

Circulatory System

- **circulatory system** consists of the heart, blood vessels and blood
- **cardiovascular system** refers only to the heart and blood vessels
- **hematology** – the study of blood
- **functions of circulatory system**
 - **transport**
 - O_2 , CO_2 , nutrients, wastes, hormones, and stem cells
 - **protection**
 - inflammation, limit spread of infection, destroy microorganisms and cancer cells, neutralize toxins, and initiates clotting
 - **regulation**
 - fluid balance, stabilizes pH of ECF, and temperature control

Components and General Properties of Blood

- adults have 4-6 L of blood
- a **liquid connective tissue** consisting of cells and extracellular matrix
 - **plasma** – matrix of blood
 - a clear, light yellow fluid
 - **formed elements** - blood cells and cell fragments
 - red blood cells, white blood cells, and platelets

Components and General Properties of Blood

- seven kinds of formed elements
 - **erythrocytes** - red blood cells (RBCs)
 - **platelets**
 - cell fragments from special cell in bone marrow
 - **leukocytes** - white blood cells (WBCs)
 - **five leukocyte types** divided into **two categories**:
 - granulocytes (with granules)
 - **neutrophils**
 - **eosinophils**
 - **basophils**
 - agranulocytes (without granules)
 - **lymphocytes**
 - **monocytes**

Formed Elements of Blood

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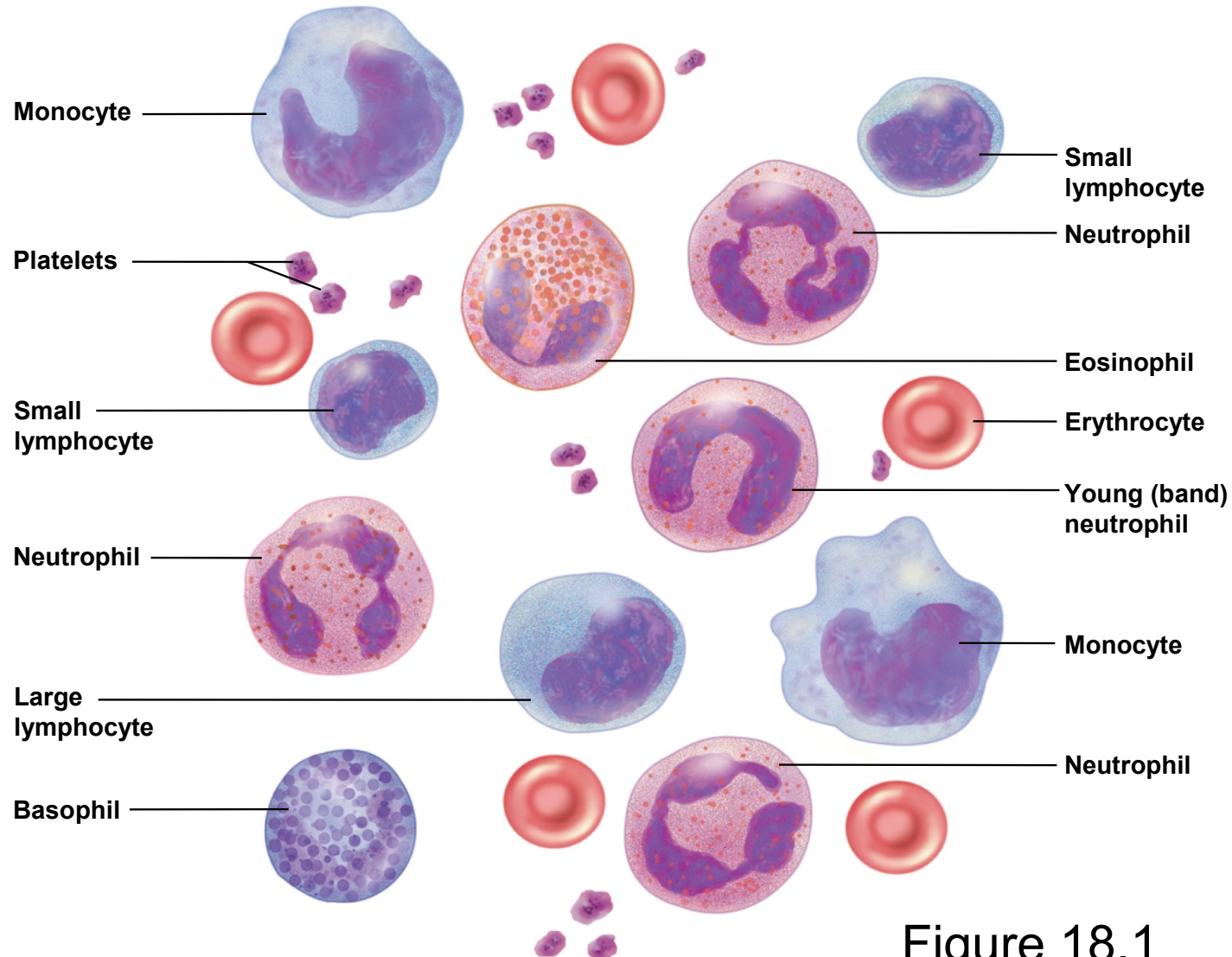


