

Blood, Lymphatics and Immunology Review

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Histology of Lymphatic system

White Blood Cells

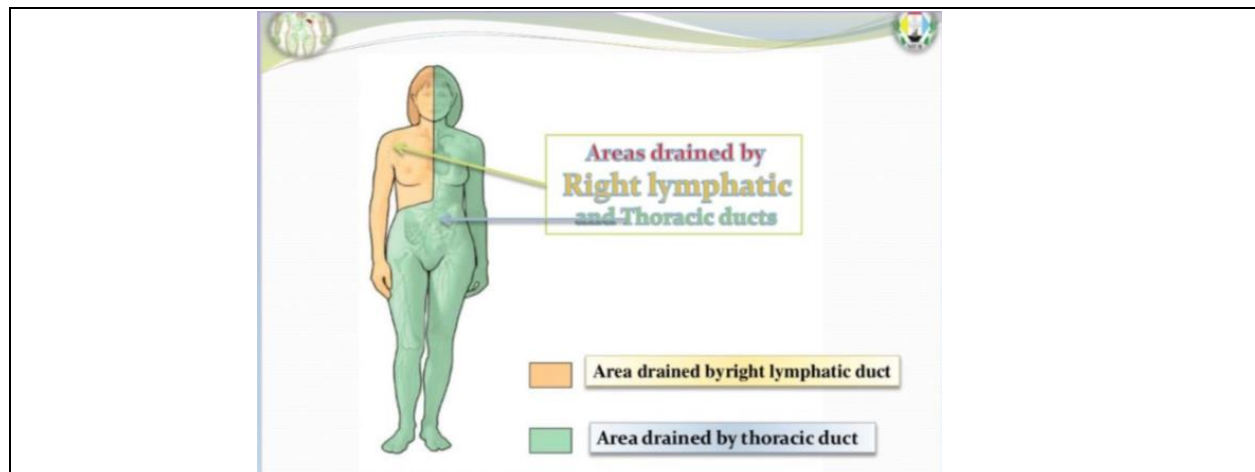
All blood cells come from Hematopoietic stem cells which gives rise to 2 different lineages: Myeloid, and Lymphoid.

- Lymphoid lineage gives rise to WBC, where they develop in the bone marrow
- B-Lymphocytes released into blood as mature b-cells with Ag receptor for a specific non-self Ag.
- T-Lymphocytes released into blood as immature cells and transport to Thymus for maturation where they will also be prototypic to a very specific antigen.
- Lymphocytes are not activated until they encounter their specific antigen first

Lymphocyte Circulation

- Cycle: Leave blood/lymph -> Enter lymphatic tissue -> survey secondary tissue -> Return to blood/lymph
- Secondary/Peripheral Tissues:
 - o MALT (Mucosa Associated Lymphoid Tissue)
 - Diffuse Lymphatic Tissue – Cells diffusely arranged throughout lamina propria
 - Lymphoid Nodules – Distinct boundaries and structure within lamina propria or submucosa
 - Aggregations of Nodules – Peyer's Patches, GALT (gut), BALT (Bronchi), NALT Nasal), VALT (Vulvo-vaginal)
 - o Spleen
 - o Lymph Nodes
- Once lymphocytes reach the peripheral organs/tissues they squeeze out of the capillaries to enter the tissues
 - o Once finished checking out the tissues they enter the lymphatic vessels and return directly to the blood through the spleen
- Lymph = Fluid removed from extracellular spaces in connective tissues to carry Ag to lymph nodes. Gets filtered like a Brita filter in lymph nodes before it enters lymphatic vessels again to return to blood.

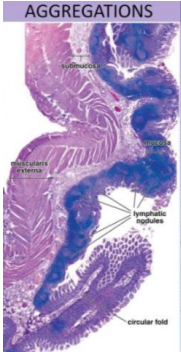
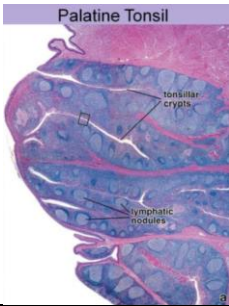
Right Lymphatic Duct	Left Lymphatic Duct/Thoracic Duct
Drains right side of head, right upper abdomen and right arm	Drains rest of the body (much more)
Empties into junction of right subclavian and internal jugular veins.	Empties into junction of left internal jugular and subclavian veins



- When lymphocytes bump into its specific Ag in the secondary lymphoid organs they become activated and remain in that tissue where they will multiply to fight the infection.
 - o This activation can also occur via presentation of Ag by macrophages and dendritic cells. APC will move from site of infection to peripheral lymphoid tissue to find T and B lymphocytes to activate.

GALT

Diffuse Lymphatic Tissue	Small Intestine – Villus with dilated lacteal in center	
Isolated Lymphoid Nodule	Small Intestine – Duodenum Lymphatic nodules in lamina propria extending into submucosa. Lymphocytes are contained within a sharply defined specific meshwork Nodules with paler center = Germinal Centre - Indicative of activation and proliferation of lymphocytes, differentiation of B cells and Ab production Ring of small lymphocytes encircle germinal centre	

Lymphoid Aggregations	<p>Locations where multiple lymphatic nodules are all located in one area.</p> <p>Eg: Peyer's Patches, or Appendix</p>	 <p>AGGREGATIONS</p>
Waldeyer's Ring of Tonsils	<p>Stratified Squamous epithelium dips into connective tissue to form "Tonsillar Crypts"</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Lymphoid nodules under epithelium line these crypts <p>Crypts not supplied by afferent vessels but are drained by efferent lymphatic vessels</p>	 <p>Palatine Tonsil</p>

Lymph Node Structure

- Small bean-shaped encapsulated organ
- 1mm – 2cm long
- Found along lymphoid vessels to filter the lymph

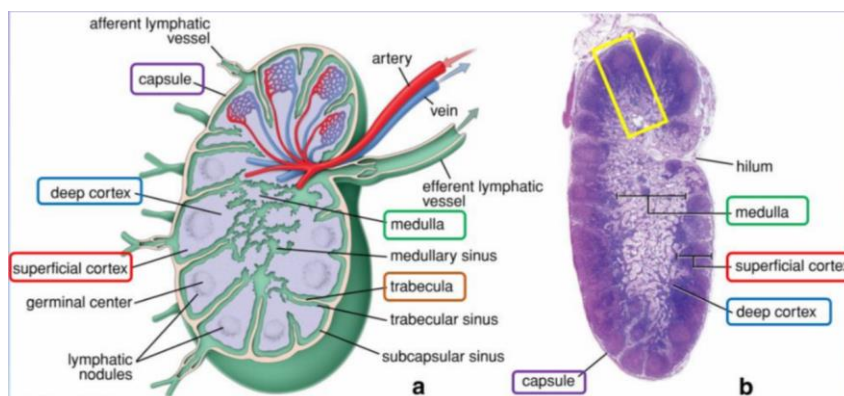
2 routes of entry:

1. Via lymph from one of many afferent lymphatic vessels entering node (1 efferent vessel leaves)
2. Via blood by crossing membrane of High Endothelial Venule (capillary bed within node)

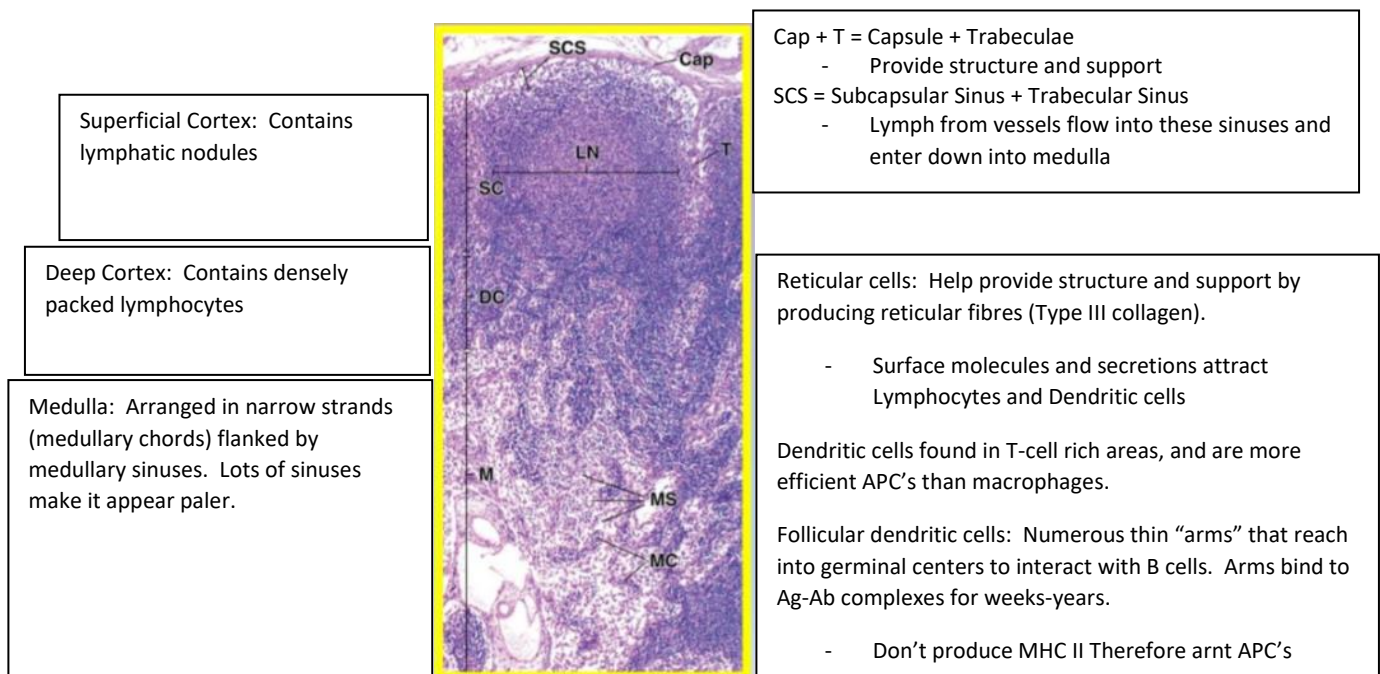
1 Route of exit:

- Lymphocytes passing through node will exit via the efferent lymphatic vessel at hilum of the node (the depression on one side). They will eventually enter circulation again at the junction between subclavian and Internal jugular veins.

Structure:

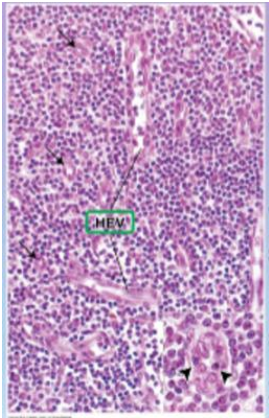


- Encapsulated by dense connective tissue, with projections, “trabeculae” running from outside towards inner medulla.
 - Function: Supportive framework
- Outermost Layer = **Superficial Cortex**
 - Appears thick and dark purple on stain
- Middle Layer = **Deep Cortex**
 - Innermost portion of the dark purple stain
- Innermost Layer = **Medulla**
 - Lighter, unconsolidated stain in the middle.
 - Lymph from trabeculae sinuses drain in to medullary sinuses before leaving via efferent lymphatic vessel



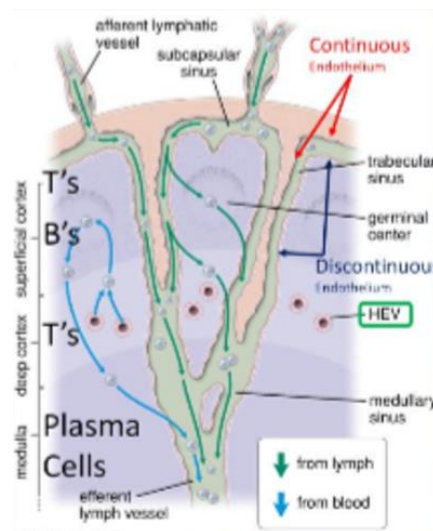
Sinuses are lined with endothelial cells and filled with meshwork of macrophage pseudopods, reticular cells and reticular fibres...acts as a filter to slow down lymph and allow immune cells to act.

- Endothelium of trabeculae is continuous with the outer connective tissue capsule
- Endothelium on side of sinus next to parenchyma of node is discontinuous. Macrophages and lymphocytes pass freely between parenchyma and sinus.
- Macrophages in parenchyma send projections through gaps in discontinuous to monitor lymph



High Endothelial Venules

- Main port of exit from node. Lined with Columnar or Cuboidal epithelial cells instead expected simple squamous.
- Have lots of H₂O channels to allow resorption into interstitial fluid. Returns 35% of fluid and electrolytes back into circulation.



Spleen

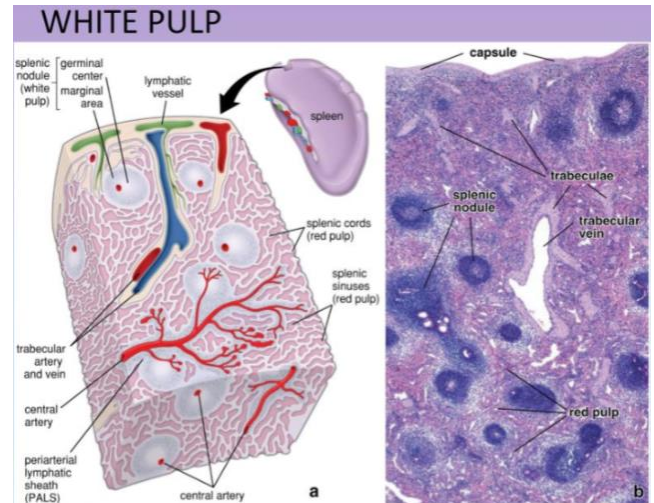
- Upper left quad of abdomen, size of clenched fist
- Largest lymphatic organ
- Filters blood and reacts immunologically to blood borne Ag
 - o APC presents Ag
 - o B & T cells activate
 - o Removes macromolecular Ag from blood
- Removes and destroys RBC and platelets, Retrieves Iron from Hb

Structure

- Dense Connective tissue capsule and trabeculae extending into parenchyma.
 - o CT and T contain myofibroblasts with ability to contract
- Hilum = area where artery, vein, nerve, and lymph vessels enter and leave
- Consists mainly of Splenic Pulp with 2 areas

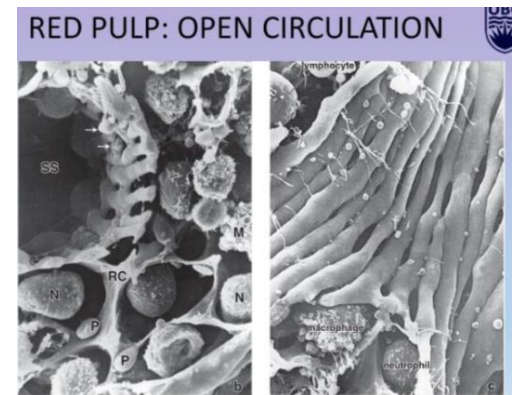
1. White Pulp

- Branches of splenic artery supply capsule, trabeculae and enter white pulp
- Consists of lymphocytes surrounding a central artery = Periarterial lymphatic sheath (PALS).
 - Appears similar to splenic nodule, but central artery gives it away
 - Lymphocytic expansion of splenic nodules (site of B lymph.) pushes artery to one side. PAL and lymphocytes surrounding nodules = T lymph.



2. Red Pulp

- Contain RBC to be broken down
- Sinuses are separate by Splenic Cords (like a bead curtain...for your spleen)
 - Meshwork of reticular cells and fibers (same and lymph nodes) suspends RBC, Macrophages, Lymphocytes, dendritic cells, plasma cells and granulocytes.
 - Lined by rod shaped endothelial cells with limited contact. Blood passes between these gaps to be carried to veins.
- Arterioles off the central artery dump blood directly onto splenic cords. Blood filters through mesh before collecting in sinuses
 - **Not a closed system!**



Lymphatics System

- Vessels connect parts of immune system to vasculature, and transports lymph and lymphocytes
 - Lymph = fluid removed from extracellular spaces in connective tissue
 - Small lymphatic vessels drain into larger ones that drain into Thoracic Duct located at junction of left subclavian and Internal Jugular veins (largest lymphatic vessel, on left side of body)- Drains most of the body
 - Right arm and right side of the head drains lymph to bloodstream at junction of Right subclavian and Internal Jugular veins
 - One-way flow, propelled by muscle contraction throughout the system
- Lymph nodes filter out cellular material as lymph moves from either capillaries into the main venous system, or from afferent lymphatic veins entering the node before exiting as one main efferent.

