HEMATOLOGY

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HEMOSTASIS Three Phases of Hemostasis Tests of Hemostasis Thrombocytopenia & Other Disorders of 1° Hemostasis Idiopathic (Autoimmune) Thrombocytopenic Purpura (ITP) Chronic (Adult-type) ITP Disorders of Secondary Hemostasis	BLOOD PRODUCTS AND TRANSFUSIONS38 Blood Groups Red Cells Platelets Coagulation Factors Group and Reserve Serum Acute Complications of Blood Transfusions Delayed Complications in Transfusions
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Heparin-Induced Thrombocytopenia (HIT)	REFERENCES

APPROACH TO THE BLOOD FILM

Size ☐ macrocytic • increased size
 e.g. low B₁₂, low folate microcytic reduced size e.g. iron deficiency, thalassemia
 Colour hypochromatic increase in the size of the central pallor (normal = less than half of the diameter of RBC) increased polychromasia (blue cells) indicates increased RBC production by the marrow
Shape □ normal = discocyte (biconcave) □ spherocyte = spherical RBC • e.g. hereditary spherocytosis, immune hemolytic anemia □ fragmented cells (schistocytes) = split RBC • e.g. microangiopathic hemolytic anemia (TTP, DIC, vasculitis, glomerulonephritis), prosthetic heart valve □ elliptocyte (ovalocyte) = oval, elongated RBC • e.g. hereditary elliptocytosis, megaloblastic anemia □ sickle cell = sickle-shaped RBC • e.g. sickle cell disorders, HbSC, HbSS □ target cell = bell-shaped, looks like target on dried film • e.g. liver disease, hemoglobin S and C, thalassemia, Fe deficiency □ teardrop cell (darcocyte) = single pointed end, looks like a teardrop • e.g. myelofibrosis
Distribution ☐ rouleaux formation = aggregates of RBC resembling stacks of coins e.g. artifact, paraprotein (multiple myeloma, macroglobulinemia)
Inclusion □ nuclei • immature RBC • indicates serious medical disease • e.g. severe anemia, leukemia, bone marrow metastases □ Heinz bodies • denatured hemoglobin • e.g. G6PD deficiency □ Howell-Jolly bodies • small nuclear remnant with the colour of a pyknotic nucleus • e.g. post-splenectomy, hyposplenism, hemolytic anemia, megaloblastic anemia □ basophilic stippling • deep blue granulations of variable size and number, pathologic aggregation of ribosomes • e.g. lead intoxication, thalassemia
☐ Investigations (see Table 1)
Table 1 RDW (Red Cell Distribution Width)

Table 1. RDW (Red Cell	Distribution Width)
Normal	Increased
anemia of chronic disease	iron deficiency
thalassemia	dual deficiency (e.g. iron and folate) myelodysplastic syndrome
	AIHA
	liver disease
	pernicious anemia
	folate deficiency

ANEMIA

CLINICAL APPROACH TO ANEMIA

	acute vs chronic
۲	acute vs chronic
Ш	decreased production vs increased destruction
	anemia vs pancytopenia based on MCV
	based on MCV
	rule out dilutional anemia (low Hb due to increased effective circulating volume)

Hypochromic microcytic (MCV<80)	Normochro (80 <m< th=""><th colspan="2">Macrocytic (MCV>100)</th></m<>	Macrocytic (MCV>100)	
Fe deficiency Thalassemia Lead Poisoning Sideroblastic Chronic disease (some cases)	Low Reticultocytes: • Myelodysplasia • Infiltration (leukemia, myeloma, mets, infection) • Myelofibrosis • Aplasia • Chronic Disease (some cases) • Liver Disease • Uremia • Endocrine (hyper/hypothyroid, Addison's)	High Reticulocytes: • Hemolytic anemia • Post-hemorrhagic anemia • Treated nutritional deficiency	Megaloblastic B ₁₂ Folate Drugs Myelodysplasia Liver Disease Alcohol Reticulocytosis

ematological History
ID: background: Mediterranean, Asian, black (thalassemia), black (sickle cell)
presenting symptom & HPI: depend on how rapidly the anemia develops
 fatigue, malaise, weakness, palpitations, syncope, dyspnea,
headache, vertigo, tinnitus
PMH: past anemias, therapies, past blood loss (GI/GU), blood donation

history, menstrual history, signs/symptoms of renal, liver, endocrine disturbances, AIDS and other chronic diseases, malignancies

☐ family Hx: important in hereditary anemia; ask about anemia, jaundice, gallbladder disease, splenectomy

medications: drugs may cause aplasia, macrocytic/megaloblastic states, hemolysis, blood loss diet: iron, folic acid, vitamin B12 supplementation: amount, frequency, duration, reason

alcohol consumption: quantify amount and duration (toxic effect on bone marrow or anemia due to liver disease)

Physical Exam

☐ HEENT: pallor: mucous membranes, conjunctivae (Hb < 90 g/L), icterus, cervical lymphadenopathy, ocular bruits (Hb < 55 g/L), glossitis

☐ CVS: tachycardia, postural changes, systolic flow murmur, wide pulse pressure, CHF☐ GI: hepatomegaly, splenomegaly, rectal (occult blood)

 \Box skin: pallor, jaundice, skin creases (Hb < 75 g/L), telangiectasia as in hemolytic anemia, koilonychia (spoon-shaped nails) as in iron deficiency anemia

IRON METABOLISM

IRON	INTAKE ((Dietary)

"average" Canadian adult diet = 10-20 mg Fe/day
absorption = 5-10% (0.5-2 mg/day)
males have a positive Fe balance
menstruating females have a negative Fe balance

PHYSIOLOGIC CAUSES OF INCREASED FE REQUIREMENTS

4x basal need

2x basal need

infancy-growth spurt
puberty-growth spurt, menarche
pregnancy-maternal RBC, fetus 3x basal need pregnancy-mac blood donation 4x basal need

• 500 mL blood = 250 mg Fe

• 4 donations/year = 1 g

IRON METABOLISM ... CONT.

IRON ABSORPTION

☐ in duodenum iron combines with apoferritin to form ferritin that is absorbed through villi

Table 3. Intraluminal Factors in Absorption of Non-Heme Iron		
Promoters	Inhibitors	
Gastric HCl	Achlorhydria Antacids	
Reducing agents • ascorbic acid	Oxidants	
In Fe ²⁺ form	In Fe ³⁺ form	
Inorganic form	Organic form	
Soluble chelators	Non-absorbable chelators • phosphate (milk) • phytates (cereals) • oxalate (spinach) • tannin (tea)	

IR	N	TR	ΔI	NS.	DC	RT
			~1		_	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,

majority of non-heme Fe in plasma is bound to transferrin

transferrin

carries Fe from mucosal cell to RBC precursors in marrow
carries Fe from storage pool in hepatocytes and macrophages to RBC precursors in marrow

IRON STORAGE

- ☐ Fe is stored in two forms: ferritin and hemosiderin
- ☐ ferritin
 - ferric Fe complexed to a protein called apoferritin
 - hepatocytes are main site of ferritin storage
 - minute quantities are present in plasma in equilibrium with intracellular ferritin
- ☐ hemosiderin
 - aggregates or crystals of ferritin with the apoferritin partially removed
 - macrophage-monocyte system is main source of hemosiderin storage

IRON INDICES

- ☐ bone marrow aspirate is the gold standard test for iron stores
- serum ferritin

 - single most important blood test for iron stores
 falsely elevated in inflammatory disease, liver disease (from necrotic hepatocytes), neoplasm and hyperthyroidism
- ☐ serum iron

 - varies significantly daily
 a measure of all non-heme Fe present in blood
 virtually all serum iron is bound to transferrin
 only a trace of serum Fe is free or complexed in ferritin
- total iron binding capacity (TIBC)
 high specificity for decreased iron, low sensitivity
 - measure of total amount of transferrin present in blood
 - normally, one third of the TIBC is saturated with Fe, remainder is unsaturated
- saturation
 - serum Fe divided by TIBC, expressed as a proportion or a %

INTERPRETING IRON INDICES

Table 4. Interpreting Iron Indices					
	Ferritin	Serum Iron	TIBC	RDW	Saturation
Iron Deficiency	↓ ↓	1	↑	↑	↓ ↓
Chronic Disease	↑/ N	↓/N	↓/N	N	N
Sideroblastic Anemia	1	1	N	No (dimophic picture)	_
Iron Overload	1	1	N	_	1

IRON METABOLISM ... CONT.

LABORATORY FEATURES

- ☐ Fe stores diminished
 - decreased stainable iron in marrow
 - serum ferritin decreased
- serum ferritin decreased
 Fe stores absent (in order of increasing Fe deficiency)
 serum Fe falls
 TIBC increases
 hemoglobin falls
 microcytosis (Hb levels of 100-110 g/L or 10-11 g/dL)
 hypochromia (Hb 90-100 g/L or 9-10 g/dL)

IRON DEFICIENCY

 most common cause of anemia in Canada imbalance of intake vs. requirements or loss may indicate the presence of serious GI disease
PHYSIOLOGIC CAUSES ☐ increased need for iron in the body
PATHOLOGIC CAUSES ☐ in adult males and post-menopausal females, Fe deficiency is usually related to chronic blood loss ☐ dietary deficiencies (rarely the only etiology)
CLINICAL PRESENTATION ☐ iron deficiency may cause fatigue before clinical anemia develops ☐ brittle hair ☐ dysphagia (esophageal web, Plummer-Vinson ring) ☐ nails ☐ brittle ☐ koilonychia ☐ glossitis ☐ angular stomatitis ☐ pica (appetite for bizarre substances e.g. ice, paint, dirt)
 DIAGNOSIS □ major diagnostic difficulty is to distinguish from anemia of chronic disease serum ferritin < 20 is diagnostic of iron deficiency anemia iron deficiency anemia unlikely if ferritin > 22-322 platelet count may be elevated □ peripheral blood film (see Colour Atlas H3) hypochromic microcytosis: RBCs are under hemoglobinized due to lack of Fe pencil forms target cells (thin) □ bone marrow intermediate and late erythroblasts show micronormoblastic maturation Fe stain (Prussian blue) shows decreased iron in macrophages decreased normal sideroblasts
TREATMENT ☐ treat the underlying cause ☐ different preparations available: tablets, syrup, parenteral (if malabsorption) ☐ dose: ferrous sulphate 325 mg PO TID or ferrous gluconate 300 mg PO TID until anemia corrects and then for 3 months after

RECOVERY TIME □ reticulocytes begin to increase after one week □ Hb normalizes by 10 grams per week □ if serum ferritin is normal then discontinue iron therapy ANEMIA REFRACTORY TO TREATMENT WITH ORAL IRON □ medication • poor preparation (e.g. expired) • drug interactions □ patient • poor compliance • continued bleeding • malabsorption (rare) □ physician