Figure 18.1

Separating Plasma From Formed Elements of Blood

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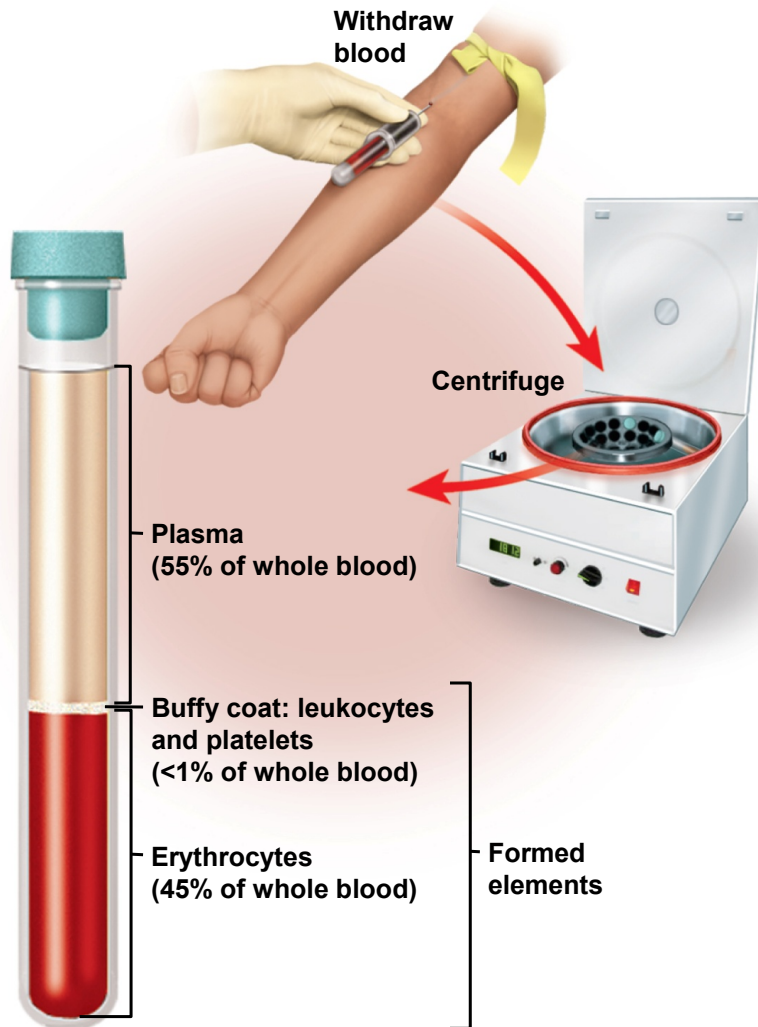