Nodes categorized as:

1. Superficial Nodes

- Associated with skin and superficial fascia, particularly in neck, under the arms, and in groin

2. Deep Nodes

- Associated with abdominal and thoracic cavity and main arteries

Lymphadenopathy

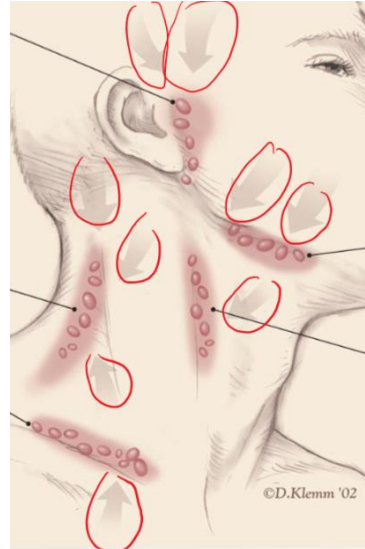
= Lymph nodes abnormal in size or consistency (infection or malignancy)

Lymphadenitis = inflammation of the lymph node (from infection)

Lymphadenopathy	
Etiology	Infection Autoimmune disorder Medication Iatrogenic causes Malignancy Infectious = Fever, Fatigue, Malaise Autoimmune = Joint pain, Muscle weakness, Rash Malignancy = Fever, Night Sweats, Weight Loss Chance of malignancy ↑ w/ Age, Male, Caucasian, Supraclavicular nodes
Diagnostics	Blood Test Imaging Biopsy (fine needle aspiration, Core sample, Excisional removal)

Head and Neck Lymphadenopathy

Location	Differential	Malignancies	
Submental/Submandibular - Drain oral cavity	Upper Resp Infection Dental Infection <2cm = Insignificant	Squamous Cell Carcinoma of head and neck Lymphoma Leukemia	
Anterior Cervical - Drain Larynx, Oropharynx, Anterior neck	Same as submental/mandibular		
Posterior Cervical - Drains scalp, Neck, Upper thoracic skin	Scalp infection, mycobacterial infection	Skin neoplasm, Lymphomas, Head and	

	<2cm = Insignificant	Neck Squamous Cell Carcinoma	
Preauricular - Drains Scalp, and Skin	Same and Posterior Cervical	Same and Posterior Cervical	
Supraclavicular Nodes - Drain GI, Genitourinary, Pulmonary tracts	Thyroid disease, fungal infections >1cm significant	Abdominal/Thoracic	

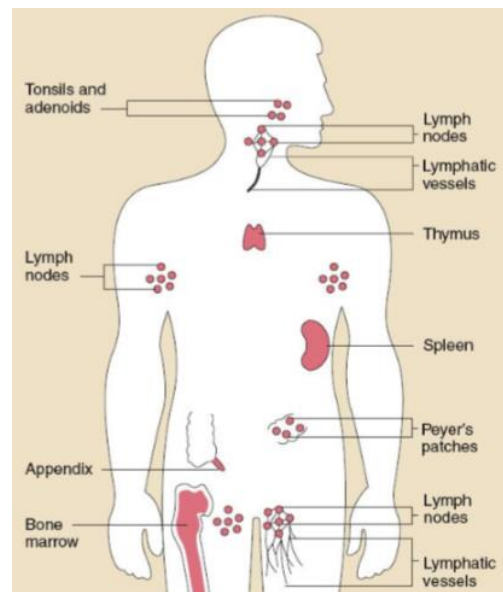
Size	<2cm = Insignificant Supraclavicular Node: >1cm significant
Consistency	Soft: Insignificant Rubbery: Lymphoma Hard: Malignancy & Granulomatous Infection
Tender	Tender: Infection Non-Tender: Malignancy

Primary Lymphoid Organs

- Bone Marrow
- Thymus (maturation site of T-cells)
 - o Loss or lack of thymus = severe immunodeficiency

Secondary Lymphoid Organs

- Spleen
- Lymph Nodes
- Tonsils
- Appendix
- Peyer's Patches (small intestine)
- MALT
- GALT



Spleen

= Largest Lymphoid organ

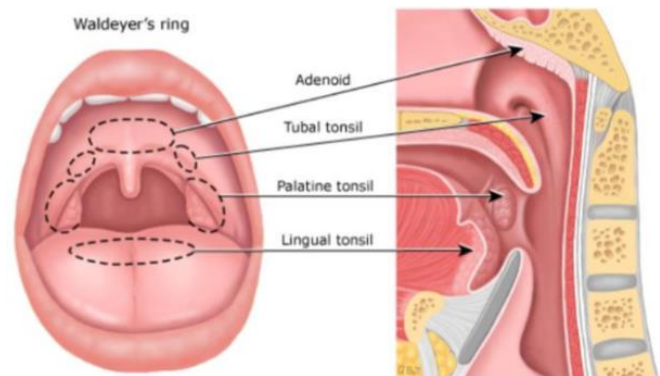
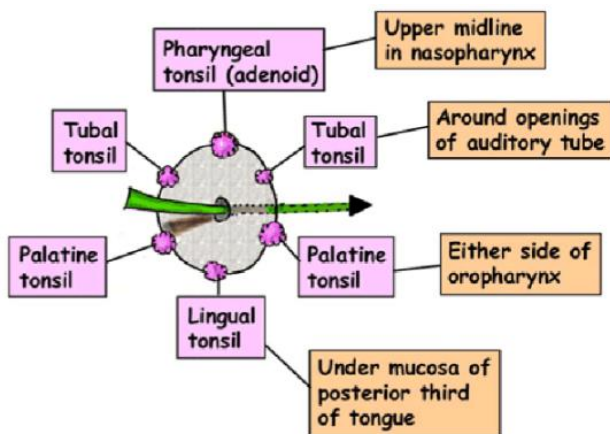
- Major Function = Remove opsonized bacteria, and Ab-coated cells from circulation

Red Pulp	White Pulp
<ul style="list-style-type: none">- (75%-80%)- Splenic sinuses separated by splenic cords<ul style="list-style-type: none">o Suspends RBC, Macrophages, Dendritic cells, platelets, granulocytes- Stores RBC for Emergencies- Stores 33% of total platelets- Stores 50% monocytes (turn into dendritic cells and macrophages)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- (20%-25%)- Aggregations of lymphocytes (mainly B lymphocytes)- Surrounded by Red Pulp- Stores 25% lymphocytes

Waldeyer's Ring

= Ring of lymphatic tissue in nasopharynx and oropharynx

2 Palatine Tonsils + 2 Tubal Tonsils + Pharyngeal Tonsil + Lingual Tonsil



Histology of RBC

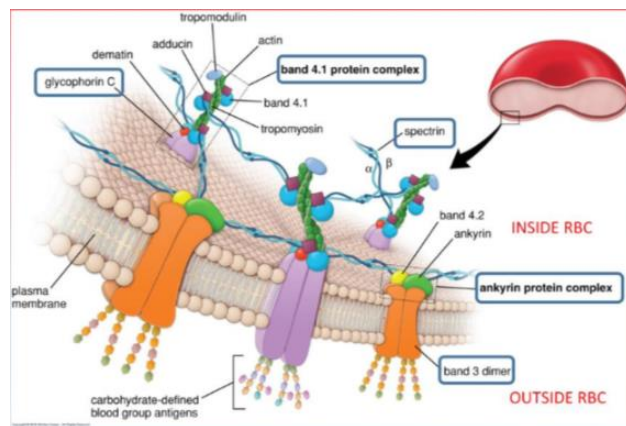
- Of the two main components of connective tissue (Cells, ECM – Amorphous and fibers) red blood cells fall under the Cells umbrella as a specialized connective tissue.
- Fibrinogen (and fibrin) are also connective tissue, under the Extracellular matrix umbrella.

Characteristics of RBC

- Produced in bone marrow
- Biconcave disk shape with no nucleus or organelles
 - o Allows more hemoglobin to be closer to plasma membrane to trap O₂ and CO₂
- Contains mainly hemoglobin and enzymes
- 7-8um diameter
- Lives 120 days in circulation

Structure of RBC

- 2 essential categories of proteins that aid in the structural flexibility characteristics and biconcave shape of RBC



Integral Transmembrane Proteins	
Glycophorin C	Binds band 4.1 complex inside RBC
Band 3 Protein	Binds Ankrin complex inside RBC
Peripheral Membrane Proteins (α - & β - Spectrin)	
Band 4.1 Complex	Anchors Spectrin filaments to cell membrane to form hexagonal lattice
Ankrin Complex	

- When RBC passes through tiny capillary bonds between spectrin molecules break and reform with new shape (one that will allow it to squeeze through). Allows membrane to be highly elastic and pop back to normal shape.

Mutations

	Hereditary Spherocytosis	Hereditary Elliptocytosis
Inheritance	Autosomal Dominant	Autosomal Dominant
Affected Units	Band 3, 4.2, and Spectrin	Spectrin lateral bonds between α - & β subunits and bonds to Ankrin Complex
Results	Spherical RBC (destruction)	Elliptical RBC (destruction)

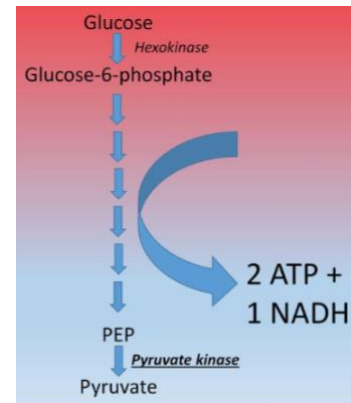
Contents

- 66% H₂O, 33% Hemoglobin, 1% enzymes, lipids, ions etc

Metabolism

Energy comes from glycolytic pathway (no mitochondria needed)

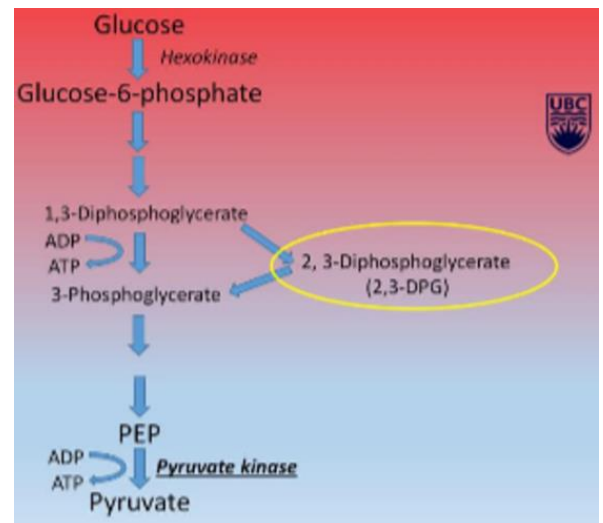
- NADH (Keeps iron reduced and prevents oxidative stress of membrane and Hb)
- ATP
 - o NOT needed for O₂ or CO₂ transport
 - o IS needed to maintain shape, flexibility



Glycolytic Shunts

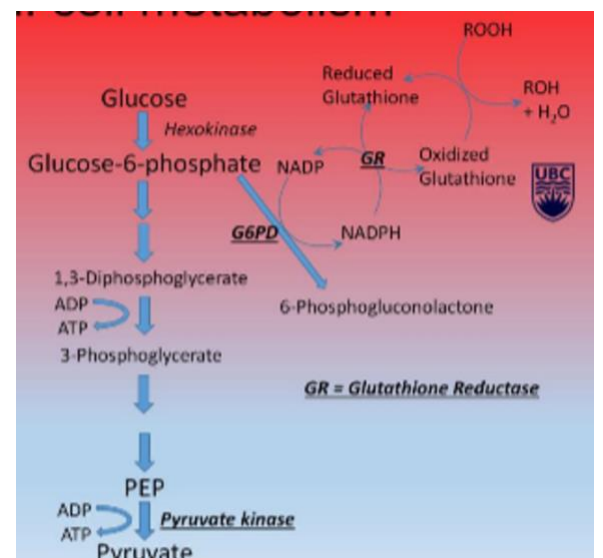
1. 2, 3 – DPG shunt (Rapoport-Luebering)

- o Contain equimolar hemoglobin:2,3-DPG ratio (unique to RBC)
- o 2,3 – DPG concentration is controlled by pH (Low pH = loss of 2,3-DPG, High pH = maintenance and production of 2,3-DPG)
- o Unbound 2,3-DPG binds with cytoskeletal proteins (Spectrin, Band 3 etc) and permits cellular shape change to squeeze through capillaries for gas exchange, and into spleen
- o 2,3-DPG binds deoxyhemoglobin = conformational change to have less affinity for O₂ causing the release of O₂



2. Pentose shunt (hexose monophosphate shunt)

- o Uses Glucose 6 Phosphate Dehydrogenase (G6PD), which is also the rate limiting step
- o Results in production in NADH, which keeps glutathione reduced
 - Reduced glutathione is a major antioxidant that eliminates peroxide, detox. Oxidants, prevents membrane lipid oxidation, and prevents globin oxidation.



Mutation in Pyruvate Kinase = Na-ATP pumps stop function, K⁺ then leaks out of cell, water follows causing the cell to shrink and die of dehydration.

Hemoglobin

Metabolically Active tissue --> CO₂ diffuses into RBC --> Converted to H₂CO₃ (carbonic acid) by Carbonic Anhydrase --> H₂CO₃ ionizes to H⁺ + HCO₃⁻

- Ionization drops intracellular pH (acidic) which shifts EQ and favours O₂ release.

Lungs: Deoxyhemoglobin picks up O₂ and releases CO₂ + H⁺ causing rise in pH and affinity for more O₂

2, 3 – DPG: Binds deoxyhemoglobin, changes its shape and decreases affinity for O₂. Hb releases 10% more O₂ in presence of 2, 3, - DPG.

- Production increases during respiratory alkalosis at high altitude, anemia, cardiac and pulmonary disease.