THE ANEMIA OF CHRONIC DISEASE

Etiology ☐ infections ☐ cancer
inflammatory and rheumatologic disease
☐ renal disease ☐ endocrine disorders (e.g. thyroid)
Pathophysiology ☐ a mild hemolytic component is often present ☐ red blood cell survival modestly decreased ☐ erythropoietin levels are normal or slightly elevated but are inappropriately low for the degree of anemia ☐ iron cannot be removed from its storage pool in hepatocytes and reticuloendothelial cells
Diagnosis ☐ a diagnosis of exclusion, biochemically rule out Fe deficiency
a diagnosis of exclusion, biochemically full out Fe deliciency serum
 serum iron, TIBC, and % saturation all normal or slightly reduced serum ferritin is normal or increased peripheral blood
 usually normocytic and normochromic if the anemia is mild may be microcytic and normochromic if the anemia is moderate may be microcytic and hypochromic if the anemia is severe but rarely < 90 g/L)
□ bone marrow
 normal or increased iron stores decreased "normal" sideroblasts
Management
 resolves if underlying disease is treated erythropoietin may normalize the hemoglobin value
dose of erythropoietin required higher than for patients with renal disease
only treat patients who can benefit from a higher hemoglobin level

LEAD POISONING

• misdiagnosis

L: Lead Lines on gingivae and epiphyses of long bones on X-ray

E: Encephalopathy and Erythrocyte basophilic stippling

A: Abdominal colic and microcytic Anemia

D: Drops: wrist and foot drop. **D**imercaprol and E**D**TA as first line of treatment

SIDEROBLASTIC ANEMIA group of disorders with various defects in the porphyrin biosynthetic pathway leading to a reduction in heme synthesis resulting in an increase in cellular iron uptake ☐ characterized by presence of abnormal erythroid precursors in marrow **Types of Sideroblasts**☐ "normal" sideroblasts • aggregates of ferritin, diffusely spread throughout the red blood cell cytoplasm small · found in normal individuals ☐ "ring" sideroblasts • iron deposited in the mitochondria forms a ring around the red blood cell nucleus abnormal finding **Etiology** □ hereditary • rare • X-linked (defective D-aminolevulinic acid synthetase – rate-limiting enzyme in heme synthesis) • median survival is 10 years acquired primary • may be a preleukemic phenomenon (10%) secondary toxins • drugs (isoniazid), ethanol • neoplasms and consequent chemotherapy (alkylating agents) • collagen vascular disease **Diagnosis** 🖵 serum • iron overload: increased serum iron, normal TIBC, increased ferritin peripheral blood • dimorphic picture (normal and hypochromic population) bone marrow required for diagnosisbizarre megaloblastic changes

Management

☐ treatment of underlying cause

 ring sideroblasts increased iron stores

☐ oral pyridoxine (vitamin B6)

- hereditary and secondary acquired forms usually responsive
- myelodysplastic sideroblastic anemia not responsive

HEMOGLOBIN AND HEMOGLOBINOPATHIES

Hemoglobin Structure and Production	
THALASSEMIA \Box defects in production of Hb β that leads to microcytosis	
I. HETEROZYGOUS: β-Thalassemia Minor □ common among people of Mediterranean and Asian descent	
Clinical Presentation depends on extent of disease mild or no anemia possible palpable spleen may be masked by Fe deficiency	

Diagnosis ☐ serum
• Hb 90-140 g/L, MCV < 70
 peripheral blood microcytosis +/- hypochromia
 target cells and increased poikilocytosis ("fish RBC") may be present basophilic stippling usually present
☐ Hb electrophoresis
 specific: Hb A2 increased to 0.025-0.05 (2.5-5%) (normal 1.5-3.5%) non-specific: 50% have slight increase in HbF
Management
☐ not necessary to treat ☐ patient and family should receive genetic counselling
II. HOMOZYGOUS: β-Thalassemia Major
Pathophysiology ☐ autosomal recessive
☐ ineffective chain synthesis leading to ineffective erythropoiesis and hemolysis of RBC
☐ increase in HbF
Clinical Presentation ☐ initial presentation at 3-6 months due to replacement of HbF by HbA
☐ severe anemia develops in the first year of life
☐ jaundice ☐ stunted growth and development (hypogonadal dwarf)
gross hepatosplenomegaly (extramedullary hematopoiesis) changes (expanded marrow cavity)
 skull x-ray has "hair-on-end" appearance
 pathological fractures common evidence of increased Hb catabolism (e.g. gallstones)
death fromuntreated anemia (transfuse)
• infection (treat early)
hemochromatosis (late, secondary to transfusions), usually 20-30 years old
Diagnosis ☐ CBC
• hemoglobin 40-60 g/L ☐ peripheral blood
hypochromic microcytosis
 increased reticulocytes basophilic stippling, target cells
 postsplenectomy blood film shows Howell Jolly bodies, erythroblasts, and thrombocytosis Hb electrophoresis
• Hb A: 0-0.10 (0-10%), (normal > 95%)
• Hb F: 0.90-1.00 (90-100%)
Management ☐ transfusion
☐ Fe chelation to prevent iron overload (e.g. desferal) ☐ bone marrow transplant
•
III. ALPHA THALASSEMIA ☐ similar distribution to thalassemia but a higher frequency among Asians
Pathophysiology
☐ autosomal recessive
\Box deficit of α chains \Box 4 grades of severity depending on the number of defective alpha genes
1 - silent2 - trait
 3 - HbH Disease (presents in adults due to excess chain production)
• 4 - Hb Bart's (hydrops fetalis, not compatible with life)
Diagnosis ☐ peripheral blood film
microcytes, hypochromia, occasional target cells screen for HbH inclusion bodies
☐ Hb electrophoresis not diagnostic
☐ DNA analysis using alpha gene probe

H8 – Hematology MCCQE 2002 Review Notes

HEMOGLOBIN AND HEMOGLOBINOPATHIES

Management

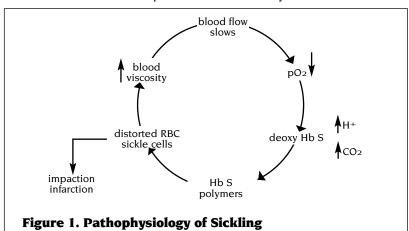
same as β thalassemia

SICKLE CELL ANEMIA

- autosomal recessive
- \Box amino acid substitution of valine for glutamate in position 6 of beta globin chain

Mechanisms of Sickling (see Figure 1)

- at low pO₂, deoxy Hb S polymerizes, leading to rigid crystal-like rods that distort membranes = SICKLES the pO₂ level at which sickling occurs is related to the precentage of Hb S present
 - in heterozygotes (Hb AS) sickling occurs at a pO₂ of 40 mmHg
 - in homozygous (Hb SS), sickling occurs at a pO₂ of 80 mmHg
- ☐ sickling is aggravated by
 - increased H+
 - increased CO₂
 - increased 2,3-DPG
 - increased temperature and osmolality



Heterozygous: Hb S Trait

- clinical presentation
 - patient will appear normal except at times of extreme hypoxia and infection
- diagnosis
 - serum: Hb normal
 - peripheral blood: normal except for possibly a few target cells
 - Hb electrophoresis (confirmatory test): Hb A fraction of 0.65 (65%);
 - Hb S fraction of 0.35 (35%)

Homozygous: Hb S Disease

- clinical presentation
 - chronic hemolytic anemia
 - jaundice in the first year of life
 - vaso-occlusive crises (infarction) leading to pain, fever and leukocytosis e.g. acute chest syndrome (pulmonary infarct) associated with infection, such as parvovirus, leading to aplastic anemia, acidosis, dehydration, and hypoxia
 - susceptibility to infections by encapsulated organisms due to hyposplenism
 - retarded growth and development +/- skeletal changes
 - spleen enlarged in child and atrophic in adult
- diagnosis
 - peripheral blood: sickled cells (see Colour Atlas H6)
 - screening test: sickle cell prep
 - Hb electrophoresis (confirmatory test): Hb S fraction > 0.80

Management

- prevention of crises is the key
 - establish diagnosis
 - avoid conditions that favor sickling (hypoxia, acidosis, dehydration, fever)
 - vaccination in childhood e.g. pneumococcus, meningococcus
 consider prophylaxis penicillin V 250 mg PO bid

 - good hygiene and nutrition
- genetic counselling
 folic acid to avoid folate deficiency

- hydroxyurea to enhance production of HbF
 causes depression of the gene for HbF or by initiating differentiation of stem cells in which this gene is active; presence of HbF in the SS cells decreases polymerization and precipitation of HbS
 Note: hydroxyurea is cytotoxic and may cause bone marrow suppression

Table 5. Organs Affected by Vaso-Occlusive Crisis	
Organ	Problem
brain	seizures, hemiplegia
eye	hemorrhage, blindness
liver	infarcts, RUQ syndrome
lung	chest syndrome
gall bladder	stones
heart	hyperdynamic flow murmurs
spleen	enlarged (child); atrophic (adult)
kidney	hematuria; loss of renal concentrating ability
intestines	acute abdomen
placenta	stillbirths
penis	priapism
digits	dactylitis
femoral head	aseptic necrosis
bone	infarction, infection
ankle	leg ulcers

☐ rare genetic causes

	rnicious Anemia
Ц	auto-antibodies produced against gastric parietal cells leading to achlorhydria and no intrinsic factor secretion
	 intrinsic factor is required to stabilize B₁₂ as it passes through the bowel decreased intrinsic factor leads to decreased ileal absorption of B₁₂
	female:male = 1.6:1
	may be associated with other autoimmune disorders e.g. thyroid and adrenal deficiency often > 60 years old
Ne	eurological Lesions in B12 Deficiency
	cerebral (common; reversible with B ₁₂ therapy) • confusion
	• delirium
	dementia cranial nerves
	optic atrophy (rare)
_	cord (irreversible damage) • subacute combined degeneration
	 posterior columns - paresthesias, disturbed vibration, decreased proprioception pyramidal tracts - spastic weakness, hyperactive reflexes
	peripheral neuropathy (variable reversibility)
	 usually symmetrical affecting lower limbs more than upper limbs
Di	agnosis
	sērum
	 anemia often severe +/- neutropenia +/- thrombocytopenia MCV > 120
	 low reticulocyte count relative to the degree of anemia serum B₁₂ and RBC folate
	 caution: low serum B₁₂ leads to low RBC folate because of failure of folate polyglutamate synthesis in the absence of B₁₂
	blood film
	 oval macrocytes (see Colour Atlas H2A) hypersegmented neutrophils (see Colour Atlas H2B)
	 bone marrow differentiates between megaloblastic and myelodysplastic anemias
	hypercellularity
	 failure of nuclear maturation elevated unconjugated bilirubin and LDH due to marrow cell breakdown
	Schilling test to distinguish pernicious anemia from other causes • Schilling test: part 1
	• tracer dose (Ig ug) of labelled B12 (cobalamin (Co*)). PO
	 flushing dose (Img) of cold B₁₂, IM to saturate tissue binders of B₁₂ thus allowing radioactive B₁₂ to be excreted in urine
	 24 hour urine Co* measured normal —> 5% excretion
	Schilling test: part 2
	 tracer dose B₁₂ (Co*) plus intrinsic factor, PO flushing dose of cold B₁₂, injected IM
	 24 hour urine Co* measured normal test result (> 5% excretion) = pernicious anemia
	• abnormal test result (< 5% excretion) = intestinal causes (malabsorption)
M	anagement
	B12 100 μg IM monthly for life or oral B12 watch for hypokalemia (due to return of potassium to intracellular sites) and thrombocythemia
	71
	OLATE DEFICIENCY
	more common than B12 deficiency because folate stores are depleted in 3-6 months folate complexes with gastric R binder
	R binder is replaced by intrinsic factor in the duodenum this complex is absorbed in the jejunum
Ľť □	iology diet (folate is present in leafy green vegetables)
	 most common cause e.g. infancy, poverty, alcoholism
	intestinal • malabsorption