Figure 18.2

- **hematocrit** - centrifuge blood to separate components
 - **erythrocytes** are heaviest and settle first
 - 37% to 52% total volume
 - **white blood cells and platelets**
 - 1% total volume
 - buffy coat
 - **plasma**
 - the remainder of volume
 - 47% - 63%
 - complex mixture of water, proteins, nutrients, electrolytes, nitrogenous wastes, hormones, and gases

Plasma and Plasma Proteins

- **plasma** – liquid portion of blood
 - **serum** – remaining fluid when blood clots and the solids are removed
 - identical to plasma except for the **absence of fibrinogen**
- 3 major categories of plasma proteins
 - **albumins** – smallest and most abundant
 - contributes to viscosity and osmolarity, influences blood pressure, flow and fluid balance
 - **globulins** (antibodies)
 - provide immune system functions
 - alpha, beta and gamma globulins
 - **fibrinogen**
 - precursor of fibrin threads that help form blood clots
- **plasma proteins** formed by liver
 - except globulins (produced by plasma cells)

Nonprotein Components of Plasma

- **nitrogenous compounds**
 - free amino acids
 - from dietary protein or tissue breakdown
 - nitrogenous wastes (urea)
 - toxic end products of catabolism
 - normally removed by the kidneys
- **nutrients**
 - glucose, vitamins, fats, cholesterol, phospholipids, and minerals
- **dissolved O₂, CO₂, and nitrogen**
- **electrolytes**
 - Na⁺ makes up 90% of plasma cations

Properties of Blood

- **viscosity** - resistance of a fluid to flow, resulting from the cohesion of its particles
 - whole blood 4.5 - 5.5 times as viscous as water
 - plasma is 2.0 times as viscous as water
- **osmolarity** of blood - the total molarity of those dissolved particles that cannot pass through the blood vessel wall
 - if too high, blood absorbs too much water, increasing the blood pressure
 - if too low, too much water stays in tissue, blood pressure drops and edema occurs
 - optimum osmolarity is achieved by bodies regulation of sodium ions, proteins, and red blood cells.

Starvation and Plasma Proteins

- **hypoproteinemia**
 - deficiency of plasma proteins
 - extreme starvation
 - liver or kidney disease
 - severe burns
- **kwashiorkor**
 - children with severe protein deficiency
 - fed on cereals once weaned
 - thin arms and legs
 - swollen abdomen

Hemopoiesis

- adult production of 400 billion platelets, 200 billion RBCs and 10 billion WBCs every day
- **hemopoiesis** – the production of blood, especially its formed elements
- **hemopoietic tissues** produce blood cells
 - spleen remains involved with lymphocyte production
 - red bone marrow produces all seven formed elements
 - **pluripotent stem cells (PPSC)**
 - formerly called hemopoietic stem cells
 - **colony forming units** – specialized stem cells only producing one class of formed element of blood
 - **myeloid hemopoiesis** – blood formation in the bone marrow
 - **lymphoid hemopoiesis** – blood formation in the lymphatic organs