Structure:

Globin	Metalloprotein Tetramer consisting of: - 2α and 2β subunits
Heme	Porphyrin ring with iron in centre (Fe ²⁺) O ₂ Binds reversibly to ferrous iron

Erythropoiesis and Bone Marrow

Monophyletic Theory = All cells develop in bone marrow from one common Hematopoietic Stem Cell (HSC)

Gives rise to 2 pathways:

1. Myeloid Progenitor
 - a. Influence of EOP, IL-3, IL-4= Megakaryocyte/Erythrocyte Progenitor (MEP) -> Megakaryocyte (and platelets) or RBC via erythropoietin-sensitive erythrocyte-committed progenitor
 - b. Granulocyte lineage
2. Common Lymphoid Progenitor (CLP)
 - a. T-Cells, B-Cells, NK Cells, Dendritic Cells

RBC Differentiation

1. Pro-erythroblast	-1 st recognizable precursor -Basophilic (stains blue) due to many free ribosomes making Hb -As grows and matures slowly turns red from eosin stain binding to more Hb and Hematoxylin to less Ribosomes
2. Erythroblast	Polychromatic blue-red colour
3. Normoblast	-Cell Division stops -Lots of Hb causing cytoplasm to be eosinophilic
4. Reticulocyte	-Nucleus is lost and mitosis is stopped -Remains in bone for 5 days
5. Erythrocyte	-Mature RBC develops in circulation over course of 1 day -Lifespan = 120 days

Erythropoietin

- Produced in Kidney in response to hypoxia (low O₂ concentration)

Acts on:

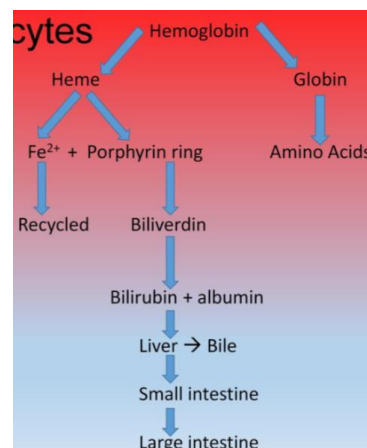
1. CMP cells
 - o EPO + IL-3 + IL-4 stimulates differentiation into MEP
2. Receptor found on Erythropoietin-sensitive erythrocyte-committed progenitor (ErP) cells

Lifecycle of RBC

Embryo/Fetus	Children	Adult
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Yolk Sac Primitive nucleated Erythroid cell -> Loses nucleus in circ. 2. Yolk Sac + Placenta Differentiated Erythroid prog. -> Migrate to liver -> Lose nucleus (Definitive RBC) 3. Aorta-Gonad-Mesonephros HSC seeds Liver and Spleen -> Colonizes bone marrow at birth 	Axial Skeleton and bones of extremities	<p>Axial skeleton and proximal ends of femur and humerus</p> <p>-Lasts 120 days (4months) -1% replaced daily -Eryptosis = programmed RBC death</p> <p>Senescent RBC: Low pH, Increase Ca²⁺, Low ATP Loss of membrane, shape change Band 3 shape change exposes senescence-specific Ag Internal facing lipids flip to outside to bind receptors on macrophages Removed by phagocytes in spleen, liver and marrow</p>

Hemoglobin Breakdown:

1. Splits into Globin -> Heme + amino acids
2. Heme oxidised by heme oxidase -> opens porphyrin Ring and exposes Iron (recycled to RBC)
3. Heme converted to biliverdin -> converted to bilirubin
4. Bilirubin bind albumin -> picked up in Liver and secreted into bile



Components and Major Functions of Blood

Blood has 4 main components:

1. Plasma
2. Red Blood Cells
3. White Blood Cells
4. Platelets

Major Plasma Proteins:

1. Transport Proteins (albumin, transferrin, apolipoproteins)
2. Protease Inhibitors (Antitrypsin)
3. Coagulation Proteins (Fibrinogen, Prothrombin)
4. Gamma Globulins (IgG, IgA, IgM, IgD, IgE)
5. Complement system Proteins (20 diff.)
6. Peptide Hormones (IGF-1, Angiotensinogen, Thrombopoietin)

Functions of Blood:

1. *Transport O_2* , and nutrients to lungs and throughout body
2. *Waste delivery* to kidneys and liver for detoxication and excretion
3. *Coagulation* to prevent blood loss
4. Transport *cells and antibodies* for immunity
5. Maintain *Acid-Base* equilibrium
6. Maintain *homeostasis* of:
 - a. Temperature
 - b. Electrolytes
 - c. Intravascular Volume

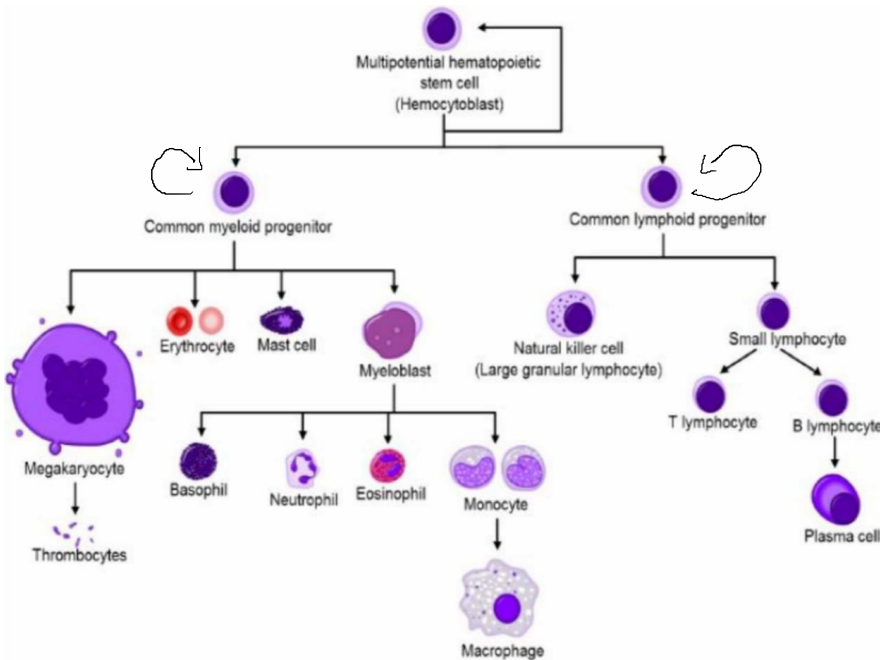
Fluid Compartments:

- Intracellular Fluids: 65%
- Extracellular Fluids: 35%
 - o Interstitial Fluid
 - o Plasma: 55% of blood
 - 91.5% water
 - 7% Protein
 - 1.5% Electrolytes, Nutrients, Vitamins, Hormones
 - o Transcellular Fluid

Plasma Vs Serum

- Both non-cellular components of blood
- Serum = Plasma without any clotting factors
 - o Centrifuge without anticoagulant to separate out clotting factors

Hematopoiesis



All blood cells come from hematopoietic stem cells in bone marrow

-Hematopoietic stem cells are multipotent (turn into different cells) but not pluripotent because cant turn into EVERYTHING.

- Many maturation steps along the different differentiation lineages

Erythropoiesis

- Occurs in the bone marrow, controlled by erythropoietin (EPO)
 - o EPO is endocrine hormone from Kidney (and a little in liver) in response to low O_2 in blood relative to metabolic activity
- Requires: **Iron, Vitamin B12, and Folate**
- Takes 8 stages to produce a mature RBC (we are only focused on the last 2 stages)
 - o Step 7: Reticulocyte (Direct precursor to mature RBC) matures in bone marrow for 5 days, and moves to peripheral blood for 1 day
 - o Step 8: Maturing Erythrocyte.
 - RBC loses nucleus and organelles and adopt high surface area biconcave shape.
 - Defective (senescent) erythrocytes are removed from circulation by macrophages in spleen, liver, and marrow. Called **Mononuclear Phagocyte System**

Red Blood Cells

- Flexible, membrane composed of protein and lipids with large surface area for maximum O_2 and CO_2 binding
- Lack nucleus, mitochondria, and Endoplasmic Reticulum
- Flexibility allows them to squeeze through small tight capillaries in single file
- Most numerous cells in blood
- Cytoplasm rich in **Hemoglobin**
 - o Gives RBC red colour due to Iron content
 - o Heme + Globin = Hemoglobin chain (α or β).
 - 4 ($2 \times \alpha$ and $2 \times \beta$) hemoglobin chains = Hemoglobin molecule

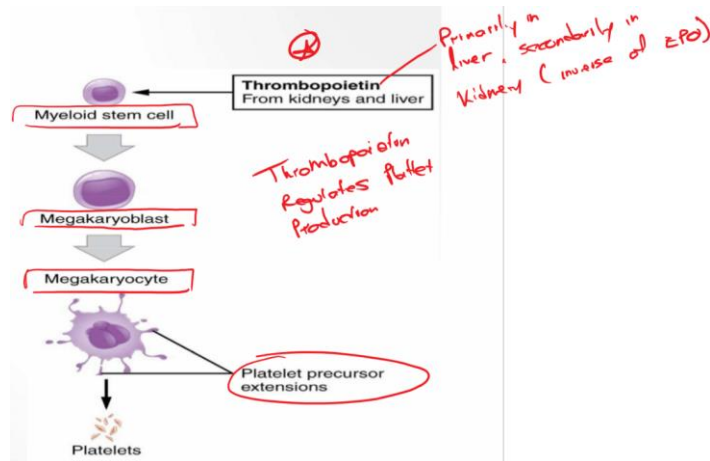
- 4 Pyrole molecules + Iron = heme
- Binds O₂ (which is released in pattern characteristic of oxyhemoglobin dissociation curve)

Platelets

- Mediators of **Primary Hemostasis**
 - Gather at site of injury, adhering to subendothelium (via collagen and von Willebrand Factor) and produce 1st unstable plug to help seal the vessel
 - Release substances from granules to promote further clotting
 - Phospholipid membrane of platelets form platform on which coagulation can occur (stable fibrin clot)

Granules	
α -granules	Dense Granules
Fibrinogen (CF 1), Clotting Factor V, von Willebrand Factor (vWF), Growth Factor, Heparin antagonist (PF-4)	ADP, Serotonin (5-HT), Clotting Factor IV (Ca ⁺⁺)
Surface Receptors	
Glycoprotein Ib (GPIb)	GPIIb/IIIa
Attaches via vWf to subendothelial collagen (GP VI binding)	Binds fibrinogen, allows platelet aggregation

- Production controlled by Thrombopoietin (from Liver, and a little bit from kidney)



- Produced by megakaryocyte cells
- Lifespan: 10-12 days, ~1/3 of all platelets are found in the spleen

Thrombocytopenia = Platelet # too low (increased bleeding time and increased bruising)

Thrombocythemia = Platelet # too high (Increased clotting, higher risk of cardiovascular accident, cerebrovascular accident, pulmonary embolism etc)

Primary Hemostasis

1) **Adhesion:**

- Damaged endothelial cells decrease platelet inhibition, and exposes vWF and collagen in subendothelium
- Platelets recruited to exposed subendothelium and bind to vWF and collagen to adhere to vessel

2) **Activation**

- Binding vWF activates platelets causing a change in shape (from disk shape to spiny shape)
- Activation turns on receptors (GP IIb/IIIa) to allow aggregation, and chemical messenger secretions (Granules release contents) to recruit more platelets

3) **Aggregation**

- Activated platelets bind to fibrinogen via GP IIb/IIIa. Multiple platelets can bind to the same fibrinogen, and different fibrinogens across their surface, creating a mat of platelets at site of injury

White Blood Cells

- Presence of nucleus distinguishes them from other blood cells (anuclear RBC and platelets)
- Respond to Chemotaxis to squeeze through capillaries into extravascular space

Polymorphonuclear Leukocytes (PMN's)	
Neutrophils	55-70% of total WBC Immediate response cells (1 st line of cellular defence, major phagocytic cells) Highly Mobile – migrate from small vessels to tissue damage to engulf microbes and cell debris Die after engulfing (main component of pus)
Eosinophils	1-6% of leukocytes Kill bacteria primarily (also immobilize and kill parasites, or foreign bodies too big to ingest) Contain toxic granules, and cause epithelial cell lysis (therefore proper control is important) Involved with IgE in allergy reactions Phagocytic to Ag-Ab complexes Helps destroy cancer cells
Basophils	0.4-1% of WBC (least common) Participate in allergic response (type I reactions, immediate hypersensitivity and anaphylaxis) Release chemokines to recruit more WBC's to infection/inflammation

	<p>Granules contain Heparin (anticoagulant), Histamine, Vasoactive amines (vasodilators to increase capillary permeability)</p> <p>Functionally similar to Mast cells</p> <p>Protection against parasitic infection</p>
Round Cell Leukocytes (non-segmented nuclei)	
Lymphocytes	<p>Primary Mediators of Adaptive immunity</p> <p>T Cells:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mature in Thymus gland - Distinguish self from non-self - Cells act directly on infectious and foreign agents <p>B Cells:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mature in Bone Marrow - Develop into plasma cells to produce Ab specific to Ag <p>Natural Killer Cells:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Protect against viral infections - Detect and destroy some cancers
Monocytes	<p>Phagocytose dead or damaged cells, and defend against microbes</p> <p>Become macrophages once move extravascularly</p> <p>Macrophages:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Engulf foreign agent into phagosomes - Help T-cells identify things to be destroyed - Contain lysosomal enzymes to destroy engulfed things

Mononuclear Phagocytes

Location	Cells
Brain	Microglial cells
Skin	Langerhans cells
Lung	Alveolar Macrophages
Liver	Kupffer cells
Kidney	Mesangial cells
Lymph Nodes	Lymph node macrophages and dendritic cells
Joint fluid	Synovial A cells
Spleen	Splenic macrophages

Pathology

Thrombocytopenia	<p>Low platelet #</p> <p>Bruising and abnormal bleeding likely (mostly bleeding gums)</p>
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	<p>Not often large hematomas</p> <p><u>Caused by:</u></p> <p>Decreased Production</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Aplastic Anemia - Bone neoplasm - Drug induced (often chemotherapy) <p>Decreased platelet survival</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Immunologically mediated destruction (Idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura (ITP)) - Disseminated intravascular coagulopathy (DIC) <p>Sequestration</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Splenomegaly
Thrombocythemia	<p>High platelet #</p> <p>Excessive clotting</p> <p>Risk of cardiovascular incident, pulmonary embolism, cerebrovascular accident</p>
Leukopenia	<p>Low Leukocyte #'s</p> <p>Prone to infection</p>
Leukocytosis	<p>Increased leukocyte #'s</p> <p>Indicative of underlying infection, inflammation or leukemia</p>
Anemia	<p>Low RBC #'s</p> <p>Can be malnutrition, low iron, low RBC production, increased RBC destruction, or low O₂ binding capacity</p>
Polycythemia	<p>High RBC #'s</p> <p>Found in people blood doping with EPO</p>
Pancytopenia	<p>Reduction in all blood cell lines (RBC, Platelets, WBC)</p>

Hemostasis

- First sign of coagulopathy (bleeding disorder) = spontaneous gingival hemorrhage and/or prolonged bleeding after tooth extraction or surgery
- Constantly happening with low level trauma (bumps and scrapes)
- Blood vessels lined with **endothelial cells**:
 - o Enable passage of gases and soluble nutrients into and out of blood
 - o VERY active
 - o Barrier against blood contact with subendothelial space (prevents unnecessary clot formation). When this is breached hemostasis is initiated with exposure of subendothelial space

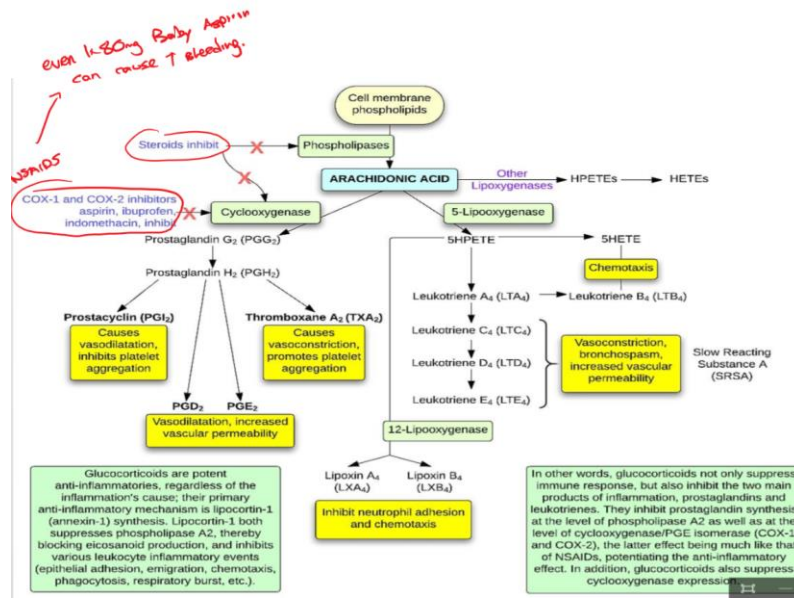
3 Major Processes

1) Vasoconstriction

- a. Initial vasoconstriction: Local contraction: short lasting (60sec) neurogenic spasm followed by myogenic spasm (20-30 mins) which causes further constriction and tissue pressure.
- b. Secondary vasoconstriction: Release of humoral substances from platelets (Serotonin 5-HT and Prostaglandin Thromboxane A-2. Endothelin is released by injured endothelial cells.

2) **Platelet Adhesion**

- a. **Adhesion**: Attachment to damaged and exposed subendothelium. GP Ib binds vWF, and GP VI binds collagen.
 - i. vWF is the glue that holds platelets to vessel walls and is produced both by endothelium and megakaryocytes (released by endothelial cells and platelets)
 - ii. vWF promotes platelet adhesion and aggregation and is a carrier for factor VIII to increase its $\frac{1}{2}$ life preventing its destruction
 - b. **Activation**: Binding to vWF and collagen activates the platelet.
 - i. This changes platelet shape (Disk – spiny), turns on GP IIb/IIIa receptor, and secretes chemical messengers
 - ii. Dense granules release: ADP (activates and recruits other platelets to area), Serotonin (vasoconstriction), clotting factor IV (Ca^{++} , for clotting cascade)
 - iii. Alpha granules release Fibrinogen (CF I) for aggregation, Clotting factor V (Clotting cascade), vWF, growth factors
 - c. **Aggregation**: GP IIb/IIIa – fibrinogen binding allows platelets to aggregate around fibrinogen at site of injury forming unstable initial plug
 - i. ADP stimulates synthesis and release of thromboxane A-2 from platelets.
Thromboxane A-2 formed from phospholipids in plasma membrane
1. Phospholipase A2 mediates conversion of platelet membrane phospholipids to arachidonic acid. COX -1 and COX -2 converts arachidonic acid to thromboxane A2.
 2. ADP and thromboxane A2 stimulate and activate neighbouring platelets, amplifying response, and also acts as vasoconstrictor to decrease local blood flow and loss.
 - ii. Tissue Factor CF III from subendothelium + Ca^{++} (CF IV) converts prothrombin to thrombin, allowing for aggregation and further activation
 - iii. Primary plug localized. ADP by activated platelets promotes prostacyclin and NO release from neighbouring intact cells (inhibits platelet aggregation when it doesn't need to be).