	drugs/chemicals
	inical Presentation mildly jaundiced due to hemolysis of RBC secondary to ineffective hemoglobin synthesis glossitis and angular stomatitis rare • melanin pigmentation • purpura secondary to thrombocytopenia folate deficiency at time of conception and early pregnancy has been linked to neural tube defects
	anagement never give folate alone to individual with megaloblastic anemia because it will mask B ₁₂ deficiency and neurological degeneration will continue folic acid 15 mg PO/day x 3 months; then 5 mg PO/day maintenance if cause not reversible folic acid supplementation 1 mg PO/day will protect against elevated homocysteine levels (risk factor for CAD)
H	EMOLYTIC ANEMIAS (HA) (see Colour Atlas H4)
	Assification hereditary causes (intrinsic)
	inical Presentation jaundice cholelithiasis splenomegaly skeletal abnormalities leg ulcers regenerative crisis folic acid deficiency iron overload with extravascular hemolysis iron deficiency with intravascular hemolysis
	indirect - not specific to hemolytic anemias increased reticulocyte count reduced haptoglobin increased unconjugated bilirubin increased urine bilinogen increased LDH tests exclusive for intravascular hemolysis serum free hemoglobin present methemalbuminemia (heme + albumin) hemoglobinuria (immediate) hemosiderinuria (delayed)

H12 – Hematology

Antiglobulin Tests (Coombs' Tests) direct Coombs' test (direct antiglobulin test) purpose: detect antibodies or complement on the surface of RBC by adding anti-antibodies to the RBC; the RBC agglutinate in a positive test indications hemolytic disease of newborn hemolytic anemia AIHA hemolytic transfusion reaction indirect Coombs' test (indirect antiglobulin test) purpose: detect antibodies in serum that can recognize antigens on RBC by mixing serum with donor RBC and then anti-antibodies; RBCs agglutinate in a positive test indications cross-matching of recipient serum with donor's RBC atypical blood group blood group antibodies in pregnant women antibodies in AIHA
I. HEREDITARY HEMOLYTIC ANEMIAS
STRUCTURAL ABNORMALITIES IN CYTOSKELETON
Hereditary Spherocytosis autosomal dominant with variable penetrance incidence 22 per 100,000 most common type of hereditary hemolytic anemia abnormality in spectrin (compound in RBC membrane) blood film shows spherocytes (see Colour Atlas H8) increased osmotic fragility sometimes confused with immune hemolytic anemia treatment: splenectomy (immunize against pneumococcus first); avoid in childhood
Hereditary Elliptocytosis ☐ autosomal dominant ☐ incidence 20-50 per 100,000 ☐ abnormality in spectrin interaction with other membrane proteins ☐ 25-75% elliptocytes ☐ hemolysis is usually mild ☐ treatment: splenectomy for severe hemolysis (immunize against pneumococcus first)
ENZYMATIC ABNORMALITIES IN RBC
G6PD Deficiency
Clinical Presentation X-linked recessive oxidant drug-induced hemolysis sulfonamides primaquine nitrofurantoin acetanilid favism (fava beans) neonatal jaundice chronic hemolytic anemia infection
Diagnosis and Management ☐ high index of suspicion ☐ G6PD assay • should not be done when reticulocyte count is high in acute crisis, PBF shows Heinz bodies (granules in red blood cells due to damaged hemoglobin molecules) and features of intravascular hemolysis ☐ transfusion in severe cases ☐ stop offending drugs or food

II. ACQUIRED HEMOLYTIC ANEMIAS AUTOIMMUNE HEMOLYTIC ANEMIA

Table 6. Classification of autoimmune hemolytic anemia		
	Warm	Cold
Antibody Coating RBC	• lgG	• IgM
Temperature Detect by Coomb's	• 37°C	• 4-37 °C
Direct Coombs Test	positive for antibodies	positive for complement
Etiology	idiopathic secondary to lymphoproliferative disorder e.g. CLL, Hodgkin's secondary to autoimmune disease e.g. SLE drug induced penicillin quinine methyldopa	idiopathic secondary to infection e.g. mycoplasma, EBV secondary to lymphoproliferative disorder e.g. macroglobulinemia, CLL
Blood Film (see Colour Atlas H5)	• spherocytes	agglutination
Management	treat underlying causecorticosteroidssplenectomyimmunosupression	treat underlying causewarm patientplasmapheoresisimmunosuppresion

RBC FRAGMENTATION SYNDROMES

Classification
🖵 cardiac and large vessel abnormalities (macroangiopathic)
☐ small vessel disease (microangiopathic) (see Colour Atlas H7)
 thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura (TTP)/ hemolytic uremic syndrome (HUS)
• DIC
metastatic carcinoma
• eclampsia
 malignant hypertension
• vasculitis
infection (malaria, clostridia)
□ drowning
☐ thermal injury
,
Diagnosis
unitaria evidence of hemolysis, schistocytes, hemosiderinuria, hemoglobinuria
Management
☐ treat underlying disease, replace iron if indicated

THROMBOTIC THROMBOCYTOPENIC PURPURA AND HEMOLYTIC UREMIC SYNDROME

ТТР	HUS
 predominantly adult neurological symptoms (90%) H/A, somnolence, confusion, focal neurological findings, convulsion, stupor, coma 	• predominantly children
 purpura (90%) due to severe thrombocytopenia epistaxis, hematuria, hemoptysis and GI bleed epistaxis, hematuria, hemoptysis and GI bleed 	• purpura (90-100%) due to severe thrombocytopenia
 microangiopathic hemolytic anemia fever (90-100%) GI 	microangiopathic hemolytic anemia
 N/V, abdominal pain renal (40-80%) abnormal UA, oliguria, ARF etiology idiopathic 	 renal symptoms (90%) abnormal UA, oliguria, ARF etiology E. ali serotype O157:H7 virotoxin
 familial secondary TTP infection enterobacteriaceae viral: flu, HIV systemic diseases SLE and other CVD 	
 cancer and chemotherapeutic drugs diagnosis by clinical picture CBC: anemia, thrombocytopenia PT, PTT: normal ESR: normal negative Coombs' 	 diagnosis by clinical picture same as TTP stool C+S
*Key characteristics bolded	

APLASTIC ANEMIA

destruction of hematopoietic cells of the bone marrow
Etiology radiation drugs • anticipated (chemotherapy) • idiosyncratic (chloramphenicol, phenylbutazone) chemicals • benzene and other organic solvents • DDT and insecticides post viral e.g. hepatitis B, parvovirus idiopathic • often immune (T-cell mediated) paroxysmal nocturnal hemoglobinuria marrow replacement congenital
Clinical Presentation ☐ occurs at any age ☐ slightly more common in males ☐ can present acutely or insidiously ☐ anemia or neutropenia or thrombocytopenia (any combination) +/- pancytopenia ☐ thrombocytopenia with bruising, bleeding gums, epistaxis ☐ anemia with SOB, pallor and fatigue

APLASTIC ANEMIA ... CONT.

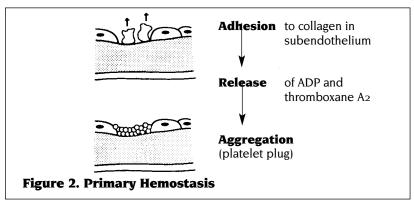
presentation of neutropeabsence of splenomegaly	nia ranges from infection in the mouth to septicemia
Diagnosis ☐ serum • neutrophil count < 20 • corrected reticuloc ☐ blood film • decreased normal	x 10 ⁹ /L yte count < 1%
☐ bone marrow	sia of marrow cells with fat replacement
Management ☐ removal of offending age ☐ supportive care (red cell ☐ antithymocyte globulin (5 ☐ cyclosporine	and platelet transfusions, antibiotics)

minimize blood products on presentation
 only irradiated, leuko-depleted blood products should be used
 CMV negative blood for CMV negative patients

THREE PHASES OF HEMOSTASIS

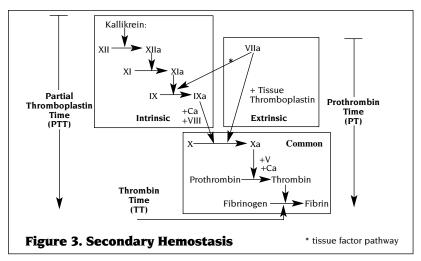
allogeneic bone marrow transplantation

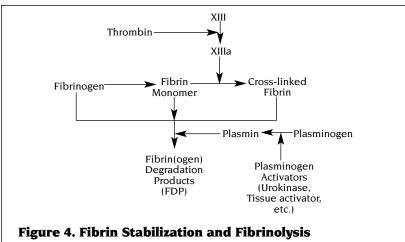
Primary Hemostasis goal is to rapidly stop bleeding vessel injury results in collagen and subendothelial structure exposure and release of vasoconstrictors ☐ blood flow is impeded and platelets come in contact with vessel wall platelets adhere to collagen and are activated resulting in change of shape and release of ADP and thromboxane A2 these factors further recruit and aggregate more platelets resulting in formation of hemostatic plug



- Secondary Hemostasis
 ☐ platelet plug formed through primary hemostasis is reinforced through process of secondary hemostasis and a stable plug is formed
- secondary pathways involved in the activation of coagulation factors
 - intrinsic
 - activated when vessel wall remains intact
 - slow pathway
 - extrinsic
 - activated when there is injury to vessel wall
 - fast pathway

HEMOSTASIS ... CONT.