Erythrocytes

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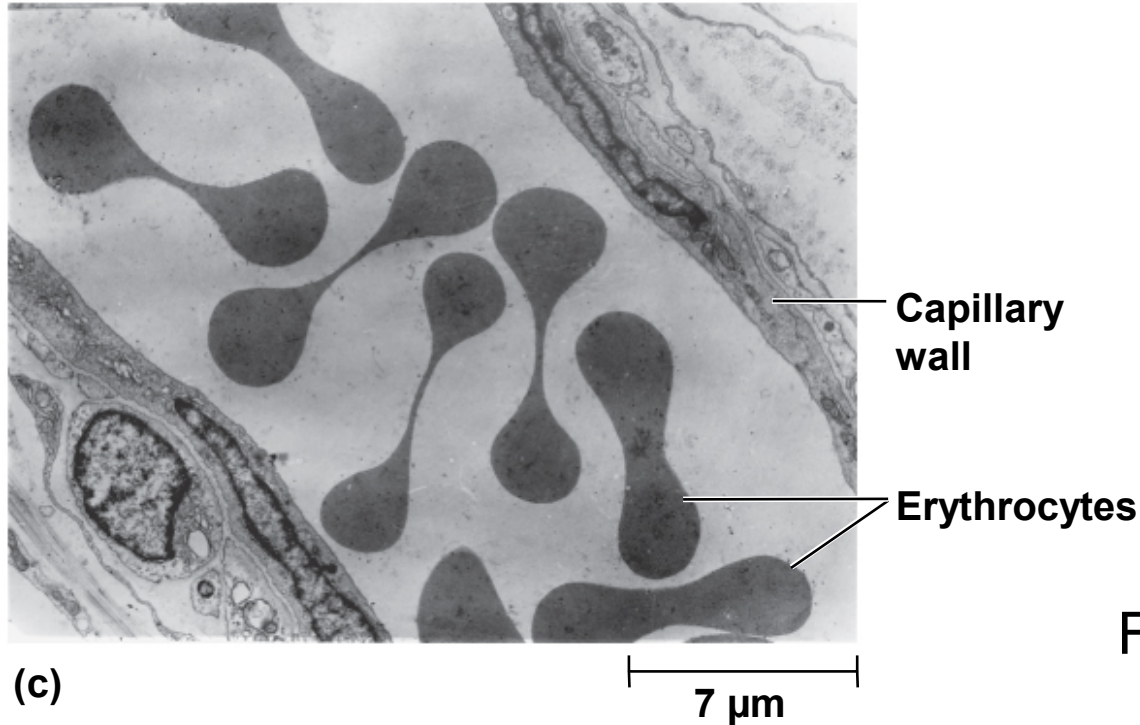


Figure 18.4c

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- **two principal functions:**
 - carry oxygen from lungs to cell tissues
 - pick up carbon dioxide from tissues and bring to lungs
- insufficient RBCs may kill in few minutes due to lack of oxygen to tissues

Erythrocytes (RBCs)

- disc-shaped cell with thick rim
 - 7.5 μm diameter and 2.0 μm thick at rim
 - lose nearly all organelles during development
 - lack mitochondria
 - anaerobic fermentation to produce ATP
 - lack of nucleus and DNA
 - no protein synthesis or mitosis
 - blood type determined by surface glycoprotein and glycolipids
 - cytoskeletal proteins (spectrin and actin) give membrane durability and resilience
 - stretch and bend as squeeze through small capillaries

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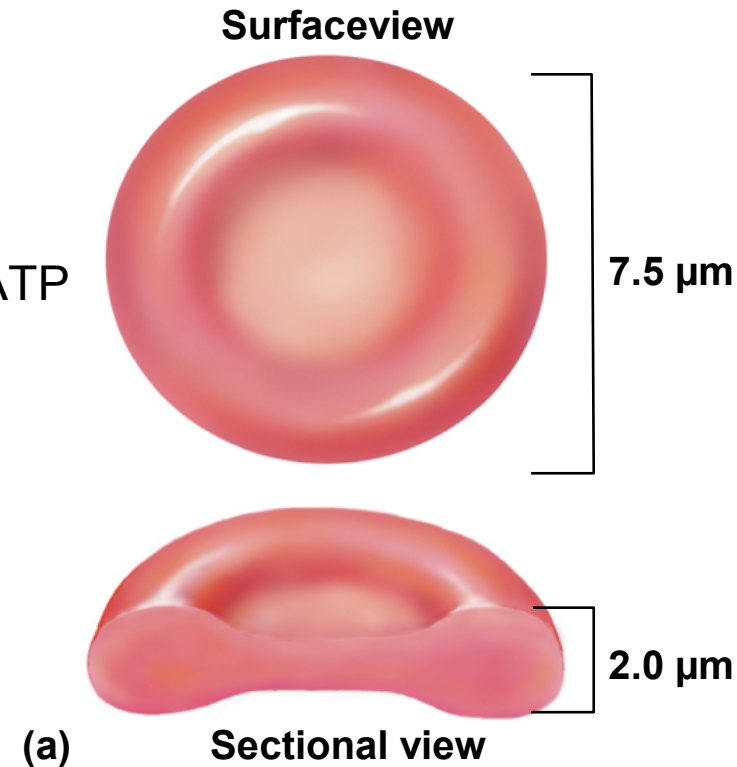