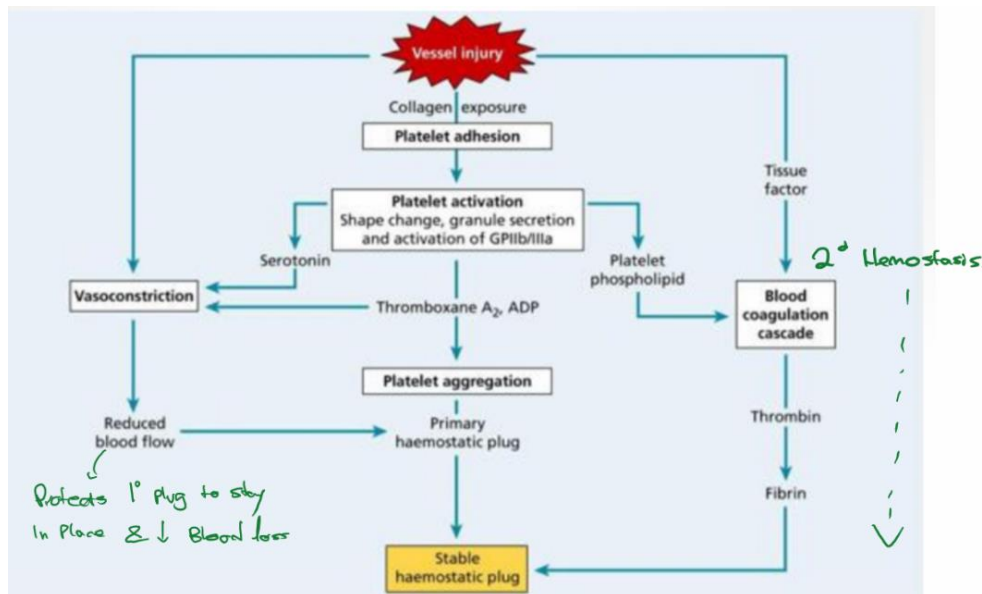
- ASA (Aspirin) inhibits COX. Preventing production of Thromboxane AS (TXA₂), increasing bleeding. Action lasts 7-10 days (life of the platelet)

Thrombocytopenia Pathogenesis

1. Decreased production of platelets
 - o Generalized diseases of bone marrow
 - Aplastic Anemia
 - Bone Neoplasm
 - Drug Induced
2. Decreased platelet survival
 - o Immunologically mediated destruction
 - Idiopathic Thrombocytopenic Purpura (ITP)
 - Disseminated Intravascular Coagulopathy (DIC)
 - Clotting happens all throughout vasculature, using up all the coagulation factors, leading to increased bleeding time
3. Sequestration
 - o Splenomegaly
 - Spleen hold more platelets than it should

Summary:

1. Vasoconstriction (Reflex and endothelin)
2. Structural and functional changes in activated platelets (granule contents expelled)
3. 5-HT and ADP recruit more platelets to area
4. Activated platelets synthesize TXA₂ to amplify platelet response (via COX 1)
5. TXA₂ activates, aggregates and vasoconstricts



Clotting Factors

- Coagulation proteins for secondary hemostasis
- All are produced in Liver except Ca⁺⁺ (Clotting Factor IV)
- Vitamin K dependant clotting factors (II, VII, IX, X, Proteins C and S).
 - o Can be produced in absence of Vitamin K, but wont be able to bind to phospholipid surface (non-functional)

Factor	Name
I	Fibrinogen
II	Prothrombin
III	Tissue Factor/Thromboplastin
IV	Calcium
V	(don't need to know name)
VII	(don't need to know name)
VIII	Antihemophilic Factor A
IX	Antihemophilic Factor B
X	(don't need to know name)
XI	(don't need to know name)
XII	(don't need to know name)
XIII	Fibrin Stabilizing Factor
vWF	Von Willebrand Factor
Prekallikrein	(don't need to know name)
HMWK	High-molecular-weight kininogen

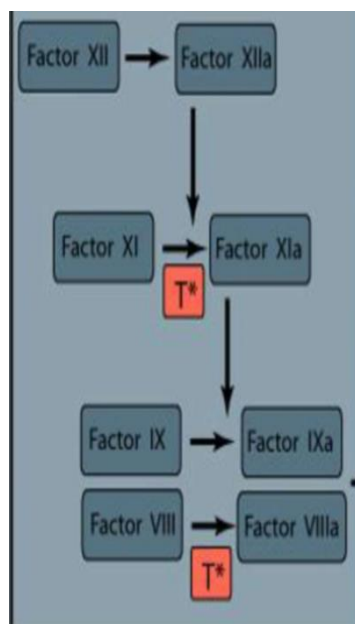
Coagulation Cascade

- 3 main components: Extrinsic pathway, Intrinsic pathway, Common pathway
 - o Extrinsic pathway initiates the cascade and Intrinsic amplifies it, Common pathway is where they merge to one in order to create a fibrin clot.
- Cascade occurs on the phospholipid surface of platelets in the instable clot
- **Critical feature: Sequential activation of many proenzymes to active enzymes. Stepwise amplification**
- **Clotting factors generate thrombin which converts fibrinogen to fibrin to create the insoluble stable clot.**

Extrinsic Coagulation Cascade

Intrinsic Pathway

- Initiated by High-Molecular-weight kininogen (HMWK), Prekallikrein, and Factor XII

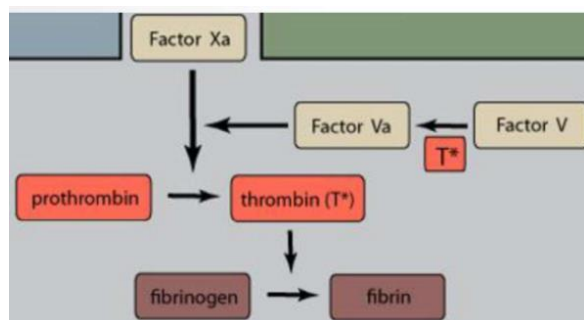


1. Prekallikrein converted to Kallikrein
2. Kallikrein activates Factor XII
3. Factor XII activates Factor XI
4. Factor XI activates Factor IX
5. Factor IXa + Factor VIIIa + Factor IV (Ca++) activates Factor X
6. Factor X activates Thrombin, Factor II (from prothrombin)
7. F IIa activates V, VIII, and XI to amplify cascade

Prekallikrein circulates bound to High Molecular Weight Kininogen (HMWK)

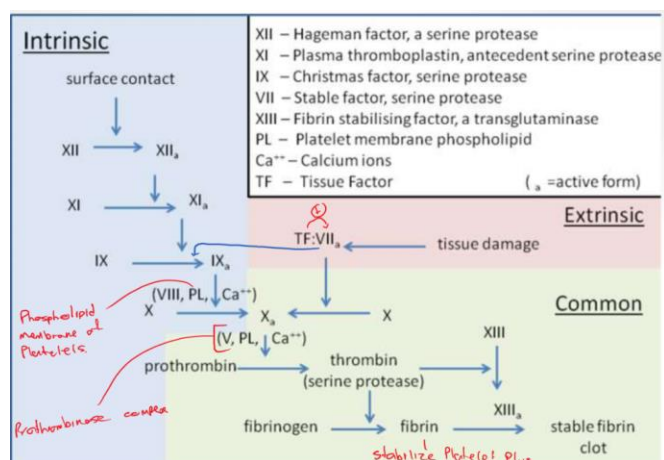
Reciprocal reaction: Prekallikrein activated to Kallikrein by Factor XIIa. Kallikrein then further activates Factor XII (positive feedback loop)

Common Pathway



1. Prothrominase Complex (Xa-Va) on surface of activated platelets and tissue cells produces MUCH more thrombin than Xa alone
2. Factor V amplifies production of thrombin big time

Clotting Cascade



Thrombin:

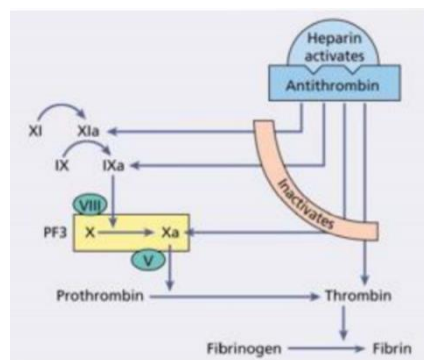
- Enhances aggregation
- Converts Fibrinogen to Fibrin
- Activates Factors: V, VIII, XI, XIII
- Feedback to regenerate Factor Va and VIIIa
- Binds thrombomodulin to activate protein C (turning off coagulation)

Regulation of Coagulation

1. Inactivation of procoagulant enzymes

a. Antithrombin

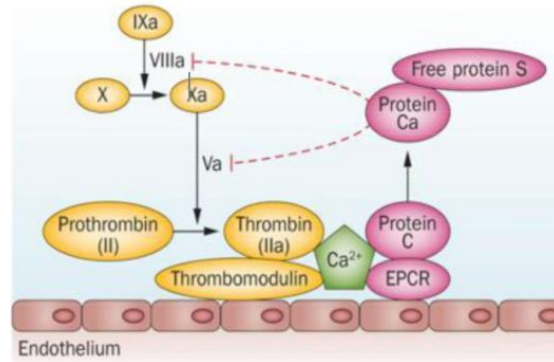
- Degrades thrombin, Factor IXa, Factor Xa, Factor XIa, and Factor XIIa
- Action enhanced by heparin



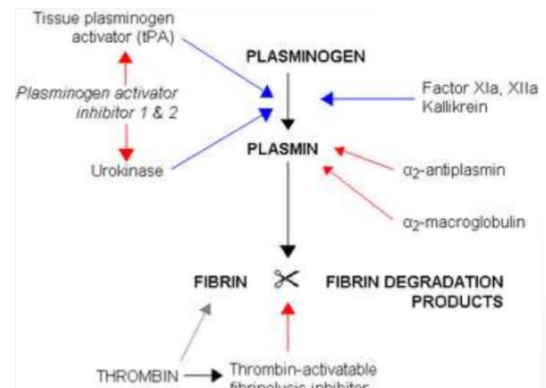
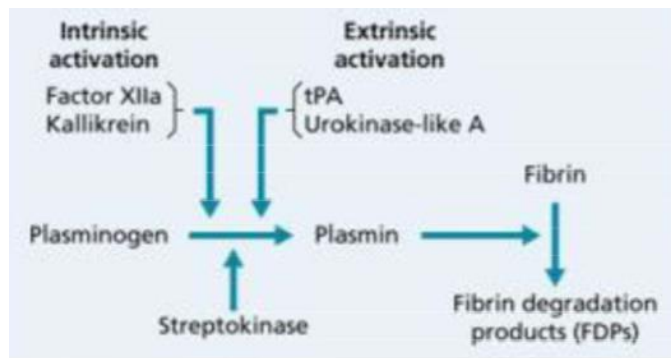
b. Proteins C and S

- C: Inhibits Factors VIIIa and Va, activated by thrombin bound to thrombomodulin, Vitamin K

- S: Cofactor for activated protein C, Vitamin K dependant



- Heparin
 - Enhances antithrombin activity
 - Tissue Factor Pathway Inhibitor (TFPI)
 - Limits the action of tissue factor and the factors it produces
 - Prostacyclin
 - Released by endothelium to inhibit platelet activation
 - Vasodilator
 - Keeps clot formation localized to site of injury only
 - Thrombomodulin
 - Endothelial cell surface binding site for thrombin when bound to thrombomodulin activates protein C
- Hepatic Clearance of activated clotting factors**
 - Fibrinolysis**
 - Plasminogen
 - Activators from endothelial cells to activate plasminogen into plasmin
 - Plasmin
 - Degrades fibrin to form Fibrin degradation products (FDPs); One major FDP is D-dimer
 - Tissue Plasminogen Activator (tPA)
 - Poor activator from endothelial cells, but become efficient with bound to fibrin with plasminogen around
 - Given endogenously by Dr's to dissolve clots
 - Urokinase
 - Activator of fibrinolysis in excretory passages, secreted by endothelial cells
 - Streptokinase
 - Bacterial product that is a potent plasminogen activator.
 - Given endogenously by Dr's to prevent clotting

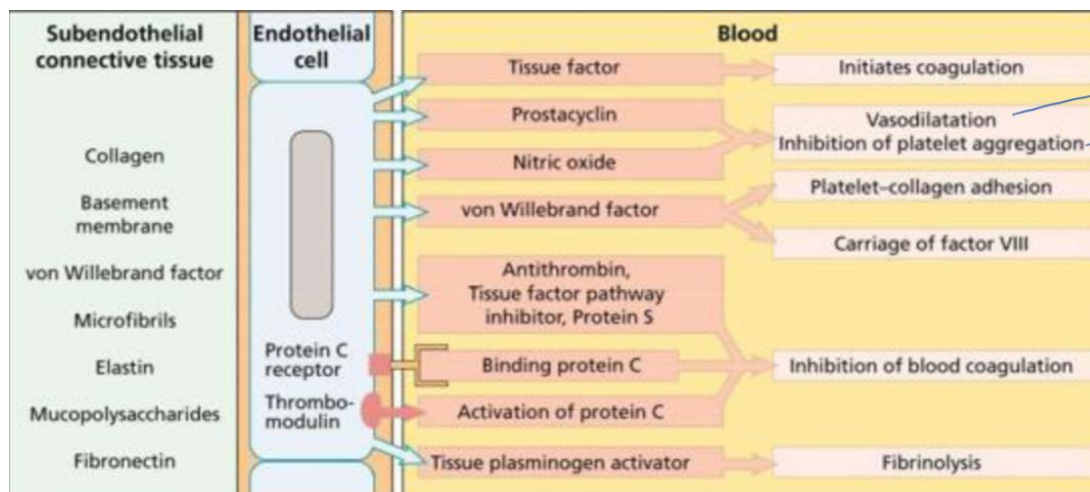


Fibrinolysis is regulated by Plasminogen Activator Inhibitors (PAI's) and Plasmin Inhibitors

- Slow down fibrinolysis
- Inactivate tPA and urokinase (which are rapidly cleared by liver)
- Secreted by vascular endothelial cells and activated platelets

Clot retraction occurs in the first 24 hours of initial clot formation and is dependant on Factor XIIIa crosslinking and twisting/knotting to condense the size of the clot.