TESTS OF HEMOSTASIS

Type of hemostatis	Test	Reference Range	Purpose
Primary	platelet count bleeding time platelet aggregation	2-12 mins	 to quantitate platelet number platelet function platelet function
Secondary	PTT - depends on lab	22-35 s	measures intrinsic pathway factors VIII, IX, XI, XII
	PT - depends on lab	11-24 s	 measures extrinsic pathway factor VIII in particular
	TT - depends on lab	14-16 s	 measures deficiency of fibrinogen inactivation of prothrombin
	INR	1 is normal	 permits determination of coagulation status independent of laboratory performing measurement
Fibrinolysis	euglobulin lysis time		
Other	 fibrinogen fibrinogen degradation products (FDPs) specific factor assays tests of physiological inhibitors (antithrombins, protein S, protein C, hereditary resistance to APC) tests of pathologic inhibitors (e.g. lupus 		

Table 9. Signs and Symptoms of Disorders of Hemostasis		
Primary (Platelet) Secondary (Coagulation)		Secondary (Coagulation)
Surface Cuts	excessive, prolonged normal/slightly pr	
Onset After Injury	immediate	delayed
Typical Type and Site of Bleeding	superficial i.e. mucosal (nasal, gingival, Gl tract, uterine), petechiae	deep i.e. into joints, muscles, GI tract, GU tract, excessive, post-traumatic

THROMBOCYTOPENIA AND OTHER DISORDERS OF PRIMARY HEMOSTASIS

- inability to form an adequate platelet plug due to
 - disorders of blood vessels
 disorders of platelets
 - - abnormal function
 - abnormal numbers

Classification

Vascular (Non-Thrombocytopenic Purpura)

- hereditary
 - hereditary hemorrhagic telangiectasia (Osler-Weber-Rendu)
 - connective tissue disorders
- acquired
 - purpura simplex (easy bruising)
 - senile purpura
 - dysproteinemias
 - Henoch-Schonlein Purpura
 - scurvy
 - Cushing's syndrome
 - infections
 - drugs

Platelets

- dysfunction
 - hereditary
 - von Willebrand's disease, others (rare)
 - acquired
 - drugs eg. ASA, EtOH, NSAIDs
 - uremia
 - myeloproliferative disorders
 - dysproteinemias
- ☐ thrombocytopenia (usually acquired)
 - decreased production
 - drugs, toxins
 - radiation
 - marrow infiltrate or failure
 - ineffective production
 - megaloblastic anemias
 - myelodysplasia
 - vitamin Bi2, folic acid or iron deficiency
 - viral infections eg. varicella, mumps, HIV, EBV, CMV, parvo
 - increased destruction
 - drugs eg. quinidine, sulfas, thiazides, heparin

 - allo-antibodies
 - HIV positive
 - sepsisincreased consumption
 - DIC
 - microangiopathies (TTP)
 - sequestration
 - splenomegaly
 - dilutional
 - massive transfusion with stored blood

IDIOPATHIC (AUTOIMMUNE) THROMBOCYTOPENIC PURPURA (ITP)

Table 10. Idiopathic Thrombocytopenic Purpura		
Features	Acute ITP	Chronic ITP
Peak Age	2-6 years	20-40 years
Sex Predilection	none	F > M (3:1)
History of Recent Infection	common	rare
Onset of Bleed	abrupt	insidious
Platelet Count	< 20 x 10 ⁹ /L	30-80 x 10 ⁹ /L
Duration	usually weeks	months to years
Spontaneous Remissions	80% or more	uncommon

CHRONIC (ADULT-TYPE) ITP ☐ most common cause of isolated thrombocytopenia ☐ diagnosis of exclusion
Pathophysiology ☐ IgG autoantibody ☐ spleen • site of antibody production and platelet destruction • usually not palpable (enlarged in ~ 10%)
Clinical Presentation insidious onset may be seen after mild viral illness or after immunization mucosal or skin bleeding petechiae and easy bruising hematuria melena epistaxis female with menorrhagia
Laboratory Results ☐ peripheral blood film: decreased platelets, large platelets ☐ bone marrow: plentiful megakaryocytes
Management ☐ conservative if mild • platelet count > 30,000, no mucosal bleeding ☐ steroids: moderate dose, then taper (80% responsive) • platelet count < 20-30,000 or evidence of mucosal bleeding ☐ splenectomy if steroids fail ☐ IV gamma globulin if steroids and splenectomy fail or if rapid response is required ☐ other: immunosuppressives, platelets, plasma exchange, Danazol
Prognosis ☐ fluctuating course ☐ overall relatively benign, mortality 1-2% ☐ major concern is cerebral hemorrhage at platelet counts < 5 x 109/L
DISORDERS OF SECONDARY HEMOSTASIS
Classification
I. Hereditary ☐ Factor VIII: Hemophilia A, von Willebrand's disease ☐ Factor IX: Hemophilia B (Christmas Disease) ☐ Factor XI ☐ other factor deficiences are rare

HEMOSTASIS ... cont.

II. Acquired ☐ liver disease ☐ DIC ☐ vitamin K deficiency ☐ circulating anti-coagulants (inhibitors) ☐ other e.g. primary fibrinolysis
HEREDITARY
I. Hemophilia A (factor VIII) ☐ X-linked, 1/5,000 males ☐ mild (> 5%), moderate (1-5%), severe (< 1%)
Clinical Presentation ☐ hemarthroses, hematomas, GI and GU bleeding ☐ bleeding in response to trauma (mild and moderate disease)
Laboratory Results ☐ prolonged PTT, normal INR (PT) ☐ decreased factor VIII (< 40% of normal) ☐ vWF usually normal or increased
Management ☐ minor but not trivial bleeding (eg. hemarthroses)
II. Von Willebrand's Disease ☐ heterogeneous group of defects ☐ usually autosomal dominant ☐ qualitative or quantitative abnormality of vWF • vWF needed for platelet adhesion and acts as carrier for factor VIII • vWF exists as a series of multimers ranging in size • the largest ones are most active in mediation of platelet adhesion • both large and small complex with factor VIII ☐ both primary and secondary hemostasis affected ☐ usually mild to moderate in severity
Classification ☐ type I: decreased vWF in platelets and plasma (will see prolonged bleeding time, decreased factor VIII) ☐ type IIA: decreased large and intermediate sized multimers in plasma and platelets (will see prolonged bleeding time, normal levels of factor VIII) ☐ type IIB: largest multimers are missing from plasma but not from platelets
Clinical Presentation ☐ mild
 asymptomatic mucosal and cutaneous bleeding, easy bruising, epistaxis, menorrhagia, gingival bleeding moderate to severe as above but worse, occasionally soft-tissue hematomas, petechiae (rare), GI bleeding, hemarthroses
Course ☐ may fluctuate, often improves during pregnancy and with age
Laboratory Results ☐ prolonged bleeding time and PTT ☐ decreased factor VIII (5-50%) ☐ normal platelet count (except in Type IIB) ☐ decreased ristocetin cofactor activity ☐ analysis of multimers
Management ☐ DDAVP is treatment of choice except in Type IIB • causes release of vWF and plasminogen activator from endothelial cells • in type IIB, the appearance of the large multimers in the circulation can cause thrombocytopenia ☐ Hemate P in selected cases ☐ conjugated estrogens

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HEMOSTASIS ... cont.

III. Factor IX Deficiency ☐ Christmas disease, Hemophilia B ☐ X-linked recessive, 1/30,000 males ☐ clinical and laboratory features identical to Hemophilia A ☐ main treatment is Factor IX concentrate
IV. Factor XI Deficiency (Rosenthal syndrome) ☐ autosomal recessive inheritance ☐ usually mild, often diagnosed in adulthood ☐ treatment: fresh frozen plasma
ACQUIRED
I. Liver Disease ☐ deficient synthesis of all factors except VIII ☐ aberrant synthesis: fibrinogen ☐ deficient clearance of hemostatic "debris" and fibrinolytic activators ☐ accelerated destruction due to dysfibrinogenemias: increased fibrinolysis, DIC ☐ thrombocytopenia: hypersplenism, folate deficiency, EtOH intoxication, DIC ☐ platelet dysfunction: EtOH abuse ☐ miscellaneous: inhibition of secondary hemostasis by FDPs ☐ peripheral blood smear: target cells ☐ diagnosis
II. Vitamin K Deficiency
Etiology ☐ poor diet (especially in alcoholics) ☐ biliary obstruction ☐ chronic liver disease ☐ malabsorption e.g. celiac disease ☐ drugs ☐ oral anticoagulants produce inhibition of factors II, VII, IX, X, Protein C & S ☐ antibiotics eradicating gut flora which is 50 % of vitamin K supply ☐ hemorrhagic disease of newborn
Diagnosis ☐ INR (PT) is elevated out of proportion to the elevation of the PTT ☐ decreased factors II, VII, IX and X (because vitamin K-dependent)
Management ☐ vitamin K 10-20 mg SC (not IM) ☐ Note: PT should improve within 24 hours, if not search for other causes
III. Disseminated Intravascular Coagulation (DIC) ☐ massive uncontrolled intravascular coagulation resulting in depletion of platelets, coagulation factors and fibrinogen ☐ not a primary disorder but a syndrome that complicates a number of other conditions
Clinical Conditions Associated with DIC activation of procoagulant activity anti-phospholipid antibody intravascular hemolysis (incompatible blood, malaria) tissue factor tissue injury (obstetric catastrophes, leukemia, tumours, liver disease, trauma, burns) snakebite fat embolism heat stroke endothelial injury infections vasculitis metastatic disease (adenocarcinoma) aortic aneurysm giant hemangioma reticuloendothelial injury liver disease splenectomy

HEMOSTASIS ... CONT. vascular stasis hypotension hypovolemia pulmonary embolus □ other • acute hypoxia/acidosis extracorporeal circulation **Signs of Microvascular Thrombosis (Early DIC)** neurological: multifocal, delirium, coma, seizures skin: focal ischemia, superficial gangrene renal: oliguria, azotemia, cortical necrosis pulmonary: ARDS GI: acute ulceration ☐ RBC: microangiopathic hemolysis Signs of Hemorrhagic Diathesis (Late DIC) neurologic: intracranial bleeding skin: petechiae, eccyhmosis, oozing from puncture sites renal: hematuria umucosal: gingival oozing, epistaxis, massive bleeding **Diagnosis** clinical picture ☐ laboratory • primary hemostasis: decreased platelets secondary hemostasis: prolonged INR (PT), PTT, TT, decreased fibrinogen and other factors • fibrinolysis increased FDPs, short lysis time • extent of fibrin deposition: urine output, urea, RBC fragmentation **Management** ☐ recognize early TREAT UNDERLYING DISORDER ☐ life support measures, O2, blood transfusion, fluid therapy replacement of hemostatic elements with platelet transfusion, FFP, cryoprecipitate **THROMBOSIS** Virchow's Triad ☐ stasis hypercoaguable state endothelial injury **Etiology** □ endothelial damage □ blood flow stasis turbulence • hyperviscosity blood components platelets contact factors • thrombin Factor VIII • fibrin ☐ hypercoagulable state due to cancer pregnancy • birth control pills • DIC lipids

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decreased physiological inhibitors (antithrombin-III, protein C, protein S)
 hereditary resistance to activated protein C (Factor V Leiden mutation)

prothrombin variant 20210Anephrotic syndrome

HEMOSTASIS ... CONT.