Figure 18.4a

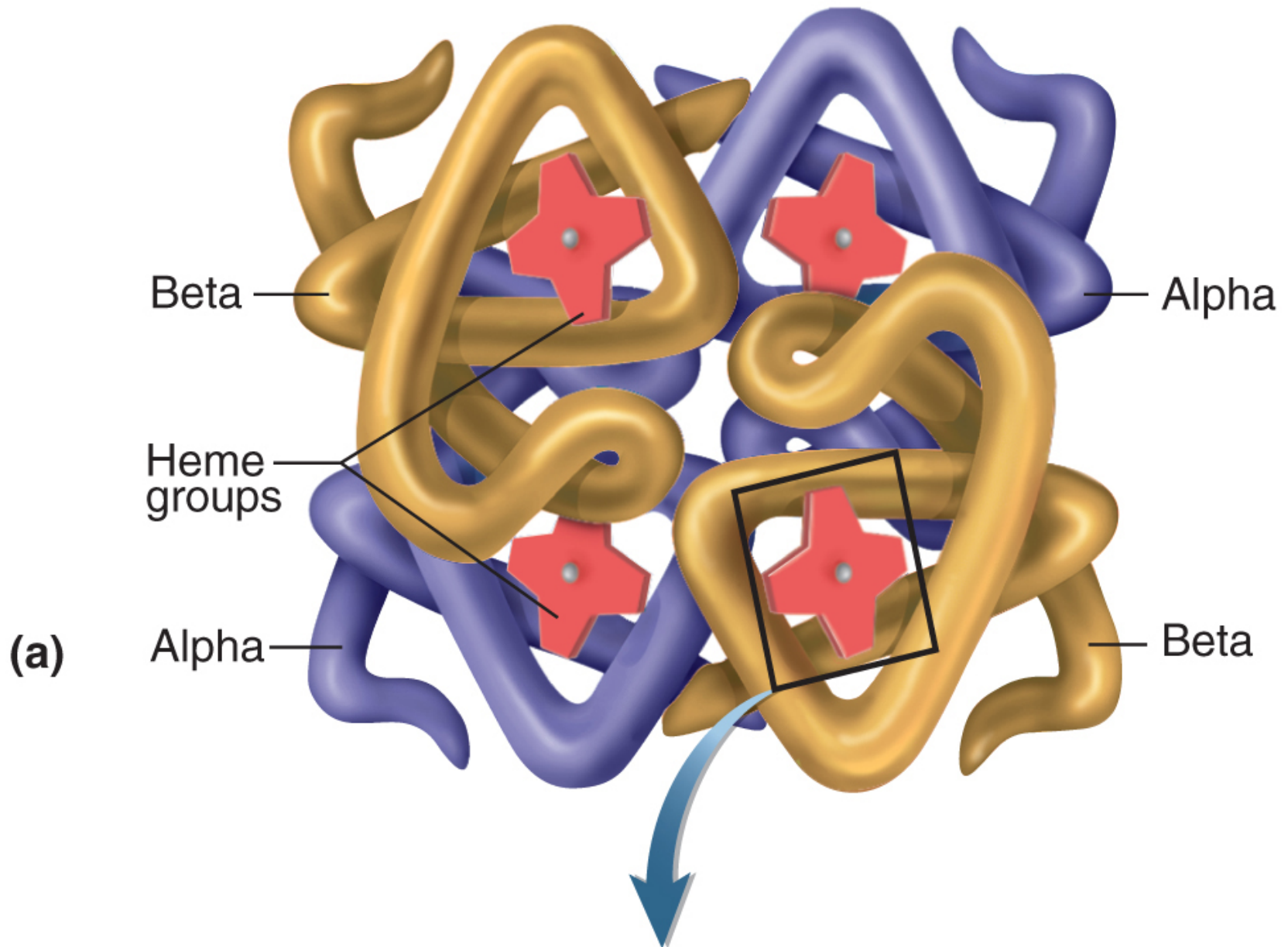
RBC Form and Function

- **gas transport** - major function
 - increased surface area/volume ratio
 - due to loss of organelles during maturation
 - increases diffusion rate of substances
 - 33% of cytoplasm is hemoglobin (Hb)
 - 280 million hemoglobin molecules on one RBC
 - O₂ delivery to tissue and CO₂ transport to lungs
 - **carbonic anhydrase (CAH)** in cytoplasm
 - produces carbonic acid from CO₂ and water
 - important role in gas transport and pH balance

Hemoglobin (Hb) Structure

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- each Hb molecule consists of:
 - four protein chains – **globins**
 - four **heme groups**
- **heme groups**
 - nonprotein moiety that binds O₂ to ferrous ion (Fe²⁺) at its center
- **globins** - four protein chains
 - two alpha and two beta chains
 - 5% CO₂ in blood is bound to globin moiety