- After clot retraction, fibrinolysis occurs



Wound Healing

- Stimulated by platelet derived growth factor (PDGF)
- After clot retraction, true repair begins with tissue proliferation and collagen forming ECM in the wound
- New blood vessels grow into healing tissues (Angiogenesis), stimulated by vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF)
- Wound contracts and epithelial cells grow and cover wound

Coagulopathy

= impaired ability of blood to clot

Classic symptoms:

- Spontaneous gingival hemorrhage
- Petechia of skin/mucosa
- Purpura
- Ecchymosis
- Epistaxis

1. Coagulation Abnormalities

- Congenital or acquired clotting factor deficiency
- Impaired hepatic function
- Malabsorption syndromes (Vit. K deficiency)
- Medications (Heparin, Warfarin)

2. Platelet Disorders

A. Quantitative (thrombocytopenia)

- o Decreased production in bone marrow (Aplastic anemia, drug induced, neoplasm)
- o Increased Destruction (Immune thrombocytopenic purpura (ITP), Disseminated intravascular coagulopathy (DIC))
- o Sequestration (Splenomegaly)

B. Qualitative

- o Abnormal platelet function

3. Non-hematologic defects

- Trauma to blood vessel
- Local/systemic infections (Upper Resp Infections, Hemorrhagic fever, GI Infection)
- Decreased Vessel Integrity

Bleeding Disorders	
Hereditary	Acquired
Von Willebrand Disease (vWD)	Liver Disease
Hemophilia A	Vitamin K Deficiency
Hemophilia B	Disseminated Intravascular Coagulation (DIC)
Factor V Deficiency	Drug-Induced Platelet Dysfunction
Factor XIII Deficiency	Idiopathic Thrombocytopenic Purpura (ITP)
Hereditary Hemorrhagic telangiectasia	
Protein C Deficiency	
Antithrombin III Deficiency	

Bleeding Disorder Symptoms	
Petechiae	Pinpoint capillary hemorrhages <2mm
Purpura	Small hemorrhages 2mm-1cm diameter
Ecchymoses	Hemorrhages >1cm
Mucosal Bleeding	Epistaxis, gingival bleeding, hematuria (bloody urine), Hematochezia (blood from anus), Melena (black bloody stool)
Hemarthrosis	Bleeding in joints
Deep Hematoma	Bleeding into epidural or subdural spaces. Around esophagus, retroperitoneal, intramuscular

Lab Tests

Test	Description	Normal Range
CBC w/platelet count	-Count of all RBC, WBC, and Platelets in a blood sample -Used to quantify different levels for diagnoses of infection, bleeding disorders, or anemia	Platelets: 150,000 – 400,000/uL
Peripheral Blood Smear	-Evaluated size and shape of RBC to qualify types of anemia	
Mean Corpuscular Volume (MCV)	-Evaluates the mean volume of RBC, can determine size of RBC for anemia typing	
Prothrombin Time (PT)	-Measures Extrinsic and Common Pathways (Factors I, II, V, VII, X) -Measures Vitamin K dependant Factors (II, VII, X) -Elevated during Warfarin therapy	11-15sec
Activated Partial Thromboplastin Time (aPTT)	-Measures Intrinsic (Factors XII, XI, IX, VIII and Common Pathway (Factors V, X, II, I) -Elevated in Hemophilia, vWD, and during Heparin Therapy	27-36sec
Thrombin Time (TT)	-Measures effectiveness of thrombin (II) to convert fibrinogen to fibrin (I) -Normal in patients with defects in pathway prior to fibrinogen conversion (primary hemostasis) - Prolonged in patients with low fibrinogen or with Heparin	24-35sec
Fibrinogen	-Low when consumption is increased (DIC, Hemorrhage), or function is impaired -Elevated during reactive conditions (Inflammation, Infection, Malignancy)	
D-Dimer	-Proof of thrombus formation and clot breakdown/resorption -Positive value indicative of clotting	

BLEEDING TESTS DIFFERENTIAL		
PT result	PTT result	Common Conditions Present
Prolonged	Normal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Liver disease • Decreased vit K • Decreased or defective CF VII
Normal	Prolonged	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hemophilia A (CF VIII def.) / B (CF IX def.) • CF XI/XII deficiency • Von Willebrand disease
Prolonged	Prolonged	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Severe liver disease • Decreased/defective CFs I (fibrinogen), II (prothrombin), V / X • DIC (disseminated intravascular coagulation)
Normal	Normal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Normal hemostasis • Mild forms of CF deficiency or von Willebrand disease (further tests required)

Oxygen Transport

- O₂ carried in blood in 2 forms
 1. Plasma dissolved (2%)
 2. Bound to hemoglobin (98%)
- 1 Hemoglobin binds 4 O₂
 - Contains 4 heme subunits (1 O₂ per heme)
 - 2 α- chain globulin and 2 β- chain globulins per heme + 1 Iron
- **O₂ Saturation** = amount of O₂ bound to Hb relative to the max that can bind.
 - **Oxyhemoglobin** = With O₂ bound
 - **Deoxyhemoglobin** = Partially or fully unloaded.
- O₂ bound to oxyhemoglobin is function of partial pressure (pp) of O₂ in blood and tissues
 - Lungs with high ppO₂ = lots of oxyhemoglobin
 - Exercising muscle with low ppO₂ = lots of deoxyhemoglobin

Cooperativity

= Feedforward mech for O₂ binding to Hb

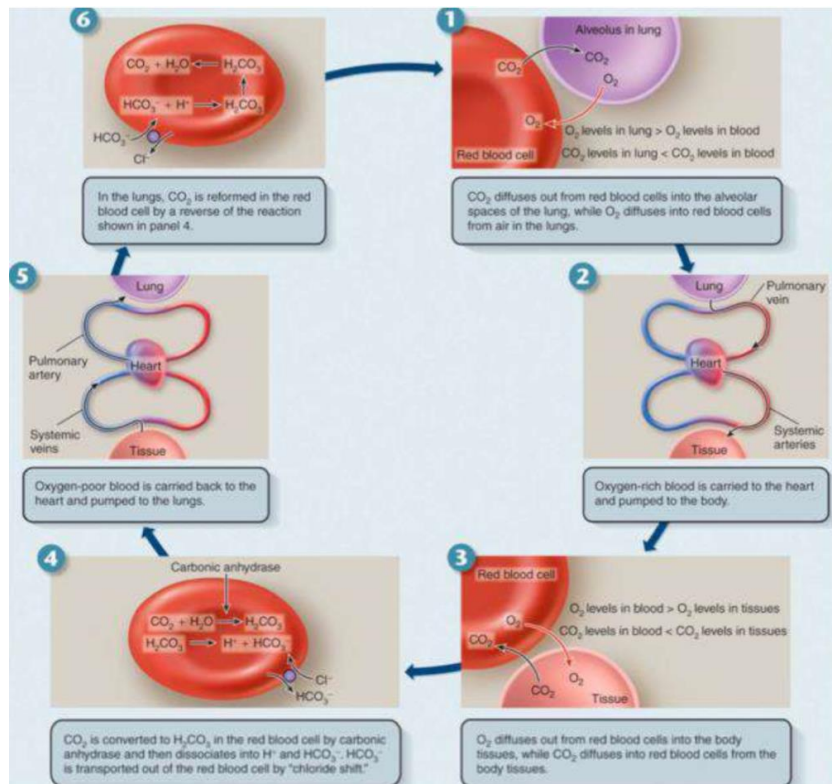
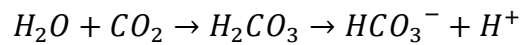
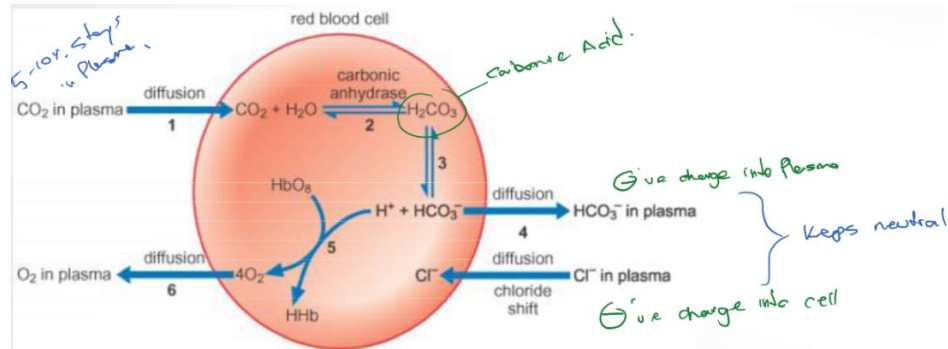
- Hb molecule undergoes subtle intramolecular changes during O₂ loading/unloading
 - Changes increase/decrease O₂ binding strength for subsequent O₂ molecules.
 - 1st loaded/unloaded O₂ makes 2nd easier to bind/dissociate
 - 2nd will associate after smaller change in ppO₂ than 1st etc etc etc

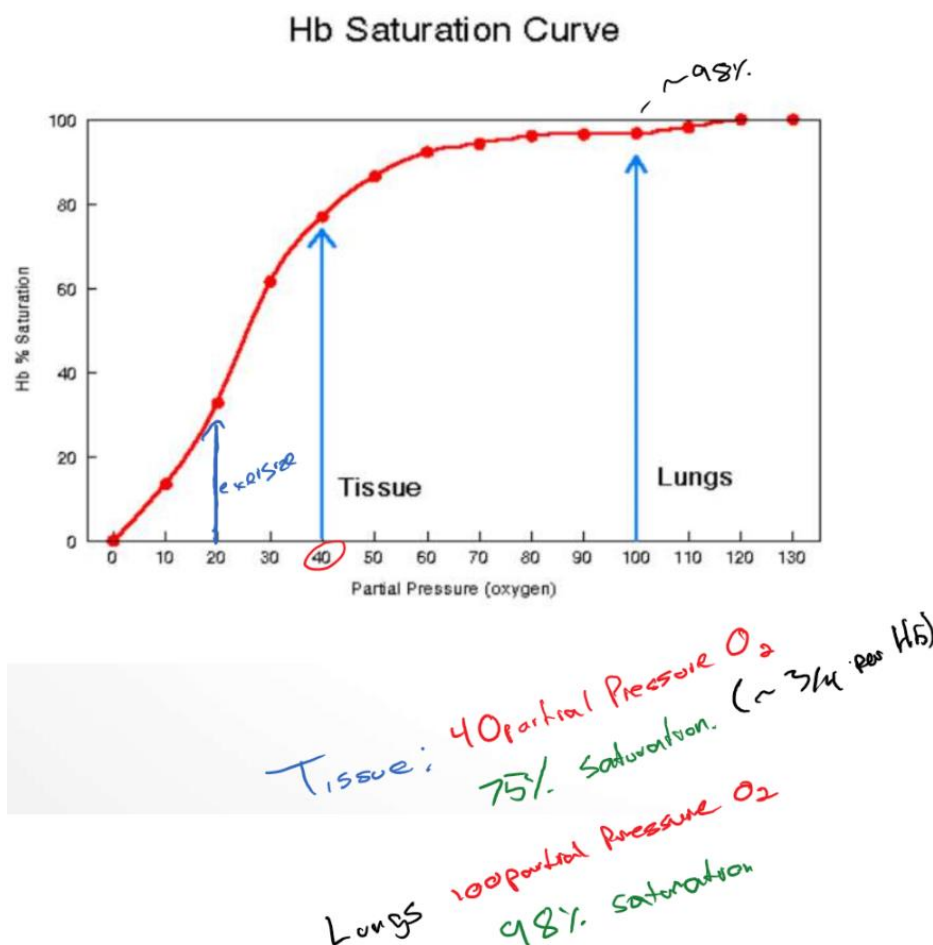
CO₂ Transport

- 20x more soluble than O₂, so we see more dissolved in plasma
- **Carbaminohemoglobin** = CO₂ bound hemoglobin
- 3 Methods of transport:
 1. Dissolution into plasma (5-10%)
 2. Hemoglobin Binding (20%)

3. Conversion to bicarbonate (70%)

- Carbonic Anhydrase (CA) within RBC converts $\text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ into carbonic acid (H_2CO_3) which dissociates into $\text{HCO}_3^- + \text{H}^+$ ions
 - o Quick conversion allows continued uptake along concentration gradient





Hypoxemia	Inadequate O_2 in arterial blood
Hypoxia	Deficiency in O_2 throughout body. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tissue Hypoxia - Cerebral Hypoxia Extremities appear cyanotic (blue-gray)

Sepsis

- Inflammation resulting in systemic response to BACTERIAL infection
 - Fever (<36 or >38)
 - Tachycardia (<90)
 - Hypotention
 - $\downarrow O_2$ to tissues = acute organ failure (lungs, liver, kidney)
 - Confusion
 - Tachypnea (>20)
 - Diaphoresis
- **Central to the pathophysiology is altered endothelial cell function**
 - Increased permeability (loss of barrier function)
 - Mediated by IL-1, IL-6, TNF- α , Nitric Oxide

- Movement of fluid out of the vasculature can result in severe hypotension

Septic Shock = Sepsis with refractory (resistant to treatment) hypotension and impaired organ perfusion

- Cardiovascular failure
- Respiratory Failure
- Renal Failure
- Hematologic failure (coagulopathy)

SIRS (Systemic Inflammatory Response Syndrome) = Systemic inflammation that may or may not have infectious cause.

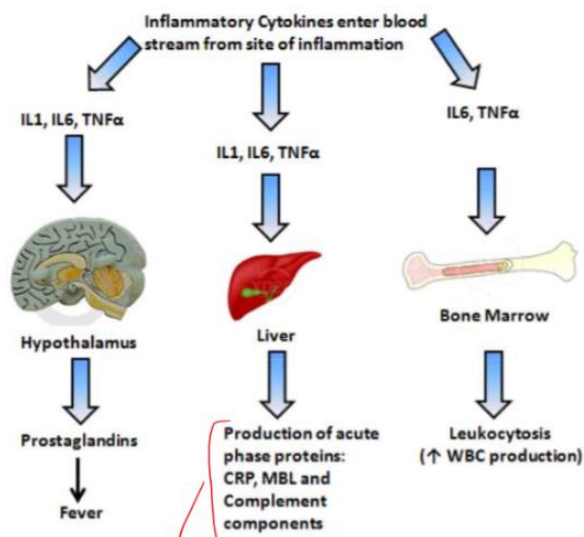
- Same diagnostic characteristics as sepsis, minus the bacterial culture.

Cytokines and Chemokines

- Cell signalling and activating function of immune cells
- Produced by activated macrophages and T-cell
 - Chemokines – stimulate leukocyte movement

Acute Inflammatory mediators: *TNF- α , IL-1, IL-6*

- Release of these mediators induce:
 - Hypothalamus release of prostaglandins = Fever
 - Liver release of Acute Phase Proteins (C-Reactive Protein, Complement)
 - Bone marrow release of WBC



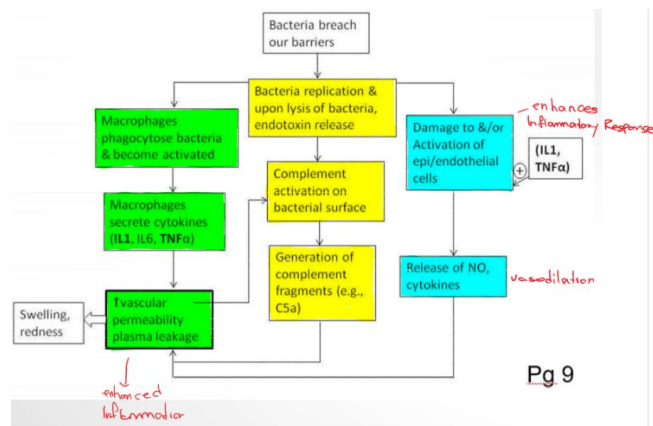
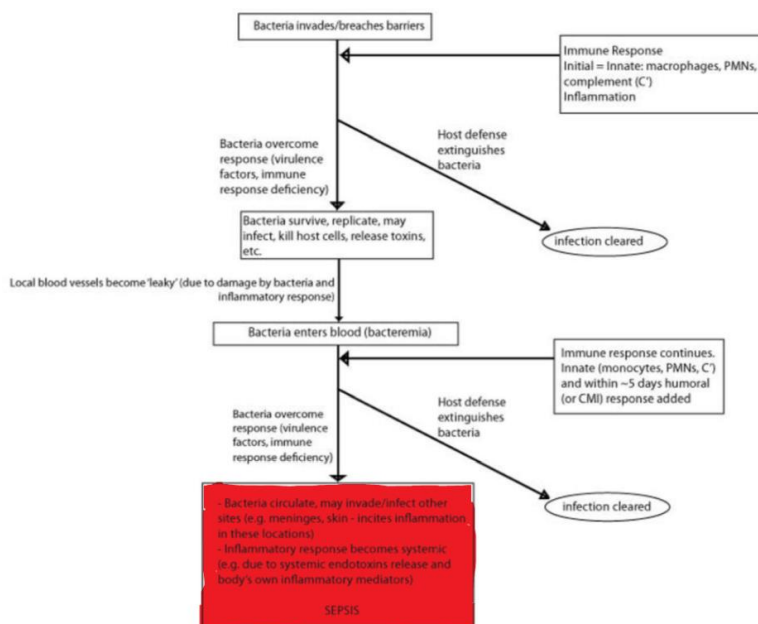
Bacteremia

- Bacteria in blood, confirmed with culturing

Systemic Responses to diagnose Sepsis (need 2+ of these)	
Temperature	>38°C or <36°C
Heart Rate	>90 bpm
Respiratory Rate	>20 breathes per minute or ppCO ₂ <32 mmHg
WBC Count	>12,000/uL or < 4000/uL, or >10% immature blasts

Blood, Lymphatics and Immunology Review

- Via trauma, vessel damage, adhesion to endothelial cells, increased permeability of endothelial cells.