Management (acute and prophylaxis) ☐ hyperhomocysteine anticoagulants • low molecular weight heparin • no test required • reduced incidence of HIT • unfractionated heparin • maintain PTT 1.5-2.5 x the normal control • coumadin (see Table 11) • hirudin

hirudin

☐ thrombolytics

snake venom enzymes (ancrod)
 plasminogen activators (streptokinase, urokinase, tPA)
 antiplatelet agents

• ASA

sulfinopyrazonedipyridamole

Range	Target
1.5-2.5 2-3	2 2.5
2-3	2.5
2-4	3
3-4.5	3.5
	2-3 2-3 2-4

HEPARIN-INDUCED THROMBOCYTOPENIA (HIT)

HIT-I ☐ non-immune ☐ decrease in platelet count usually seen early (48-72 hours post administration) but may take up to 1 week to appear ☐ transient thrombocytopenia, returns to normal once heparin discontinued ☐ no intravascular thrombosis ☐ likely due to platelet aggregation and sequestration
HIT-II ☐ immune-mediated ☐ typically occurs at day 5-15 of heparin therapy and decline is gradual ☐ HIT can begin sooner in patients who have received heparin in the past three months ☐ delayed-onset HIT occurs several days after discontinuing heparin ☐ typical platelet count in patients with HIT ranges from 25 to 100 x 109/L
Pathogenesis ☐ immunoglobulin-mediated adverse drug reaction ☐ pathogenic antibody, usually IgG recognizes a multimolecular complex of heparin and platelet factor 4, resulting in platelet activation via platelet Fc receptors and activation of the coagulation system
Clinical Complications □ cases of serious bleeding related to thrombocytopenia have been reported □ intravascular thrombosis • both venous (DVT, PE, venous gangrene) and arterial thrombi (MI, stroke, limb vessels) can form □ heparin-induced skin necrosis □ unusual thrombotic complications include mesenteric artery or vein occlusion, adrenal hemorrhage and infarction □ acute platelet activation syndromes • acute inflammatory reactions (eg. fever/chills, flushing, etc.), transient global amnesia
Laboratory Tests ☐ C-serotonin release assay ☐ ELISA • measures binding of antibody in patients serum to PF4:heparin complex

HEMOSTASIS ... CONT.

M	anagement
	discontinuation of heparin
	platelet count should return to normal in a few days
	danaparoid (organon) is the preferred agent if anti-thrombic therapy is indicated
	low-molecular-weight heparin is less likely to cause HIT in de novo use but
	still carries an increased risk if previously sensitized with unfractionated heparin
	other alternatives include ancrod and hirudin
	patient may be re-exposed to heparin only under careful supervision
_	Production of the contract of

HEMATOLOGIC MALIGNANCIES

OVERVIEW

Myeloid

clonal stem cell neoplasms

- acute myeloid leukemia (clonal proliferation of immature cells) myeloproliferative disorders (proliferation of mature cells)
- - polycythemia rubra vera
 chronic granulocytic (myelogenous) leukemia
 idiopathic myelofibrosis

 - essential thrombocythemia
- iii. myelodysplastic syndromes (defective differentiation)

Lymphoid

- all cells arise from a single abnormal lymphoid precursor (B or T)
 i. acute lymphoblastic leukemia (arise from stem cell)
 ii. lymphomas (arise from maturing lymphoid cell)

 - Hodgkin's lymphoma
 Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma
 non-Hodgkin's lymphoma
 malignant clonal proliferation of B cells
 chronic lymphocytic leukemia
 plasma cell dyscrasias
 light chain disease

 - night chain disease
 monoclonal gammopathy of unknown significance
 macroglobulinemia of Waldenstrom
 macroglobulinemia-hyperviscosity syndrome

MYELOID MALIGNANCIES

mucosal bleeding

skin and mucosal infections

• neutropenia —> infections septicemia pneumonitis

ACUTE MYELOID LEUKEMIA (AML) ☐ failure of myeloid cell to differentiate beyond blast stage ☐ clonal proliferation of immature hematopoietic cells ☐ incidence increases with age ☐ associated with exposure to benzene, radiation and alkylating agents
Pathophysiology uncontrolled growth of blasts in marrow leads to • suppression of normal hematopoietic cells • appearance of blasts in peripheral blood • accumulation of blasts in other sites • metabolic consequences of a large tumour mass chronic myeloproliferative disorders and myelodysplastic syndromes can transform into AML
Clinical Features of AML ☐ decrease in normal hematopoiesis • anemia • pallor, weakness, fatigue, dyspnea on exertion • thrombocytopenia • purpura

associated with DIC (promyelocytic leukemia- a type of AML)

MYELOID MALIGNANCIES ... CONT.

	 accumulation of blast cells in marrow skeletal pain bony tenderness, especially sternum
	accumulation of blast cells at other sites lymphadenopathy hepatosplenomegaly gums
	 skin - leukemia cutis CNS - N/V, H/A, papilledema +/- hemorrhage gonads eyes - Roth spots (oval retinal hemorrhages surrounding pale spot), blurred vision, diplopia metabolic effects - aggravated by treatment increase in uric acid —> uric acid nephropathy release of phosphates —> decrease in Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ release of pro-coagulants —> DIC
Di	 iagnosis peripheral blood film (see Colour Atlas H11) decreased hemoglobin (usually normocytic, normochromic anemia) and platelets variable leukocyte count decrease in normal granulocytes presence of blast cells (Auer Rods) – azurophilic granules within lysosomes
	 bone marrow usually hypercellular increased blast cells - > 30% leukemic blasts for definitive diagnosis (normal < 5%) decrease in normal erythropoiesis, myelopoiesis, megakaryocytes cytogenetics and molecular analysis INR (PT), PTT, FDP, fibrinogen in case of DIC increased uric acid, LDH and LFTs decreased Ca²⁺ baseline urea and creatinine
	chest x-ray to r/o mediastinal compression and infection
	anagement of AML cure - defined as survival that parallels age-matched population first step is complete remission- defined as normal peripheral blood smear, normal bone marrow with < 5% blasts, and normal clinical state leukemia will recur after complete remission if no further treatment given aims of treatment • eliminate abnormal clone - cytotoxic therapy
	1. Induction 2. Consolidation or BMT repopulation of marrow with normal hemopoietic cells consider acceleration with hematopoetic growth factors e.g. G-CSF, GM-CSF if increased incidence of severe infection
	 prophylaxis against infection via regular C&S of urine, feces, sputum, oropharynx, catheter sites, perianal area antibiotics if fever with C&S of all orifices and chest x-ray platelet and RBC transfusions - CMV negative products prevention and treatment of metabolic abnormalities
	rognosis achievement of first remission • 70-80% if 60 years old, 50% if > 60 years old • median survival 12-24 months • 5 year survival 40%
	statistics may be improved by BMT – 50-60% cure rate

CHRONIC MYELOPROLIFERATIVE DISORDERS

 clonal myeloid stem cell abnormalities leading to qualitative and quantitative changes to erythroid, myeloid, and platelet cells may develop marrow fibrosis with time all disorders may progress to acute myelogenous leukemia mainly middle-aged and older patients
COMMON FEATURES increased • uric acid • LDH • serum B ₁₂ • transcobalamin I • eosinophils • basophils • blood histamine (from basophils) □ pruritus
☐ prurius ☐ bruising ☐ thrombosis ☐ peptic ulcer disease (histamine increases acid secretion)

Table 12. Chronic Myeloproliferative Disorders				
	PRV	CGL (CML)	IMF	ET
нст	$\uparrow \uparrow$	↓/N	1	N
WBC	1	↑ ↑	1/↓	N
PLT	↑	1/↓	1/↓	1 1 1
LAP	$\uparrow \uparrow$	1	↑/ N	↑/N
marrow fibrosis	±	±	+++	±
splenomegaly	+	+++	+++	+
hepatomegaly	_	+	++	_

PRV = polycythemia rubra vera IMF = idiopathic myelofibrosis

CGL = chronic granulocytic leukemia ET = essential thrombocythemia

LAP = leukocyte alkaline phosphatase

POLYCYTHEMIA RIIRRA VERA (DRV)

autonomous overproduction of erythroid cells
Clinical Features ☐ secondary to high red cell mass and hyperviscosity
 headache, dizziness, tinnitus
 congestive heart failure
• thrombosis
☐ secondary to platelet abnormalities
 cerebrovascular accident
 myocardial infarction
• phlebitis
 bleeding, bruising
secondary to high blood histamine (from basophils)
• printing acpacially pact both or chawer

pruritus, especially post-bath or shower

□ second	peptic ulcer dary to high cell turnover gout (due to hyperuricemia)
□ alkylat	if symptoms are due to erythrocytosis alone and platelet count normal or only slightly increased ling agents if symptoms systemic or secondary to splenic enlargement stamines

CHRONIC MYELOPROLIFERATIVE DISORDERS ... CONT.

Complications Vascular complications (thrombosis, hemorrhage) myeloid metaplasia acute leukemia
Causes of Secondary Polycythemia ⇒ spurious (decrease in plasma volume) → poor tissue oxygenation • high altitude • cyanotic congenital heart disease or pulmonary disease • hemoglobinopathies with increased O₂ affinity • carbon monoxide poisoning → local renal hypoxia • renal artery stenosis • renal cysts → ectopic production of erythropoietin • uterine leiomyoma • cerebellar hemangioma • hepatocellular cancer • pheochromocytoma • renal cell cancer
CHRONIC GRANULOCYTIC (MYELOGENOUS) LEUKEMIA (CMI ☐ overproduction of myeloid cells, erythoid cells and platelets in peripheral blood ☐ marked myeloid hyperplasia in bone marrow
Clinical Features ☐ disorder of middle age ☐ 40% asymptomatic ☐ secondary to splenic involvement
Diagnostic Features ☐ Philadelphia (Ph1) chromosome • translocation between chromosomes 9 and 22 • the c-abl proto-oncogene is translocated from chromosome 9 to "breakpoint cluster region" (bcr) of chromosome 22 to produce bcr-c-abl fusion gene, an active tyrosine kinase • detection of this fusion gene is a diagnostic test for CML (present in over 90% of patients) ☐ leukocyte alkaline phosphatase (LAP) • normal constituent of secondary neutrophil granules • low or absent (normal or increased in other chronic myeloproliferative diseases and reactive states) ☐ peripheral blood film (see Colour Atlas H10)
 leukocytosis with early myeloid precursors eosinophils and basophils may be increased hypogranular basophils bone marrow myeloid hyperplasia with a left shift, increased megakaryocytes and increased reticulin or fibrosis
Course/Outcomes ☐ chronic phase • normal bone marrow function • white blood cells differentiate and function normally ☐ accelerated phase • fever • marked increase in basophils • increased extramedullary hematopoiesis (unusual sites) • transformation —> disease similar to idiopathic myelofibrosis • pancytopenia secondary to marrow aplasia

