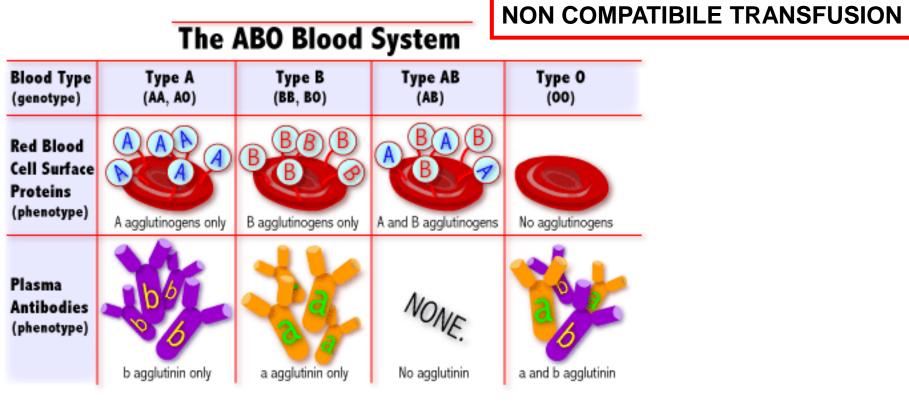
- *direct Coombs antiglobulin test*, in which **the patient's red cells** are mixed with sera containing antibodies that are specific for human immunoglobulin or complement.

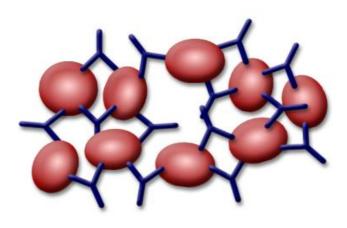
If either immunoglobulin or complement is present on the surface of the red cells, the multivalent antibodies cause agglutination, which is easily appreciated visually as clumping.

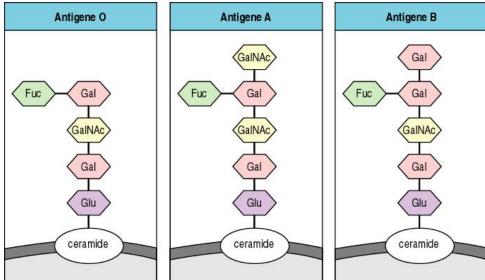
- *indirect Coombs antiglobulin test*, **the patient's serum** is tested for its ability to agglutinate commercially available red cells bearing particular defined antigens.

This test is used to characterize the antigen target and temperature dependence of the responsible antibody. Quantitative immunological tests to measure such antibodies directly are also available.