Pg 9

- Causes Acute inflammatory Response: Releases IL-1, IL-6 TNF – α , NO, and Histamine
 - Increases vascular permeability, and vasodilation = Hypotension (\uparrow HR \uparrow RR)
 - Leads to multiple organ failure
 - IL-1, IL-6 TNF – α cause endothelial cells to lose anti-thrombogenic state = DIC

	Cause	Description
Disseminated Intravascular Coagulation (DIC)	Massive tissue injury, pregnancy, sepsis -IL-1, IL-6, TNF- α alter endothelial cells, prevent anticoagulation state	Widespread clotting throughout microcirculation (capillary blockage) = Ischemia, Hemolytic anemia Increased expression of tissue factor (activate clotting), but decreased thrombomodulin (reduce protein C anticoagulation)

Neutropenia

Counts	Normal: $2.5-7.5 \times 10^9/L$ Mild: $1.0-2.0 \times 10^9/L$ Moderate: $0.5 - 1.0 \times 10^9/L$ Severe: $<0.5 \times 10^9/L$
Etiology	Decreased production in marrow <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Congenital - Malignancy into bone marrow - Chemotherapy - Autoimmune attack - HIV

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Vitamin B12, Folate, Iron deficiency (required for neutrophil production) <p>Margination (Neutrophils bound to endothelial walls of vasculature, stopped from flowing in circulation)</p> <p>Sequestration in spleen</p> <p>Immune mediated destruction of neutrophils (drug or autoimmune)</p>
Dental Surgery Considerations	<p>>2000 x 10⁹ : No prophylaxis necessary</p> <p>1,000-2,000 x 10⁹/L : Antibiotic prophylaxis needed</p> <p><1000 x 10⁹/L : Postpone dental treatment</p>

= Decrease in Neutrophil count

Neutrophilia

= Too many neutrophils

Etiology and Pathogenesis	<p>Infection</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - ↑IL-1, ↑IL-6, ↑TNF = ↑ Neutrophil release - ↑IL-1, ↑IL-6 = Delayed neutrophil apoptosis <p>Acute inflammation (tissue necrosis, Myocardial infarction, Burns)</p> <p>Glucocorticoids</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - ↑demargination of peripheral blood neutrophils - ↓transmigration neutrophils into tissue - ↑ immature bands neutrophils into circulation - ↑ numbers in tests ↓ effectiveness <p>Acute Stress</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - ↑demargination of peripheral blood neutrophils
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Disorders of the Immune System

Autoimmune Disorders

= Immune response of organism acting against its own cells/tissues (via autoantibodies or T lymphocytes)

- Type 1 diabetes Mellitis
- System Lupus Erythematosus (SLE)
 - Hypersensitivity with symptoms in every organ
- Sjorgen's Syndrome
 - Secretory gland impairment (lacrimal gland and salivary glands)
- Hashimoto's Thyroiditis
 - Hypothyroidism
- Graves Disease
 - Hyperthyroidism
- Idiopathic Thrombocytopenic Purpura
- Rheumatoid Arthritis
- Addison's Disease

3 sets of genes that cause autoimmune diseases

1. Immunoglobulin genes

2. T-cell Receptor genes
3. Human Leukocyte Antigen (HLA) or MHC

Host antigen alterations	
Chemical	Chems bind with self antigens, making them immunogenic (hemolytic anemia from cephalosporin antibiotics)
Physical	UV light cause keratinocyte apoptosis and lead to cutaneous lupus erythematosus
Biologic	Persistent RNA viral infection combines with host tissues and alter autoantigens

Immunodeficiency

Primary Immunodeficiency

- Hereditary, typically X-linked (60% of cases are male) and often manifests during childhood as unusual and/or frequent infections

Categories of Primary Immunodeficiencies	
Humoral Deficiencies (B-Cell defects)	50%-60% of immunodeficiencies ↓ Serum Ig Commonly IgA deficiency
Cellular Immunity Deficiency (T-cell Defects)	5%-10% of immunodeficiencies ↓ serum Ig also
Combined Humoral and Cellular immune deficiency (B and T cell defects)	20% of primary immunodeficiencies
Phagocytic Cell defects	10%-15% of primary immunodeficiencies Commonly: Chronic granulomatous disease (↓ neutrophil phagocytic function)
Complement Deficiencies	<2%, very rare Defective opsonization, phagocytosis and lysis of pathogens

Secondary Immunodeficiencies

Caused by:

- Systemic disorders (Diabetes, Leukemia, Malnutrition, HIV)
- Immunosuppressive treatments (chemotherapy, corticosteroids)
- Chronic illness

Treatment focuses on underlying disorder

Hypersensitivity

- Allergic reaction because of exaggerated/inappropriate immune reaction

Allergens bind *IgE sensitized mast cells and basophiles* -> **Histamine** released -> Facilitates *inflammation*

Mast Cells

- Extravascular (not in circulation)
- *Produce:* Histamine, Heparin, Leukotrienes, Platelet Activating Factor
- *Contain:* Proteases, Anti-microbial Proteins

Histamine

- Causes:
 - Local **vasodilation** (Redness/erythema)
 - **Increased capillary permeability** and edema (swelling)
 - Vasodilation of surrounding arterioles
 - **Stimulation of sensory nerves** (Itchiness)
 - **Bronchoconstriction**
 - **GI muscle contraction** (↑motility)
 - **↑ Nasal, Salivary and Bronchial gland secretions**

Hypersensitivity Reactions	
Type 1 (Immediate hypersensitivity, IgE- mediated)	-Most common forms of allergy (anaphylaxis, asthma, hay fever etc) Atopy = Exaggerated IgE mediated response
Type 2 (Antibody-dependent cytotoxic hypersensitivity) Non-circulating	-Ab binds to cell surface receptor in a tissue -Ab-Ag complex activates cytotoxic cells (NK cells, eosinophils, macrophages), and compliment - Results in cell death and tissue death Eg: Graft rejections, Autoimmune Hemolytic Anemia, Hashimoto thyroiditis, Anti-glomerular Basement Membrane Disease
Type 3 (Immune complex disease) Circulating in blood	-Inflammation response to circulating Ag-Ab immune complexes deposited in vessels - Compliment systems activated = inflammatory mediator release -Larger complexes deposit in various tissues (glomeruli, vessels) to cause systemic reactions Eg: Systemic Lupus Erythematosus, Rheumatoid Arthritis, Leukocytoclastic Vasculitis.
Type 4 (Delayed Hypersensitivity) T-cell mediated	-Ag specific T-cell mediated disorders T cells sensitized after contact with Ag, reactivated upon re-exposure to Ag -Appear after time lag (2-3 days), leads to tissue injury via direct toxic effect or activation of cellular response. Eg: Contact dermatitis following exposure to metals and plants.

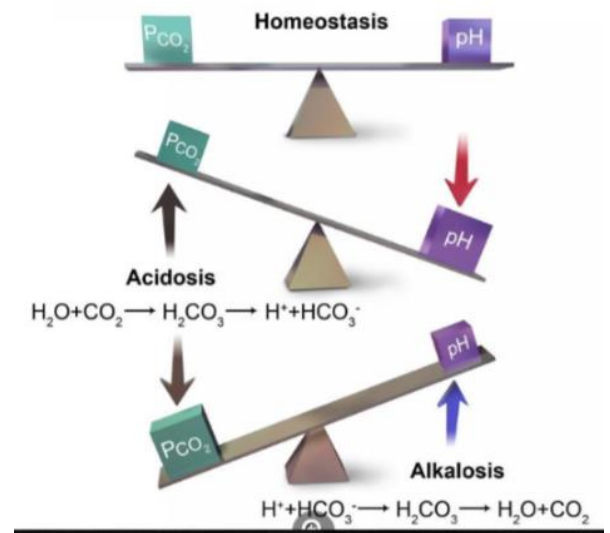
Allergy = Broad term that encompasses all 4 hypersensitivities

Atopy = Specific for Type I only

Acid-Base Balance

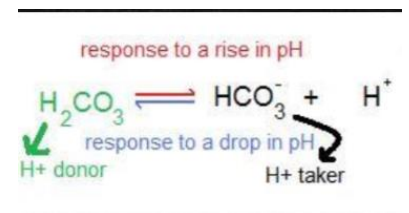
Blood pH typically between 7.35-7.45

- Balance based mostly on H^+ ion
- Most acids come from carbohydrate and fat metabolism = generates $\uparrow CO_2$ which is converted to carbonic acid (H_2CO_3) by Carbonic anhydrase. Carbonic acid dissociates to form $H^+ + HCO_3^-$



1. Chemical Buffering (Immediate, Low capacity)

- Resist changes in pH, 1st line of defense
 - o Release H^+ when pH \uparrow , and bind H^+ when pH \downarrow
- Made of Weak Acid and its conjugate base
- Eg: Carbonic Acid Buffering System
- Eg: Bone Buffering System
 - o During Acidosis: Releases $NaHCO_3 + Ca(HCO_3)_2$ for the H^+ ion binding
 - o During Prolonged Acidosis: Releases $CaCO_3 + CaPO_4$
 - Results in demineralisation and osteoporosis in chronic acidosis

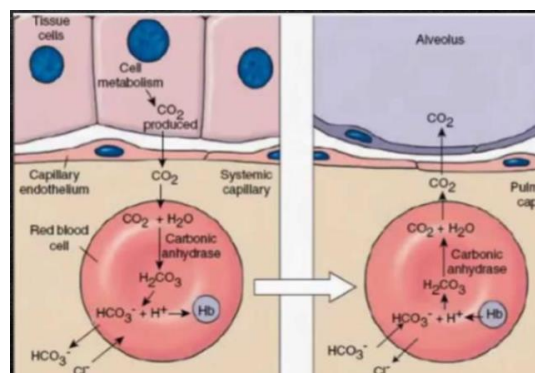


2. Pulmonary Buffering (Min-Hrs, 50-70% effective)

- CO_2 produced by cellular metabolism, leaves tissues and enters the blood. Carbonic Anhydrase produces carbonic acid from CO_2 and H_2O which ionizes into H^+ and HCO_3^-
- H^+ binds hemoglobin, and travels from anaerobic tissue to the lungs where carbonic anhydrase reverses the rxn to create H_2O and CO_2 to exhale.

3. Renal Regulation (Hrs.- Days, sustainable over longer periods)

- Controls amount of bicarbonate HCO_3^- that is excreted or reabsorbed based on pH sensors in renal tubules
 - By reabsorbing HCO_3^- we remove free H^+ -> $\uparrow \text{pH}$
 - H^+ is also actively excreted -> $\uparrow \text{pH}$



Acidosis and Alkalosis

Metabolic Acidosis	
Causes	-Diabetic Ketoacidosis -Alcohol, Aspirin, Iron ingestion -Lactic acidosis (lactic acid builds up after shock) -Excretion of bicarbonate (diarrhea etc) -Advanced Kidney disease -Toxins: Carbon monoxide, cyanide, methanol
Symptoms	Nausea, Vomit, Fatigue, weakness, confusion Deeper breathing, Faster Respiratory Rate \downarrow B.P. = Shock, Coma, Death
Metabolic Alkalosis	
Cause	-Acid loss from vomit, stomach drainage, overactive adrenal gland, or diuretics
Respiratory Acidosis	
Causes	Elevated arterial ppCO_2 b/c \downarrow breathing - Sleep apnea, lung disorders, nerve/muscle impairment in chest, OD of alcohol, Opioids, or strong sedatives
Symptoms	Headache, Drowsiness, Stupor, Coma
Respiratory Alkalosis	
Causes	Anxiety Aspirin OD Fever (breathing off extra heat) Hypoxemia Pain
Symptoms	-Irritability -Muscle Twitching -Muscle Cramping -Muscle Tetany in severe cases

Pharmacology of BL&I I

RBC Disorders

Anemia

- See PBL case wrap up for details

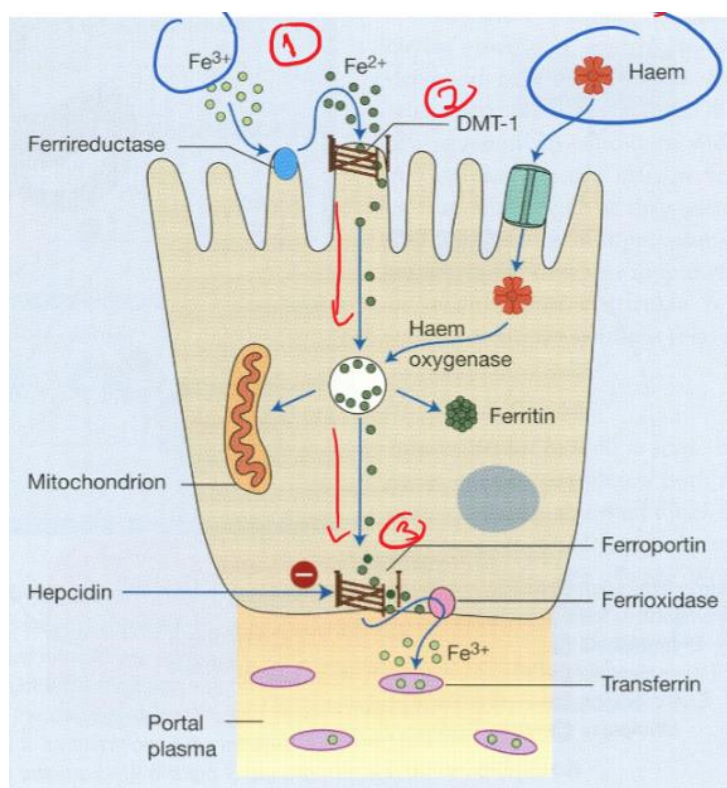
Pharmacological Considerations

- General anaesthesia (with epinephrine) \uparrow H.R. and cardiac work load
 - o O_2 transport is compromised
 - o Vital to ensure full oxygenation!