CHRONIC MYELOPROLIFERATIVE DISORDERS ... CONT.

	acute phase (blast transformation) • 2/3 develop a picture similar to AML • unresponsive to remission induction • 1/3 develop a picture similar to ALL • remission induction (return to chronic phase) achievable • sepsis • bleeding • thrombosis
	anagement symptomatic
II	only curative treatment is bone marrow transplantation DIOPATHIC MYELOFIBROSIS (IMF) marrow replaced by fibrosis - abnormal megakaryocytes stimulate collagen deposition
	linical Features same as CML except no priapism or encephalopathy
	iagnostic Features significant hemolysis due to hypersplenism and red cell fragmentation peripheral blood film (see Colour Atlas H16) • tear drop cells • red cell and megakaryocyte fragments • increased polychromasia • nucleated RBCs and poikilocytes • giant abnormal platelets due to early release from marrow • leukoerythroblastic changes i.e. due to the space occupying lesions in the bone marrow, a variable number of erythroid and myeloid cells are released into the circulation bone marrow • replaced with fibrosis, difficult to aspirate
	megakaryocytes normal or increased
	transfusion erythropoietin androgens allopurinol and antihistamines folic acid if stores depleted desferoxamine for iron overload (iron and aluminum chelator) hydroxyurea in extremely small doses splenectomy in highly selected cases bone marrow transplant
	pmplications refractory anemia pancytopenia transformation to AML thrombosis and bleeding
	SSENTIAL THROMBOCYTHEMIA overproduction of platelets in absence of recognizable stimulus invariably above 400,000/mL
	inical Features asymptomatic most common bleeding - although plentiful, platelets are not working thrombosis symptoms 2° to splenic enlargement, high blood histamine, and rapid cell turnover - as per CML and IMF
	aboratory Features defect in platelet function may be present elevation of phosphatase and potassium in plasma sample due to release of cytoplasmic content from aggregation of platelets

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CHRONIC MYELOPROLIFERATIVE DISORDERS ... CONT.

Diagnosis ☐ exclude other myeloproliferative diseases and 2° thrombocythemia	
Management ☐ hydroxyurea ☐ 32P ☐ plateletpheresis ☐ avoid splenectomy as spleen is removing unwanted platelets	
Complications ☐ bleeding ☐ thrombosis ☐ leukemic transformation ☐ transformation to myelofibrosis	
Clinical Pearl There is an asymptomatic "benign" form of essential thrombocythemia with a stab slowly rising platelet count; treatment includes observation, ASA, sulfinpyrazone or dipyridamole.	le or
Causes of Secondary Thrombocythemia infection inflammation (IBD, arthritis) malignancy hemorrhage Fe deficiency hemolytic anemia post splenectomy post chemotherapy	
MYELODYSPLASTIC SYNDROMES	
□ set of clonal disorders characterized by one or more cytopenias with anemia present □ ineffective hematopoiesis despite presence of adequate numbers of progenitor cells (bone marrow is usually hyper-cellular) □ considered preleukemic: 30-70% develop AML □ most common in elderly, post-chemotherapy, benzene or radiation exposure □ insidious onset □ clinical presentation • fatigue, weakness, pallor, infections, bruising and rarely weight loss, fever, and hepatosplenomegaly □ diagnostic triad 1. anemia ± thrombocytopenia ± neutropenia 2. bone marrow hypercellular or normocellular 3. dysmyelopoiesis in bone marrow precursors □ hematological changes • RBC: variable morphology with decreased reticulocyte count • WBC: decrease in granulocytes and abnormal function • platelet: either too large or too small and thrombocytopenia	
- placete. either too large of too small and thromboeytopema	
FAB Classification refractory anemia (RA) refractory anemia with ring sideroblasts (RARS) refractory anemia with excess blasts (RAEB) refractory anemia with excess blasts in transformation (RAEB-T) chronic myelomonocytic leukemia (CMML)	

LYMPHOID MALIGNANCIES

ACUTE LYMPHOBLASTIC LEUKEMIA (ALL)

	athophysiology develops from any lymphoid cell blocked at a particular stage of development
Ŏ	linical Features see AML 50% present with fever
	iagnosis I see AML I leukemic lymphoblasts lack specific morphological or cytochemical features, therefore diagnosis depends on immunophenotyping immunology (B or T lineage) I cytogenetics
	reatment I see AML I eliminate abnormal clone I. Induction 2. Consolidation 3. Intensification 4. Maintenance 5. Prophylaxis: CNS with XRT or MTX
	rognosis depends upon response to initial induction or if remission is achieved following relapse achievement of first remission: 60-90% childhood ALL: 80% long term remission (> 5 years) adult ALL: 30-40% 5 year survival

AML (see Colour Atlas H11)	ALL (see Colour Atlas H13)
pig people (adults)	small people (kids)
big blasts	small blasts
lots of cytoplasm	little cytoplasm
lots of nucleoli (3-5)	few nucleoli (1-3)
lots of granules and Auer rods	no granules
big toxicity of treatment	little toxicity of treatment
big mortality rate	small mortality rate
myeloperoxidase, sudan black stain	PAS (periodic acid schiff)
maturation defect beyond myeloblast or promyelocyte	maturation defect beyond lymphoble

LYMPHOMAS

HODGKIN'S DISEASE AND NON-HODGKIN'S LYMPHOMA STAGING Stage I involvement of a single lymph node region or extralymphatic organ or site Stage II involvement of two or more lymph node regions OR an extralymphatic site and one or more lymph node regions on SAME side of diaphragm Stage III involvement of lymph node regions on BOTH sides of the diaphragm may or may not be accompanied by single extralymphatic site or splenic involvement Stage IV diffuse involvement of one or more extralymphatic organs including bone marrow

LYMPHOMAS ... cont.

Subtypes ☐ A = Absence of B symptoms ☐ B = Presence of B symptoms
B Symptoms ☐ unexplained fever > 38°C ☐ unexplained weight loss (> 10% of body weight in 6 months) ☐ night sweats
HODGKIN'S DISEASE ☐ substantial number represents monocloncal B cell disorders ☐ bimodal distribution with peaks at the age of 20 years and > 50 years
Clinical Features ☐ lymphadenopathy (neck, axilla) ☐ B symptoms ☐ classical symptoms • pruritus • painful nodes following alcohol consumption
Diagnosis ☐ nodal biopsy (see Colour Atlas H15) ☐ bone marrow biopsy for Reed-Sternberg cell – polynucleated cells derived from B-cells • nodular sclerosis is the most common histological subtype
Work-up □ CBC
 normocytic normochromic anemia leukocytosis in 1/3 of patients eosinophilia platelet count is normal or increased in early disease but decreased in advanced disease
 biochemistry RFTs to assess renal excretion of chemotherapeutics LFTs to r/o liver involvement uric acid ESR to monitor disease progress Ca²⁺, ALP, phosphate for bone metastasis chest x-ray to r/o mediastinal masses and lung metastases
☐ CT of chest, abdomen and pelvis
 Management ☐ high cure rate ☐ Stage I-II: radiation therapy or chemotherapy plus local field radiation (less risk of second malignancy) ☐ Stage III-IV: combination chemotherapy eg. ABVD or MOPP ☐ relapse: high dose chemotherapy, bone marrow transplant
Complications of Treatment ☐ diminished fertility • consider oophoropexy/sperm banking before radiation ☐ post-splenectomy sepsis • immunize pre-splenectomy ☐ hypothyroidism ☐ secondary malignancies • < 2% risk of MDS, AML • usually within 4 years after exposure to alkylating agents and radiation • solid tumours in the radiation fields > 10 years after exposure ☐ accelerated cardiovascular disease
NON-HODGKIN'S LYMPHOMA
Clinical Features ☐ painless superficial lymphadenopathy usually > 1 lymph region ☐ usually presents as widespread disease ☐ constitutional symptoms (fever, weight loss, night sweats) not as common as in Hodgkin's disease ☐ cytopenia: anemia +/- neutropenia +/- thrombocytopenia if bone marrow fails ☐ abdominal symptoms or signs

LYMPHOMAS ... cont.

Diagnosis □ lymph node biopsy	
 fine needle aspiration occasionally sufficient, core biops bone marrow biopsy 	y preferred
☐ peripheral blood film sometimes shows lymphoma cells	
Work-Up	
CBCnormocytic normochromic anemia	
 autoimmune hemolytic anemia advanced disease: thrombocytopenia, neutropenia, and 	leukoerythroblastic anemia
☐ biochemistry	
increase in uric acidabnormal LFTs in liver metastases	
 elevated LDH (rapidly progressing disease and poor prochest x-ray + CT for thoracic involvement 	ognostic factor)
CT for abdominal and pelvic involvement	
Revised European American lymphoma (REAL) Classific for Subtypes of NHL	ation
oxdit several classification systems exist and may be used at differer	nt centres
1. plasma cell disorders 2. Hodgkin's lymphoma	
3. indolent lymphoma/leukemiagood prognosis: median survival 10 years	
not curable if stage III/IV8 subtypes of NHL	
4. aggressive lymphoma/leukemia	
shorter natural history30-60% cured with intensive combination chemotherapy	
5 year survival 50-60%2 main subtypes of NHL	
Management of NHL	
 localized disease (e.g. GI, brain, bone, head and neck) surgery (if applicable) 	
 radiotherapy to primary site and adjacent nodal areas 	
 adjuvant chemotherapy indolent lymphoma 	
watchful waitingradiation therapy	
 • chemotherapy □ aggressive lymphoma 	
 combination chemotherapy 	s urt
aggressive consolidation with marrow or stem cell support	ort.
NHL Complications ☐ hypersplenism ☐ infection	
☐ infection ☐ autoimmune hemolytic anemia and thrombocytopenia	
 vascular obstruction (from enlarged nodes) Note: never give live vaccines e.g. MMR and oral polio 	
Indicators of Poor Prognosis	
$\square > 60$ years old	
poor response to therapymultiple nodal regions	
☐ elevated LDH ☐ > 5cm nodes	
previous history of low grade disease or AIDS	