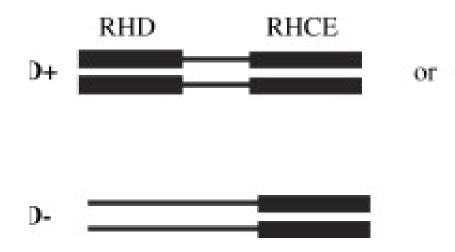








NEWBORN HEMOLYTIC DISEASE



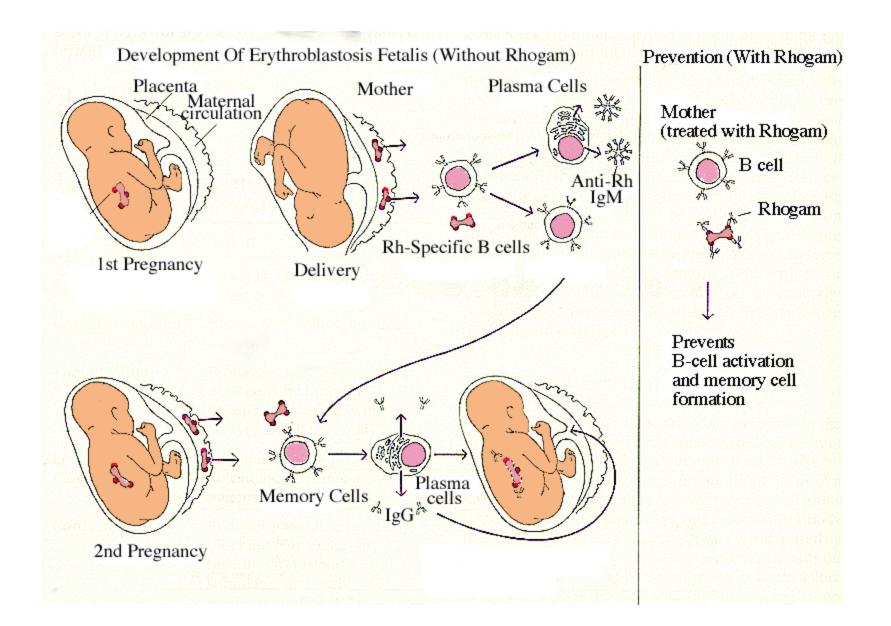


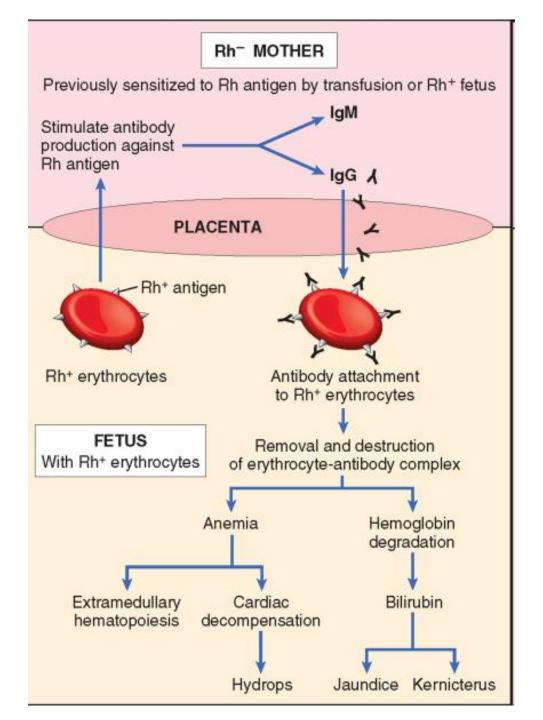
Van der Schoot et al., 2008

Rh Positive		Rh Negative		
0+	37%	0-	6%	
A+	34%	A-	6%	
B+	10%	B-	2%	
AB+	4%	AB-	1%	
85% positive		15% ne	gative	