Iron Absorption/ Iron Deficiency Anemia

- 2 sources: from Heme in meat, and from Ferric iron supplements

- 1) Fe^{3+} is reduced to Fe^{2+}
- 2) Divalent metal transporter 1 (DMT-1) transports Fe^{2+} into cell from gut lumen, and Heme Carrier Protein 1 (HCP1) transports heme into the blood (or stored as Ferritin)
 - o Occurs in duodenum
- 3) Ferroportin transports Fe^{2+} out of the cell into blood
- 4) Fe^{2+} oxidized to Fe^{3+}
- 5) Transferrin transports Fe^{3+} within circulation to marrow for Hgb synthesis, or to liver for storage as ferritin



	Etiology	Cause	Treatment	Side effects
Iron Deficiency Anemia (Microcytic)		Deficiency in the absorption/uptake of iron	Iron Salt tabs Ferrous Sulphate/Ferrous Gluconate) For Malabsorption issues use Perenteral iron therapy	Nausea, Epigastric discomfort, Abdominal Cramps, Constipation, Diarrhea, Teeth Staining
Vitamin B₁₂ Deficiency (Megaloblastic)	From diet meat. Binds to intrinsic factor and absorbed into ileum for liver storage	Defect in Intrinsic Factor, vegan diet, ileal disease.		Nitrous Oxide inhibits methionine synthetase (essential for B12 metabolism) and can lead

	- GI symptoms, Neurologic symptoms			to impaired bone marrow function
Aplastic Anaemia (pancytopenia)		Genetics, Autoimmune, Chemical, Virus Drugs (NSAID, Phenylbutazone, Chloramphenicol, Sulphonamides, Glue sniffing, heavy metals, benzene, Toluene	Remove cause (drug, or chem) if possible	

Glucose-6-Phosphate Dehydrogenase Deficiency:

G6PD: Protects cells from oxidative stress, by producing NADPH, keeps Glutathione reduced (which can reduce oxidised things)

- Essential for normal life span of RBC

Deficiencies provoke destruction of RBC (leads to hemolytic anemia with Jaundice)

Drugs that cause haemolysis by G6PD deficiency: [Aspirin](#), [Sulphonamides](#), [Anti-malarial](#),

- *Prilocaine* (common local anaesthetics without epinephrine) – Prevents Fe^{3+} - Fe^{2+} Methemoglobinemia -> cannot absorb Iron from gut

Erythropoietin Treatment:

2 forms:

1. [Epoetin alfa](#) – Recombinant form of the endogenous protein
2. [Darbepoetin alfa](#) - Modified form of Epoetin alfa

Indications:

- Anemia from chronic renal failure
- Anemia from Chemotherapy
- Increase blood yield prior to donation
- Cancer

Local Anaesthetic Considerations:

- *Limit use of Prilocaine and Benzocaine*
 - o Prevents Fe^{3+} - Fe^{2+}
 - o Results in methemoglobin – unable to transport O_2

Cancer Patients

	Antineoplastic Drugs
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Blood, Lymphatics and Immunology Review

Side Effects	Bone Marrow Suppression GI Effects (due to fast replication, these cells are targeted) Hepatotoxicity Immunosuppression Oral effects (ulceration, xerostomia)
Clinical Management	Before Chemo <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Eliminate/manage infections - Control periodontal disease - Educate on proper oral hygiene - Extract non-vital teeth During Chemo <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Consider hematologic status - Consider immune status

Bleeding Disorders

Impair Platelet Function		NSAIDs, Aspirin: Diclofenac, Ibuprofen, Difunial β-lactams/Broad Spectrum: Ampicillin, Methicillin, Pen G, Rifampicin, Cephalosporin Psychoactives: Antihistamine, Diazepam, Chlorpromazine Diuretics: Acetazolamide, Chlorothiazide Cardiovascular: Digitoxin, Heparin	
	Etiology	Pathophysiology	Management
Hemophilia A	Most common Sex linked (Males primarily)	Absence or ↓ Factor VIII , Common pathway of coagulation impaired	Avoid: Local anaesthetics if no Factor VIII transfusion (no Full Nerve blocks, ↑ risk of severing nearby artery) Aspirin/NSAIDs Desmopressin: Induce release of Factor VIII from endothelial storage
Hemophilia B	Female carriers often have bleeding tendency as well	Factor IX deficiency Presents similarly to Hemophilia A	Management similar to Hemophilia A
Hemophilia C		Factor XI deficiency	Local haemostatic measures Fresh Frozen Plasma
vWD	Most common inherited bleeding disorder	Deficiency in vWF <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Synthesizes in megakaryocytes and endothelial cells - Carrier for Factor VIII - Bridge between platelets and damaged vessel Often find Factor VIII deficiency as well	Avoid Aspirin and NSAIDs Use Desmopressin <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Stimulate release of vWF and Factor VIII
Vitamin K deficiency		Malabsorption or low intake of Vitamin K (liver failure) Prolonged broad spectrum antibiotic use kills Vit. K producing bacteria in gut	Phytomenadion (Vit. K1) IV prior to surgery
Factor XII Deficiency	Rare, inherited deficiency	Doesn't lead to abnormal bleeding despite prolonged aPTT test.	

Blood, Lymphatics and Immunology Review

		Factor XII not essential for Intrinsic pathway function, because Extrinsic activated intrinsic at Factor IX step	
Leiden Deficiency	Single Gene defect (5% of Europeans)	Increased blood clotting, Factor V cannot be inactivated by anticoagulant protein C	Often on Warfarin

Anticoagulants

Red Flag conditions for when to prescribe:

- Atrial fibrillation
- Myocardial Infarction
- Cerebral thrombosis
- Deep vein thrombosis
- Heart valve replacements
- Renal dialysis

Anti-Coagulation Cascade Drugs	
Drug	Warfarin
MOA	Interferes w/ synthesis of Vit. K dependant factors (II, VII, IX, X) -> Common and Extrinsic Pathways Reversed by adding Vit K
Clinical use	Long term anticoagulation Therapy
Potential of Effects	Inhibits metabolism (Metronidazole) Inhibit platelet function (Aspirin, NSAID, antibiotics) Displacement of warfarin from albumin (NSAIDs, Chloral Hydrate) Inhibition of Vit. K reduction (Cephalosporin) Decrease Vit. K ability (Broad Spectrum Ab)
Reduction of Effects	P450 Metabolism induction (Barbituates, Rifampicin) Increased Vit. K (Vitamin K) Reduced warfarin absorption (Colestyramine)
Drug	Heparin
MOA	Catalyze antithrombin III activation (increases antithrombin III+thrombin complex) Inhibits factors II, IX, X, XI, XII -> Intrinsic Pathway and common
Clinical Use	Rapid effects of anticoagulation
Toxicity	Increases Bleeding Additive effects with other anticoagulants Transient thrombocytopenia Prolonged use associated with osteoporosis
Drug	Low Molecular Weight Heparin (Lovenox)
MOA	Inhibits activated Factor X (less effective on thrombin that heparin)
Drug	Dabigatran (Praxada) Lepirudin
MOA	Direct Thrombin inhibitor Doesn't depend on action of antithrombin

Antiplatelet Drugs	
TXA ₂ Inhibition	
Drug	ASA (Aspirin), NSAIDs
MOA	Inhibits Thromboxane A ₂ synthesis via COX-1 pathway, therefore inhibiting platelet activation and aggregation (ASA = Irreversible, NSAID = Reversible)
Drug	Dipyridamole
MOA	Inhibit phosphodiesterase (blocking adenosine uptake). This inhibits TXA ₂ Synthesis
ADP Inhibition	
Drug	Clopidogrel, Ticlopidine, Prasugrel, Ticagrelor
MOA	Inhibit ADP-induced platelet aggregation by irreversible inhibition of P2Y ₁₂ receptors
GP IIb/IIIa Inhibition	
Drug	Abciximab
MOA	Prevents GP IIb/IIIa from crosslinking with Fibrinogen between platelets

Thrombolytic Agents	
Direct Enzymes	
Agent	Tissue Plasminogen Activator (tPA), Urokinase
MOA	Directly converts plasminogen to plasmin
Indirect non-enzymes	
Agent	Streptokinase (from bacteria)
MOA	Bind circulating plasminogen, forming active complex. This complex is then catalyzed to activate plasminogen into plasmin

Pharmacology of BL&I II

Hemostatic Agents

Family	MOA	Contraindications
Gelatin Sponges Gelfoam	<p>H₂O insoluble, porous and pliable. Can absorb 45x it's weight in blood</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Forms matrix that traps platelets and RBC's (scaffold for clot) <p>Completely resorbs in 4-6 weeks</p>	<p>Closure of skin incisions (interferes with healing of skin edges)</p> <p>Don't place in intravascular compartments (inside vessels) -> risk embolization</p>
Denatured Cellulose Surgicel	<p>Meshwork of oxidized cellulose</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Forms physical plug - Cellulosic acid release denatures hemoglobin to help plug up injured site (Tanic acid in tea bags does the same thing, ask patient to bite down on teabags) 	<p>Causes delayed healing of socket (interferes with bone regeneration and epithelialization)</p>
Bone Wax	<p>Mix of beeswax, paraffin, and isopropyl palmitate</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Used when bleeding is from a vessel within bone. Smear across the hole to block blood loss. 	<p>NON-resorbable. Can have negative effects of osteogenesis</p> <p>Prevents clearing of bacteria</p>
Topical Thrombin	<p>Direct action to clot the fibrinogen of blood</p>	<p>Surface use only -> IV use can cause extensive thrombosis and death</p> <p>Doesn't work with massive rapid arterial bleeds</p>
Whiteheads Varnish	<p>Components:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <u>Bismuth</u> -> ↓ blood flow from open blood vessel. Drying absorbent action - <u>Iodoform</u> -> Antiseptic and anaesthetic to ↓ pain and ↓ infection - Paraffin 	
Topical Epinephrine	<p>Vasoconstriction (adrenergic effects)</p> <p>Used often in Epi soaked retraction cord</p>	<p>↑ BP and tachycardia</p>
Astringents	<p>Cause contraction/shrinkage of tissues and dry up secretions (blood in this case)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Used during gingival retraction <p>3 Groups:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. ↓ blood supply via vasoconstriction (Epinephrine, cocaine) 2. Remove water from tissues (Glycerol, Alcohol) 3. Coagulate superficial tissue layers into crust (Metalics) 	

Corticosteroids

Secreted by Adrenal Cortex

In dentistry	Used topically or systemically as an inflammatory control against oral lesions
Long Term Use	Chronic systemic inflammatory diseases like arthritis or asthma

	Glucocorticoids	Mineralocorticoids
Example	Cortisol Prednisone Dexamethasone	Aldosterone
Effects	Carbohydrate Metabolism (main) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Liver glycogen ↑ - Gluconeogenesis ↑ - ↑ Glucose output from liver - Protein catabolism - Bone Catabolism Anti-inflammatory Antiallergenic ↓ Prostaglandins and Leukotrienes	Affects water and sodium levels ↑ K ⁺ loss
Adverse Effects	Immunosuppression Diabetes Muscle Wasting Growth Suppression Osteoporosis Psychosis Peptic Ulceration	Hypertension Hypokalemia Muscle Weakness EDEMA
MOA	Steroid → diffuses across membrane and binds cytoplasmic receptor → enters nucleus and bind chromatin → regulates gene T ^c and T ^L .	
Dental Uses	<u>Oral Lesions</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - NOT herpetic lesions - Only for non-infectious inflammatory diseases (lichen planus) <u>Aphthous Stomatitis</u> <u>TMJ pain</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - ↓ inflammatory effects of arthritis <u>Oral Surgery</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - ↓ Post op edema, trismus and pain - Must weight pros vs cons (risk of infection) <u>Pulp Procedures</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Pulp cap, pulpotomy, hypersensitivity, cervical dentin therapy 	

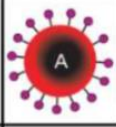
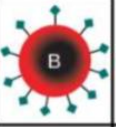
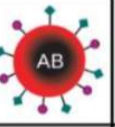







NSAIDs

Effects	Analgesic Antipyretic Anti-inflammatory
MOA	Inhibits Cyclo-Oxygenase (COX) → inhibit prostaglandin synth <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Aspirin = irreversible inhibition - Ibuprofen = Reversible inhibition
Adverse Effects	GI: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Damages mucosa of GI (PG ↓ Acid secretion, ↓ blood in mucosa, and cytoprotection) Blood: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - ↓ TXA₂ synth = ↓ platelet aggregation Renal: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - ↓ Vasodilation of Afferent Arterioles in kidney = ↓ GFR

PBL I – Kourtney Love

Blood Grouping

- Blood has 4 possible combinations of Ag on their surface (A, B, AB, O)
 - o First detectable 3-6 months old
- Rhesus Factor (Rh) is another possible Ag on RBC.
 - o Produced 30-45 days gestation
- Low numbers of ABO Ag in Fetal blood, few Ab bind therefore no significant immune activation.
 - o IgM is main Ab class, and because its large cannot cross placenta.
 - o ABO incompatibility isn't a major issue in pregnancy

	Group A	Group B	Group AB	Group O
Red blood cell type				
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
	Universal Recipient			Universal Donor

Rh in Pregnancy (Rh- mother, Rh+ fetus)

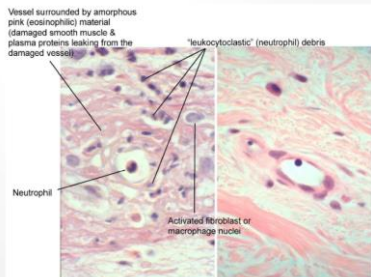
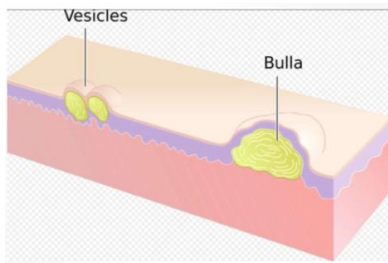
- Rh- mothers exposed to Rh+ RBC from fetus develop antibodies against Rh
 - o Ab cross placental barrier and destroy Rh+ Fetal blood
- Initial exposure usually not problem because primary response takes time and fetus (in most cases) get born on exposure
 - o Exposure due to transplacental fetal hemorrhage (late in preg. Or during birth), often during 3rd trimester. This is when mother is sensitized to Rh
- Sensitized mother (second pregnancy Rh+) can cause problems for fetus because Ab is IgG and is small enough to cross placental barrier, and immune response is faster

Fetal Symptoms with Sensitized mother	Anemia associated heart failure Liver failure Kernicterus (Bilirubin-induced brain damage) Erythroblastosis Fetalis (Hemolytic Disease of the Newborn) – Most severe
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- Immunoprophylaxis injection of the Rh- mother used to prevent primary immune response
 - o Injected Anti-Rh antibodies coat Rh+ Fetal RBC, opsonize and flag for rapid destruction before mothers immune system has opportunity to initiate primary response
 - Prevents sensitization
 - o Given at 28 weeks (3rd trimester) AND at time of birth
 - o Also important to give after miscarriage, or abortion in case fetus Rh+

Hepatitis C

Severity	Less severe than Hep B, often develops into asymptomatic chronic infection												
Associated Diseases	-Sjogrens Syndrome (immune disorder, dry eyes , xerostomia) -Lichen Planus (purplish, itchy flat-topped bumps on skin) -Lymphoma -Cryoglobulinemia -Type III Hypersensitivity Rxn (Rash) due to Ag-Ab complexes depositing on blood vessel walls												
Diagnosis	<p>Anti-HCV IgG = Presence of infection at some point (can't tell acute or chronic)</p> <p>HCV-RNA PCR = Presence of infection currently</p> <table><thead><tr><th></th><th>Acute HCV</th><th>Chronic HCV</th><th>Prior HCV*</th></tr></thead><tbody><tr><td>Anti-HCV IgG</td><td>-</td><td>+</td><td>+</td></tr><tr><td>HCV-RNA (PCR)</td><td>+</td><td>+</td><td>-</td></tr></tbody></table> <p>HCV = Hepatitis C virus; anti-HCV = antibody to HCV. *Previous HCV infection with spontaneous recovery or successful treatment.</p>		Acute HCV	Chronic HCV	Prior HCV*	Anti-HCV IgG	-	+	+	HCV-RNA (PCR)	+	+	-
	Acute HCV	Chronic HCV	Prior HCV*										
Anti-HCV IgG	-	+	+										
HCV-RNA (PCR)	+	+	-										
Transmission	Blood Borne Vertical transmission to newborn												

	Leukocytoclastic Vasculitis	Oral Pemphigoid (MMP)
Etiology	Deposition of Ag-Ab complex along basal membrane of vessels of skin (Type III Hypersensitivity)	Deposition of Ig + Complement against pemphigoid Ag along basal membrane of oral mucosa -Considered Autoimmune
Pathophysiology	Neutrophils, Macrophages Complement destroys complexes but also damage vessels (creating rash)	Sub-epithelial clefting/separation between basement membrane and epithelium (blistering)
Lab Findings	Neutrophil (leuko) apoptosis with fragmentation (-cytoclasis) of the nuclei	Nikolsky Sign – top layer of skin easily rubs away from lower layers
		

PBL II – Mrs. Robinson

Blood Functions:

- Transport O₂ and CO₂, Coagulate, provide immune response, delivery waste and drugs to liver and kidneys, maintain Acid-Base equilibrium, Temp, Electrolyte, and Volume

Erythropoiesis

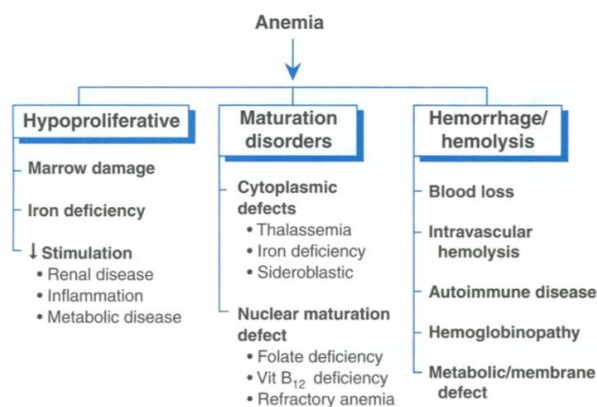
- 8 stages of differentiation and maturation between Pronormoblast stage and mature Erythrocyte
- 1st 7 stages occur in bone marrow to develop the Reticulocyte.
 - o Reticulocyte develops for 4 days in bone marrow as more Hb is produce and Nucleus is lost
- Final maturation to Erythrocytes occurs when Reticulocyte is released into circulation, RBC matures for 1 day in circulation before development is complete

Anemia = Decreased RBC, Hemoglobin, or Hematocrit ultimately resulting in decreased O₂ transport to tissues