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MALIGNANT CLONAL PROLIFERATIONS OF B CELLS

CHRONIC LYMPHOCYTIC LEUKEMIA (CLL) indolent disease characterized by the clonal malignancy of poorly functioning B cells accumulation of neoplastic lymphocytes in blood, bone marrow, lymph nodes and spleen most common leukemia in western world mainly older patients up to 60% asymptomatic 9 year median survival, but varies greatly	
Investigations □ absolute lymphocytosis > 5.0 x 10°/L (usually > 10.0 x 10°/L) □ lymphocytes small and mature □ smudge cells (see Colour Atlas H12) □ diffuse or focal infiltration of marrow by lymphocytes	
Complications □ bone marrow failure □ bulky lymphadenopathy □ hypersplenism □ immune hemolytic anemia □ immune thrombocytopenia □ hypogammaglobinemia □ monoclonal gammopathy (often IgM) □ hyperuricemia with treatment □ transformation to histiocytic lymphoma	
Management ☐ the gentlest treatment that will control symptoms • observation if early, stable, asymptomatic • intermittent chlorambucil • corticosteroids • radiotherapy • chemotherapy ☐ no cure	
PLASMA CELL MYELOMA (MULTIPLE MYELOMA) ☐ monoclonal malignancy of plasma cells engaged in the production of a specific protein (paraprotein) characterized by replacement of bone marrow and bone destruction ☐ incidence: 3 per 100 000 ☐ increasing frequency with age ☐ the protein produced is monoclonal i.e. one class of heavy chains and one type of light chains ("M" protein) ☐ light chains only: 15% (light chain disease) ☐ lgD (1%) and lgE are rare	
Clinical Features ☐ onset between 40-70 years ☐ bone pain, tenderness, deformity ☐ weakness, fatigue (due to anemia) ☐ weight loss, night sweats with advanced disease ☐ abnormal bleeding (epistaxis, purpura) ☐ infection eg. pneumococcal diseases ☐ renal failure ☐ on exam: pallor, bone deformity, pathologic fractures, bone tenderness, hepato/splenomegaly, petechiae and purpura	
Laboratory Features ☐ peripheral blood film (see Colour Atlas H14) • rouleaux • rare plasma cells	
 normocytic anemia, thrombocytopenia, leukopenia bone marrow focal or diffuse increase in plasma cells (see Colour Atlas H9) primitive plasma cells 	
 biochemistry hypercalcemia (N/V, apathy, weakness, polydipsia, polyuria) increased creatinine increased ESR narrow anion gap (myeloma protein is a cation) 	
 narrow anion gap (myeloma protein is a cation) monoclonal protein on serum protein electrophoresis heavy chain and light chain types identified by serum immunoelectrophoresis decreased normal immunoglobulins urine electrophoresis (Bence-lones protein, a light chain dimer) 	

MALIGNANT CLONAL PROLIFERATIONS OF B CELLS ... CONT.

Diagnosis ☐ bone pain, anemia, increased ESR or increased rouleaux suggests myeloma ☐ classic diagnostic triad: must show increased numbers of atypical immature plasma cells 1. greater than 10% abnormal plasma cells in bone marrow
2. lytic bone lesions3. monoclonal protein spike in serum or urine
Complications □ bone abnormalities • osteoporosis, pathological fractures - common due to osteoclastic activating factor and PTHrp • lytic lesions are classical (skull, spine, proximal long bones, ribs) • osteoclast activating factor (hypercalcemia, normal ALP) renal failure secondary to • myeloma kidney (intratubular deposition of light chains) • hypercalcemic nephropathy • pyelonephritis • amyloidosis from chronic inflammation • obstructive uropathy • renal infiltration by plasma cells • hyperuricemia • hyperviscosity compromising renal blood flow recurrent bacterial infections anemia hyperviscosity syndrome (caused by M protein) amyloidosis (CHF, nephrotic syndrome, joint pain, carpal tunnel syndrome) transformation to acute leukemia
Management ☐ melphalan, cyclophosphamide or other alkylating agents ☐ corticosteroids ☐ radiotherapy to local painful lesions ☐ bisphosphonates ☐ follow serum or urine M protein as indicator of response ☐ early identification and treatment of complications ☐ treatment of renal failure
Prognosis ☐ median survival 24-30 months
LIGHT CHAIN DISEASE ☐ plasma cells produce only light chains ☐ 15% of patients with myeloma ☐ diagnosis ☐ urine immunoelectrophoresis ☐ serum studies often non-diagnostic as light chains can pass through glomerulus ☐ renal failure a MAJOR problem ☐ prognosis: survival kappa > lambda light chains
MONOCLONAL GAMMOPATHY OF UNKNOWN SIGNIFICANCE (BENIGN MONOCLONAL GAMMOPATHY) ☐ incidence: 0.15% in general population, 3% of people > 70 years of age ☐ diagnosis • exclude myeloma • < 10% plasma cells in bone marrow • no rise in the M protein with time ☐ 10% of patients develop multiple myeloma each year in the first 3 years
MACROGLOBULINEMIA OF WALDENSTROM ☐ uncontrollable proliferation of lymphoplasmacytoid cells (a hybrid of lymphocytes and plasma cells) ☐ monoclonal IgM para protein is produced ☐ symptoms: weakness, fatigue, bleeding (oronasal), recurrent infections, dyspnea, CHF, weight loss, neurological symptoms peripheral neuropathy, cerebral dysfunction) ☐ signs: pallor, splenomegaly, hepatomegaly, lymphadenopathy, retinal lesions

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MALIGNANT CLONAL PROLIFERATIONS OF B CELLS ... CONT.

	bone marrow shows plasmacyfold lymphocytes bone lesions usually not present cold hemagglutinin disease possible normocytic anemia, rouleaux, high ESR if hyperviscosity not present watch for hyperviscosity syndrome
M	IACROGLOBULINEMIA-HYPERVISCOSITY SYNDROME
	inical Features hypervolemia causing: CHF, headache, lethargy, dilutional anemia CNS symptoms: headache, vertigo, ataxia, stroke retina shows venous engorgement and hemorrhages bleeding diathesis • due to impaired platelet function, absorption of soluble coagulation factors e.g. nasal bleeding, oozing gums ESR usually very low
	anagement chlorambucil or melphalan corticosteroids plasmapheresis for hyperviscosity

Table 14. Characteristics of B Cell Malignant Proliferation				
	CLL	Macroglobulinemia	Myeloma	
Cell Type	lymphocyte lymphocyte	plasmacytoid	plasma cell	
Protein	IgM if present	lgM	IgG, A, D or E	
Lymph Nodes	very common	common	rare	
Hepatosplenomegaly	common	common	rare	
Bone Lesions	rare	rare	common	
Hypercalcemia	rare	rare	common	
Renal failure	rare	rare	common	
Immunoglobulin Autoimmune Complications	common	infrequent	rare	

BONE MARROW TRANSPLANTATION

allows even more intensive t	herapy fo	or hematol	ogic ma	ignancies
high doses of chemo +/- who	ole body	radiation	Ü	C

"marrow rescue"
autologous: from self
allogeneic: HLA identical sibling (donor must be < 55 years)

cytopenias - especially neutropenia and thrombocytopenia
infections - especially opportunistic
drug toxicity

TUMOUR LYSIS SYNDROME more common in diseases with large tumour burden and high proliferative rate (high grade lymphoma, leukemia) ☐ metabolic abnormalities • hyperuricemia hyperkalemia hyperphosphatemia hypocalcemia ☐ complications lethal cardiac arrhythmia acute renal failure **Management** prevention • aggressive IV hydration alkalinization of the urine allopurinol correction of pre-existing metabolic abnormalities dialysis **WBC DISORDERS NEUTROPHILIA Definition** \square absolute neutrophil count (ANC) > 7.5 x 109/liter Mechanism increased mitosis/proliferation e.g. response to chronic infection decreased marrow storage pool e.g. acute response to infection decreased marginal pool e.g. acute response to infection decreased egress from circulating pool e.g. chronic steroids **Etiology**☐ acute infections especially bacterial inflammation metabolic derangement e.g. uremia, acidosis, gout acute hemorrhage or hemolysis malignant neoplasm and myeloproliferative disorders steroid therapy (due to poor migration) **LEUKEMOID REACTIONS** blood findings resembling those seen in certain types of leukemia with immature WBC in the peripheral blood film ☐ myeloid leukemia mimicked by pneumonia • other acute bacterial infections intoxications burns malignant disease severe hemorrhage or hemolysis lymphoid leukemia mimics (see <u>Infectious Diseases</u> Chapter) pertussis TB infectious mononucleosis monocytic leukemia mimics **NEUTROPENIA**

Definition

 \square ANC < 2.5 x 109/liter

Mechanisms

decreased stem cells e.g. aplastic anemia decreased mitosis e.g. marrow hypoplasia secondary to alkylating agents

increased ineffective mitosis eg. megaloblastic anemia increased peripheral destruction e.g. hypersplenism

combinations e.g. lymphoma increased marginal pool or decreased storage pool egress e.g. viremia

WBC DISORDERS ... CONT.

Etiology
overwhelming infection
 viral: HIV, hepatitis, EBV bacterial: typhoid, miliary TB
u drugs and chemicals
examples: ionizing radiation, benzene, chemotherapeutic drugs,
anti-inflammatory drugs • dose-dependent predictable e.g. anticonvulsants
 dose-dependent idiosyncratic e.g. ASA, phenothiazine, indomethacin
 dose-independent hypersensitivity antibody-mediated eg. penicillins
□ marrow disease
• low B12/folate
 bone marrow infiltration (hematologic malignancies > solid tumours) aplastic anemia
hereditary: cyclic neutropenia
☐ hypersplenism
Clinical Features
fever, chills
☐ infection by opportunistic organisms☐ painful ulceration on skin, anus, mouth and throat by opportunistic organisms
septicemia in later stage
Diagnosis
□ CBC
☐ bone marrow biopsy to rule out marrow failure
AGRANULOCYTOSIS
virtually complete disappearance of granulocytes from the blood and
granulocyte precursors from the marrow; drugs often implicated abrupt onset of
• fever, chills and weakness
 oropharyngeal ulcers drug induced (eg. clozapine)
induced (eg. clozapine) in highly lethal without vigorous treatment
Management
☐ discontinue offending drug
antimicrobial therapy e.g. TMP-SMX, ciprofloxacin, antifungal
☐ Filgrastim (G-CSF) - growth factor that stimulates neutrophil production
APPROACH TO SPLENOMEGALY
Etiology
 infections subacute bacterial endocarditis, TB, salmonella, EBV, CMV,
histoplasmosis, malaria, toxoplasmosis, schistosomiasis, HIV/AIDS
hematologic disorders
 hemolytic anemia, hemoglobinopathies, Fe deficiency anemia congestive splenomegaly, portal hypertension: secondary
 secondary to portal or splenic vein obstruction
 secondarý to intrahepatic disease secondary to CHF
infiltrative or métabolic diseases
lipid storage disease, mucopolysaccharidosis, glycogen storage disease, amylaidesis, tyrasinomia
disease, amyloidosis, tyrosinemia immunological
SLE, sarcoidosis
 neoplastic leukemia, lymphoma, Hodgkin's disease
☐ epidermal cysts
other