Macacus rhesus; 1940

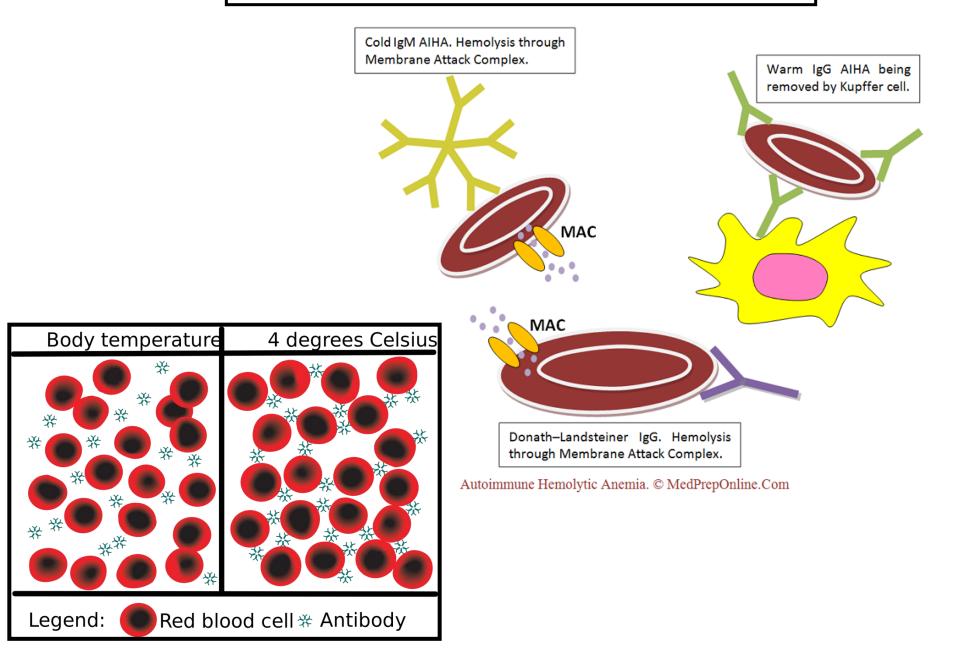




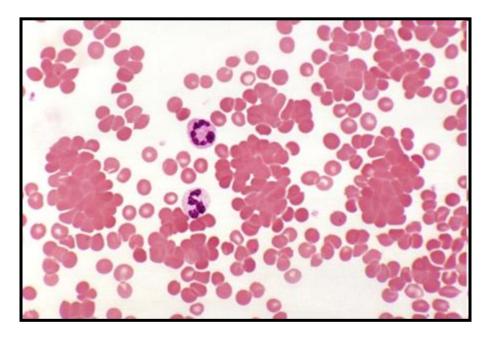
Elsevier, 2010



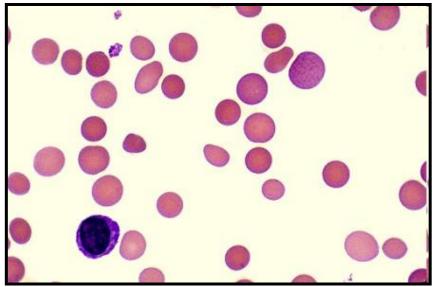
AUTOIMMUNE HEMOLYTIC ANEMIAS



cold antibodies hemolytic anemia agglutinin type (extravascular hemolysis) hemolysin type (intravascular hemolysis; parossistic hemoglobinuria)



warm antibodies hemolytic anemia

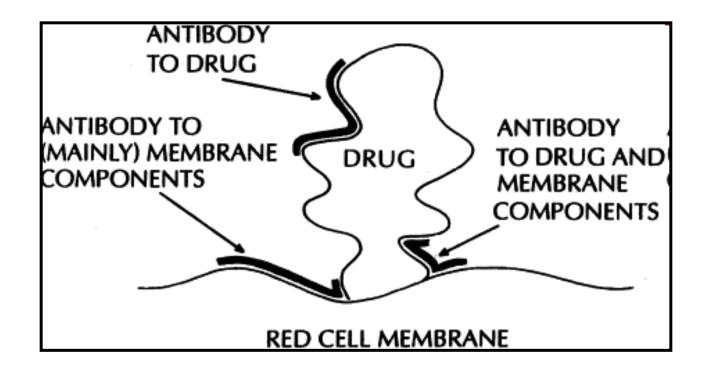




DRUG-INDUCED HEMOLYTIC ANEMIAS

Cephalosporins (3rd generation) Diclofenac α -Methyldopa High-dose therapy with penicillin for > 10 days Oxaliplatin Rifampicin Fludarabin Levodopa Quinidine Mefenamic acid

Salama, 2009



Proposed unifying hypothesis of drug-induced antibody reactions. The thicker, darker lines represent antigen-binding sites on the Fab region of the drug-induced antibody. Drugs (haptens) bind loosely (or firmly) to cell membranes, and antibodies can be made to (a) the drug (producing in vitro reactions typical of a drug adsorption [penicillin-type] reaction); (b) membrane components, or mainly membrane components (producing in vitro reactions typical of autoantibody); or (c) part-drug, part-membrane components (producing an in vitro reaction typical of the so-called immune complex mechanism). Reprinted with permission. <u>16</u> (Arndt and Garratty, 2005).