- Classified based on size of RBC or Mean Cell Volume (MCV)
- RDW (RBC Distribution Width) indicator of the variability of cell size, large RDW indicative of multiple causes (macrocytic AND microcytic)

3 Mechanisms of Anemia:

1. Decreased RBC Production
 - o Deficient blood forming components
 - o Bone Marrow Failure
 - o Decreased EPO (renal failure)
2. Increased RBC Destruction
 - o Hemolysis
3. Blood Loss
 - o Hemorrhage (Acute or Chronic)



	General Signs and Symptoms
Anemia	-Pallor (skin, and mucous membrane) -Weakness -Fatigue -Lightheaded -Cold extremities -Headaches -Malaise -Dyspnea (Out of breath) -Tachycardia (Increased Heart Rate) -Angina Pectoris (Radiating pain in left chest, arms, back and mandible)

Blood, Lymphatics and Immunology Review

	Microcytic (Low MCV)	Normocytic (normal MCV)	Macrocytic
Cause	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Iron Deficiency -Thalassemia (abnormal Hb) -Chronic Illness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Hemorrhage -Chronic Illness -Hemolytic Anemia -Neoplasm -Marrow suppression (chemotherapy induced) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -B12 or Folate deficiency -Chronic liver disease -Alcohol Excess -Myelodysplastic Syndrome (immature RBC produced) -Hemolytic anemia with high Reticulocytes -Aplastic Anemia

	Etiology	Mechanism
<u>Aplastic Anemia</u>	<p><u>1°:</u> Unknown cause Often young adults, leading to death</p> <p><u>2°:</u> Caused by drug/chem. Ingestion or radioactive exposure Occurs at any age Better prognosis</p>	<p>Decreased production of all bone marrow products</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - WBC, RBC, Platelets
<u>Anemia of Chronic Disease</u>	<p>Chronic inflammatory diseases (infection, autoimmune, kidney disease, cancer)</p> <p>Resembles Iron deficiency (reduced RBC production)</p> <p>Normocytic early on, microcytic in later stages</p>	<p>Protective mech. To limit available iron during "attack"</p> <p>Inflammation triggers Iron regulation. IL-1, TNF-α, IF-β increase synthesis of Hepcidin (decrease Iron metabolism)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - \downarrow Iron Absorption - \downarrow Iron release from macrophage - \downarrow Iron release from Liver <p>\downarrow Fe = \downarrow Erythropoiesis</p>
<u>Drug Induced</u>	<p>Chronic Ibuprofen use = acute GI bleeding from ulceration</p> <p>NSAIDs cause kidney damage</p>	<p>Fe deficiency leads to microcytic anemia</p> <p>\downarrow kidney function = \downarrow EPO and \downarrow RBC</p>
<u>Hemolytic Anemia</u>	<p>1. Intravascular vs Extravascular destruction Destruction occurs most often in Liver and Spleen (Extravascular) via mononuclear phagocyte system</p> <p>2. Intrinsic RBC Defect Cellular rigidity causes splenic sequestration</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Spherocytosis, Sickle Cell, Thalassemia, G6PD deficiency <p>3. Extrinsic Defects – Most common Immune mediated destruction (autoimmune + allo-immune (transfusion rejection) = Ab coated RBC phagocytosis</p> <p>Non-immune destruction in infection, or abnormal vasculature (synth hearth valve, TTP fragmentation)</p>	
<u>Thrombotic Thrombocytopenic Purpura (TTP)</u>	<p>Acquired and Inherited</p>	<p>Clots form in small vessels throughout body</p> <p>Ab-inhibition of ADAMTS13, which is normally responsible for vWF cleavage into small subunits.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Long vWF \uparrow platelet adhesion and RBC trapping

	Oral Manifestations
<p><u>Hemolytic Anemia</u></p> <p><u>Autoimmune Hemolytic Anemia</u></p> <p>(Ab against own RBC either spontaneous or secondary to disease)</p>	<p>-Mucosal Pallor or jaundice (tongue, sublingual, soft palate)</p> <p>-Lamellar striations in radiograph due to enlarged medullary spaces in hyperplasia of erythrocytes</p> <p>-Step-ladder trabeculae between roots in radiograph</p> <p>Splenomegaly (RBC-Ab transported to spleen, ↑ size to ↑ rate of destruction)</p>
<p><u>Pernicious Anemia</u></p> <p>(B₁₂ malabsorption via ↓ Intrinsic factor by parietal cells)</p>	<p>Crohn's disease (terminal ileum)</p> <p>Pancreatitis</p> <p>Dysphagia (difficulty swallowing)</p> <p>Dysguesia (altered taste)</p> <p>Atrophic Glossitis</p> <p>Angular Cheilitis</p> <p>Glossodynia (red dorsal tip of tongue w/ papillary atrophy)</p> <p>Decreased muscle tone due to neurologic defects</p>
<p><u>Folic Acid Deficiency</u></p>	<p>Angular Cheilitis</p> <p>Atrophic Glossitis</p> <p>Ulcerative Stomatitis</p> <p>Pharyngitis</p> <p>NO neurologic symptoms like in B₁₂ Deficiency</p>
<p><u>Iron Deficiency</u></p> <p>(microcytic, hypochromic RBC)</p>	<p>Gingival/Mucosal Pallor</p> <p>Atrophic Glossitis</p> <p>Angular Cheilitis</p>
<p><u>Plummer-Vinson Syndrome</u> <u>(Because of Iron Deficiency)</u></p> <p>(Pre-malignant condition)</p>	<p>Esophageal webs</p> <p>Xerostomia</p> <p>Atrophic changes in mucosa and pharynx</p> <p>Dysphagia (muscular degeneration of esophagus)</p> <p>Atrophic glossitis</p> <p>Angular Cheilitis</p>
<p><u>Sickle Cell Anemia</u></p> <p>(Autosomal Recessive, Abnormal Hb and RBC shape, ↓ RBC lifespan and ↑ rigidity)</p>	<p>Pale Mucosa (possible jaundiced)</p> <p>Orofacial pain (from bone infarcts)</p> <p>Pulpal necrosis w/o dental disease</p> <p>Enamel Hypomineralization</p> <p>Step-ladder trabeculae between roots</p> <p>Dense Alveolar bone with distinct lamina dura</p> <p>Enlarged hematopoietic Maxilla (from marrow hyperplasia)</p> <p>Excessive Overjet and Overbite delayed skeletal maturation</p> <p>Risk of stroke</p> <p>Pain</p> <p>Tissue Damage</p>

PBL III – Tyrone Bogue

	Acute Myelogenous Leukemia	Acute Lymphoblastic Leukemia
Incidence	More common in adults Successful Cure 50%	Most common malignancy in children <15 Incidence peaks between 2-5 years old Successful remission >80% Successful cure >70%
Types	20% pediatric leukemia	80% pediatric leukemia
Etiology	Mostly unknown Increased incidence in Down Syndrome No family history Siblings are not at greater risk	
Clinical Presentation	Onset either slow and insidious or acute and fast Bone Marrow Infiltration: Pallor, Fatigue – Anemia Fever, Infection – Leukopenia Purpura, Epistaxis, Bruising – Thrombocytopenia Gingival Enlargement Loss of appetite Malaise Bone and joint pain Lymphadenopathy (30% of ALL) Hepatosplenomegaly (10% of ALL) Mediastinal mass (10% of ALL)	
Oral Manifestations	Gingival Enlargement (infiltration by blast cells) Gingival ulceration Gingival hemorrhage Infection (Bacterial, Fungal, Viral) Lymphadenopathy Petechia Purpura Mucosal Pallor - anemia	
Diagnosis	> 20% nucleated Blasts present in marrow - (normal is < 5%) Immunotype blasts for CD markers to determine if Myeloid or Lymphoid lineage Lumbar Puncture at time of diagnoses to determine any blast present in CSF - Required extra treatment for CNS infiltration	
Lab Findings	Peripheral Smear: Anemia (75%) Leukopenia (50%) Thrombocytopenia (70%)	Peripheral Smear: Anemia (75%) Leukopenia (50%) Thrombocytopenia (70%) Immature B-cell – 85% Mature B-cell – 1% T-cell – 15% CSF infiltration: 5-10% of cases
Treatment	Combination chemotherapy Possibly cranial radiation Complete remission when marrow <5% blasts and no extramedullary evidence of leukemia W/O therapy – Dead in 2-3 months	

Oral Complications of Chemo	
Mucositis and Ulceration	Inflammation of GI, mouth, pharynx, and esophagus (high cell turnover areas)
Infection	Immunosuppression from chemo ↑ risk of infection - Usual signs of inflammation may not be present (red, pain, swelling, heat)
Pain/Neurotoxicity	Possible constant, deep pain as result of drugs. Bilateral and mimics toothache (no odontogenic source)
Xerostomia	Decreased or thickened saliva
Dysgeusia (Taste alteration)	Atrophy of tongue papilla?
Bleeding	Thrombocytopenia and clotting factor decrease due to marrow suppression ↑ bleeding time. Platelet transfusion may be necessary
Dental Developmental Abnormality	Chemo during development may cause short malformed roots, enamel defects, disturbed crown development and eruption.

Prophylactic treatments prior to Chemotherapy:

1. Thorough exam identifying: Non-vital teeth, grossly carious teeth, gingivitis, periodontitis (5mm pocket depth)
2. Educate on proper oral hygiene and its importance in relation to cancer treatment
3. Warn about oral side effects of chemo (xerostomia, mucositis etc)
4. Extract hopeless teeth
 - a. Minor surgery 2 weeks prior to chemo
 - b. Major surgery: 4-6 weeks prior to chemo
5. Antifungal prophylaxis (miconazole, fluconazole) when ↓WBC to prevent candidiasis
6. No flossing prior to treatment (eliminate laceration to gingiva)
7. Frequent rinses to debride mouth and reduce bacterial count (chlorhexidine)
8. Fluoride rinse
9. Remove orthodontic appliances, and ensure dentures are fitting well

Managing Oral Complications during chemo:

- Suck on ice chips and use Benzydamine 0.15% rinse (topical NSAID)
- 2% lidocaine with Maalox or Benadryl
- Chlorhexidine rise (0.12%)
- Surgilube or Lanolin to dry lips (NO Vaseline, bacteria and fungi can culture on oil based lube)

Blood, Lymphatics and Immunology Review

Condition	History	Physical Exam	Lab Results
Hemophilia A	More prevalent in males Presents in childhood Deep tissue bleeds (joints, muscles) Family Hx: Male relatives on mother side	Large bruises Swollen joints (Hemarthrosis) (ankles, knees)	PTT: High INR (PT): Normal CBC: Normal Factor 8: Low
Von Willebrand Disease (vWD)	Present in children or adults Excessive bleeding with minor or no injury, superficial cuts Spontaneous gingival and nose bleeds "easy bruiser" Autosomal Dominant	Mucosal bleeding Petechiae	PTT: Normal INR (PT): Normal CBC: Normal vWF: Low Ristocetin cofactor : Low - Tests vWF function
Disseminated Intravascular Coagulopathy (DIC)	Severely ill (sepsis, trauma, malignancy) Multiple bleeding sites Bleed from IV puncture	Bleeding from IV Abnormal bleeding Abnormal vitals due to illness	PTT: High INR (PT): High Fibrinogen: Low D-dimer: High CBC: Low platelets, anemia Smear: RBC fragments
Immune Thrombocytopenic Purpura (ITP)	More common in children (in adults too) Preceded by Viral infection Abnormal bruising Mucosal bleeding Nose bleeds	Mucosal bleeding Petechiae	PTT: Normal INR (PT): Normal CBC: Low Platelets
Platelet reduction thrombocytopenia	Mucosal bleeding Nose bleeds Fatigue Medication use	Mucosal Bleeding Petechiae Possible splenomegaly or hepatomegaly	PTT: Normal INR (PT): Normal CBC: Low platelets, possible anemia
Child Abuse	Previous presentations for trauma Inconsistent bruising Inadequate explanation of bruising Social, or familial risk factors	Multiple injuries at different stages of healing Patterned injury (belt, hand) Genetical injury	PTT: Normal INR (PT): Normal CBC: Normal

DALE I – Harry

Von Willebrand Disease	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Prolonged bleeding - Inherited (Autosomal Dominant) defect of platelet adhesion. Deficiency of von Willebrand Factor 	
Type 1	Not enough vWF
Type 2	Malfunction vWF
Type 3	Complete Deficiency
Presentation	Mucous membrane bleeding (gingiva, nose) Excessive blood loss from superficial cuts Operative and Post Operative Hemorrhage
Treatment	Desmopressin <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Stimulates vWF and Factor VIII release from endothelial cells. Acts in 30-60 mins for 6-12 hours vWF replacement therapy Antifibrinolytic agents Topical thrombin or fibrin sealants

DALE II – Bleedin' Disorders

Effects of Primary and Secondary Hemostasis disorders

Injury	Primary (platelet) Hemostasis	Secondary (Coagulation) Hemostasis
Surface Cuts	Excessive, Prolonged bleeding	Normal/Slightly prolonged bleeding
Onset after Injury	Immediate	Delayed
Site of Bleeding	Superficial (Mucosal, and skin)	Deep (Joints, Muscles)
Lesions	Petechiae, Ecchymosis	Hemarthroses, Hematoma

Interpretation of Lab Findings

Condition	INR (PT) – Extrinsic	PTT - Intrinsic	Platelet Count	RBC Count
Haemophilia A/B	N	↑	N	N
vWD	N	N	N/↓	N
DIC	↑	↑	↓	N/↓
Liver Failure	↑	N/↑	N/↓	N
ITP	N	N	↓	N
TTP	N	N	↓	↓

Hemostasis Type	Test	Normal Range	Purpose	Diagnostics
Primary	<u>Platelet Count</u>	150-400 x 10 ⁹ /L	Quantify Platelet Number	Low in ITP, DIC, TTP, HUS
Secondary	<u>aPTT</u>	27-36 sec	Measure Intrinsic pathway (VIII, IX, XI, XIII, XII) Monitor Heparin therapy	Prolonged in Haemophilia A/B
	<u>PT (INR)</u>	11-24 sec	Measure Extrinsic pathway (VII, III) INR standardises lab values Used to monitor Warfarin Therapy	Prolonged in Factor VII Deficiency
	<u>Mixing Studies</u>		Tests inhibitors of clotting factors by mixing patients plasma with normal plasma	Factor deficiency evident if test becomes normal, Inhibition is test still abnormal
Fibrinolysis	<u>Euglobin lysis time</u>	>90min	Checks accelerated fibrinolysis	Accelerated in DIC, VIII Deficiency

DALE III – Ethel

Name	Class	Indications	MOA	Effects on Dental Treatment
Ramipril	Angiotensin-Converting Enzyme Inhibitor (ACEi) Anti-hypertensive	-Heart Failure after myocardial Infarction -Hypertension -↓ Risk MI, Stroke, Cardiovascular events	-Lower BP by reducing products of Angiotensin II, and thus reducing vasoconstriction	-Orthostatic hypotension -Dry cough may interfere with longer appointments
Hydrochlorothiazide	Antihypertensive Thiazide diuretic	-Hypertension -Edema due to heart failure, liver cirrhosis, renal dysfunction	Blocks salt and fluid reabsorption from urine and kidneys. Increasing urine output	Orthostatic hypotension
Warfarin	Vitamin K antagonist Anticoagulant	-Thrombotic disorders -Complications from atrial fibrillation or valve replacement -Pulmonary embolism -Deep vein thrombosis (DVT) Target INR: 2.5 (2.0-3.0) 3.0 (2.5-3.5) – Mechanical Heart Valve	Decreases Vit K factors (II, VII, IX, X) and Proteins C and S	Oral Ulceration Dysgeusia (Altered taste) Possible gingival bleeding if over dosing NOTE: Avoid Metronidazole use Corticosteroids enhance effects of Warfarin Antibiotic use = 2 fold increase of bleeding with warfarin Antifungal use = 4 fold increase in bleeding
Dabigatran	Direct thrombin inhibitor anticoagulant	Replacement of Warfarin	Binds reversibly to active site of thrombin, reduces activity and fibrin formation Increases TT test, no effect on INR like warfarin. Increases aPTT (thrombin involved in feedback of intrinsic pathway)	Procedures as late as possible after most recent dose - Half life 12-14 hr - Peak effect in 1-2hr Local hemostatic measures