Mild Spleen Enlargement
☐ 0-4 cm below costal margin
☐ CHF, SBE, SLE, RA, thalassemia minor, acute malaria, typhoid fever

• serum sickness, Felty's syndrome, osteoperosis

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WBC DISORDERS

splenic absces Massive Spleer → > 8 cm below of the chronic leuken polycythemia thalassemia m	costal margir osis, lympho ss, amyloidos n Enlargen costal margir nias, lympho vera (end-sta ajor	n omas, infectious mononucl sis, acute leukemias, hemo nent oma, myelofibrosis, hairy c age), primary thrombocyth	olytic anemias ell leukemia, leishmania emia, lipid-storage dise	sis, portal vein obstruction, ase, sarcoidosis,
		JCTS AND TR	ANSFUSION	S
Table 15. Bloo			Table 16. Red	 Cells
Group	Antige	n Antibody	Product	Indication
O A	H A	anti-A, anti-B	Packed Cells	symptomatic anemia bleeding with hypovolemia
B A B	B A and E	anti-A B nil	Frozen Red Cells	rare blood groups multiple alloantibodies
group compating of the compatition of the compatiti	ible uncrossi crossmatche	matched blood is safer tha d blood - there is no univ	n ersal donor	
□ stored at 4°C□ transfuse withi□ transfuse withi	in 7 days of o	collection, otherwise hypocollection if renal failure or corit by about 4% or hemog	hepatic failure is preser	nt to reduce solute load
donor blood s	nould be cro hould be fre	Transfusion ssmatch compatible (by me of irregular blood group the same ABO and Rh gr	antibodies	ith donor RBC)
PLATELETS				
Table 17. Plate	elet Produ	cts		
Product		Indication		
Random Donor (j	pooled)	thrombocytopenia with ble	eeding	
Olivela Device Di		I DAGE		

Single Donor Platelets potential BMT recipients **HLA Matched Platelets** refractoriness to pooled or single donor platelets

 \square each unit of random donor platelets should increase the platelet count by approximately 10 x 109/L single donor platelets should increase the platelet count by 40-60 x 109/L \square if an increment in the platelet count is not seen, alloantibodies, bleeding, sepsis or hypersplenism

may be present

BLOOD PRODUCTS AND TRANSFUSIONS ... CONT.

COAGULATION FACTORS

Table 18. Coagulation Factor Products		
Product	Indication	
Fresh Frozen Plasma	Depletion of multiple coagulation factors	
Cryoprecipitate	Factor VIII deficiency Von Willebrand's disease Hypofibrinogenemia Hemate P	
Factor VIII Concentrate	Factor VIII deficiency	
Factor IX Concentrate	Factor IX deficiency	

Special	Consid	lerations
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- ☐ irradiated blood products
 potential BMT recipients

 - immunocompromised patients
- ☐ CMV negative blood products
 - potential transplant recipients
 - neonates

GROUP AND RESERVE SERUM

- oxdot an alternative to holding crossmatched blood for individuals who may require transfusion
 - recipient's ABO and Rh group is determined
 - recipient's serum is tested for the presence of irregular blood group antibodies
 - serum is kept frozen
- ☐ compatible blood can be issued immediately in an emergency or within 30 minutes electively

ACUTE COMPLICATIONS OF BLOOD TRANSFUSIONS

Febrile 1	Nonhemolyti	ic Transfus	sion Rea	ctions
I due to	antibodios sti	imulated by	provious	trancfu

- due to antibodies stimulated by previous transfusions or pregnancies against antigens on donor lymphocytes, granulocytes, platelets or to lymphokines that are released with storage of the cells signs and symptoms: chills, fever
- management and prevention
 stop transfusion

 - acetaminophen
 - steroids
 - filtered blood
 - washed blood

Allergic Reactions

- usually due to interaction between donor plasma proteins and recipient IgE antibodies
- ☐ signs and symptoms: a spectrum from urticaria and generalized itching to wheezing to anaphylaxis
 - Note: anaphylaxis is rare, usually in IgA deficient patients reacting against IgA in donor plasma
- management and prevention
 - antihistamines
 - slow infusion
 - steroids
 - washed blood
 - anaphylaxis may require IV epinephrine and IgA deficient blood components in future

Acute Hemolytic Transfusion Reactions

- most commonly due to incorrect patient identification intravascular hemolytic reaction due to complement activation
- ☐ signs and symptoms

 - muscle pain, back pain
 fever, N/V, chest pain, wheezing
 - dyspnea, tachypnea (acute respiratory distress syndrome)
 feeling of impending doom

 - hemoglobinemia
 - renal failure DIC
 - hypotension and vascular collapse
 - patient under general anesthetic may present with bleeding

BLOOD PRODUCTS AND TRANSFUSIONS ... CONT.

 direct antiglobulin tes 	d donor and recipient blood groups t (direct Coombs' test)
 management stop transfusion hydrate aggressively transfuse with compat 	ible blood products
Citrate Toxicity ☐ seen with massive transfusio ☐ toxicity secondary to hypoca ☐ prevented by giving 10 mL of	
Hyperkalemia	
Circulatory Overload ☐ signs: dyspnea, orthopnea, o ☐ with prior CHF and in elderly ☐ minimize the amount of salir	rynasosis, sudden anxiety, hemoptysis, crackles in lung bases y patients ne given with the blood
Hemorrhagic State due to in with massive transfusion in packed cells contain no Fact in correct with fresh frozen plas	or VIII or V or platelets
Bacterial Infections ☐ never give blood > 4 hours a ☐ signs and symptoms: chills, r (profound symptoms with Gr ☐ management: blood cultures	rigors, fever, hypotension, shock, DIC ram negatives)
DELAYED COMPLICATIONS ☐ days to weeks ☐ viral infection risks • HIV < 1:500,000 • HBV < 1:250,000 • HCV < 1: 10,000	IN TRANSFUSIONS
detected by indirect antigloby may be confused with autoin	0 days to alloantibodies that are too weak to be culin test or by crossmatch nmune hemolytic anemia a, fever, history of recent transfusion, jaundice,
complications include secondilated cardiomyopaticirrhosis	insfusion can reduce the chance of iron overload dary hemochromatosis
 between 4-30 days later most patients with this have (e.g. Hodgkin's, NHL, acute leading) 	cognize and react against the "host" (recipient) severely impaired immune systems eukemias) diarrhea, liver function abnormalities, pancytopenia

MEDICATIONS COMMONLY USED IN HEMATOLOGY

Drug	Common Formulary	Mechanism of Action	Clinical Uses	Common Side Effects	Contraindications
iron	iron gluconate iron sulphate iron fumarate	for synthesis of hemoglobin	iron deficiency anemia treatment and prevention pregnancy	in children: acute iron toxicity as necrotizing enterocolitis shock metabolic acidosis coma and death	• iron overload
B12	cyanocobalamin hydroxycobalamin	synthesis of folic acid and DNA	B ₁₂ deficiency	no significant toxicity	• N/A
folic acid	folic acid	synthesis of purines and thymidylate thus DNA	folic acid deficiency pregnancy	no significant toxicity	• N/A
erythropoietin	Еро	stimulate RBC synthesis	renal failure marrow failure myelodysplastic syndrome autologous blood donation	no significant toxicity	• N/A

Class	Example	Mechanism of Action	Common Toxicity	Examples of Clinical Use
alkylating agent	nitrogen mustard cyclophosphamide nitrosurea busulfan cisplatin	cell cycle non-specific drugs via alkylation of nucleophilic groups in base pairs leading to cross-linking of bases or abnormal basepairing or DNA breakage	marrow suppression Gl irritation change in gonadal function nitrogen mustard (cyclophosphamide): hemorrhagic cystitis busulfan: adrenal insufficiency and pulmonary fibrosis	cyclophosphamide breast CA small cell lung CA NHL busulfan CML cisplatin advanced ovarian CA testicular CA
antimetabolites	folic acid antagonist (methotrexate) purine antagonist (mercaptopurine) pyrimidine antagonist (5-FU) hydroxyurea	all are cell cycle specific drugs all inhibit DNA synthesis methotrexate inhibits synthesis of tetrahydrofolate mercaptopurine inhibits purine synthesis 5-FU inhibits thymidylate synthesis hydroxyurea inhibits nucleotide reductase	marrow suppression oral mucositis nausea and vomiting	methotrexate breast CA gestational trophoblastic CA ovarian CA mercaptopurine AML 5-FU breast CA Gl CA hepatocellular CA hydroxyurea CML
antibiotics	anthracyclines (doxorubicin) bleomycin mitomycin-C	anthracycline is cell cycle non-specific; intercalates between basepairs and thus blocks DNA and RNA synthesis bleomycin is cell cycle specific (G2); produces free radicals leading to DNA breaks and inhibits DNA synthesis mitomycin-C is cell cycle non-specific; metabolized in liver to alkylating agent	anthracyclines marrow suppression severe alopecia cardiomyopathies bleomycin pulmonary fibrosis pneumonitis hypersensitivity mucocutaneous reactions mitomycin-C myelo-suppression nephrotoxic	anthracyclines breast CA AML lymphomas bleomycin testicular CA lymphomas Glymphomas mitomycin-C Gl malignancies

MEDICATIONS COMMONLY USED IN HEMATOLOGY ... CONT.

Class	Example	Mechanism of Action	Common Toxicity	Examples of Clinical Use
alkaloids	vinblastine vincristine podophyllotoxin (etoposide) taxol	all are cell cycle specific vincristine and vinblastine inhibit assembly of microtubules therefore mitotic spindles and M phase podophyllotoxin activates opoisomerase II therefore DNA breaks down taxol inhibits disassembly of microtubules therefore cells are stuck in M phase	all have marrow suppression vincristine and vinblastine neurotoxic with areflexia, peripheral neuritis and paralytic ileus taxol neurotoxic as above	vincristine and vinblastine lymphomas Wilm's tumour podophyllotoxin small cell lung CA prostate CA testicular CA taxol advanced breast CA ovarian CA
hormones	glucocorticoids tamoxifen flutamide aminoglutethimide	tamoxifen as a partial E2 antagonist flutamide: androgen receptor antagonist aminoglutethimide: aromatase inhibitor in E2 synthesis	glucocorticoid refer to Endocrinology under Cushing's syndrome tamoxifen menopausal symptoms long term: retinopathy aminoglutethimide menopausal symptoms skin rashes	glucocorticoids CML lymphomas tamoxifen breast CA flutamide prostate CA aminoglutethimide metastatic breast CA
others	carboplatin mitoxantrone	carboplatin DNA binding mitoxantrone ?DNA breaks	carboplatin myelo-suppression nausea, vomiting nephrotoxicity mitoxantrone cardiotoxicity alopecia	carboplatin ovarian CA mitoxantrone AML NHL breast CA ovarian CA lung CA

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