- adult vs. fetal hemoglobin



Erythrocytes and Hemoglobin

- RBC count and hemoglobin concentration indicate amount of O₂ blood can carry
 - **hematocrit** (packed cell volume) – percentage of whole blood volume composed of red blood cells
 - men 42- 52% cells; women 37- 48% cells
 - **hemoglobin concentration** of whole blood
 - men 13-18g/dL; women 12-16g/dL
 - **RBC count**
 - men 4.6-6.2 million/ μ L; women 4-2-5.4 million/ μ L
- values are lower in women
 - androgens stimulate RBC production
 - women have periodic menstrual losses
 - hematocrit is inversely proportional to percentage of body fat

Erythrocyte Production (Erythropoiesis)

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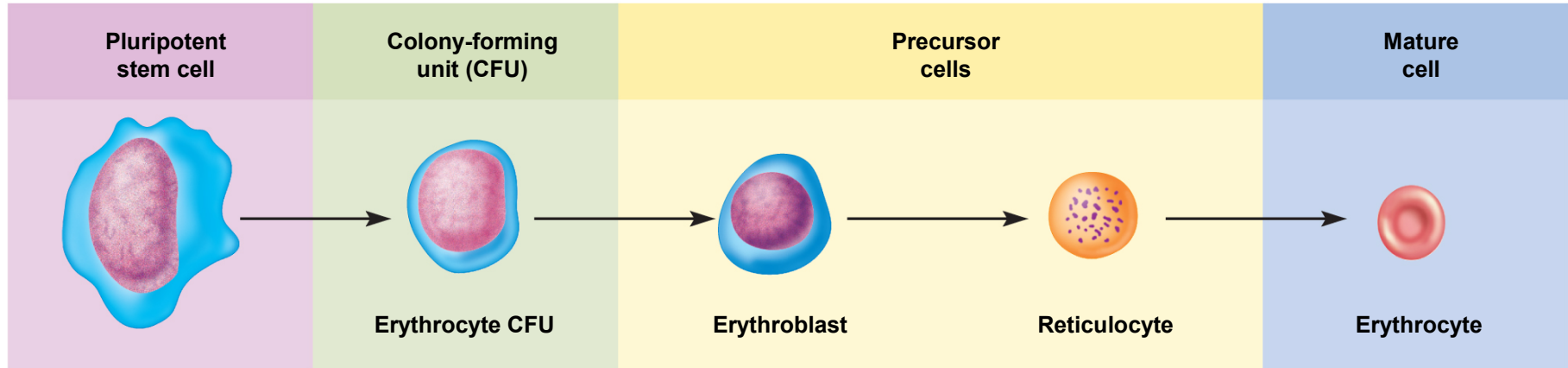


Figure 18.6

- 2.5 million RBCs are produced per second
- average lifespan of about 120 days
- development takes 3-5 days
 - reduction in cell size, increase in cell number, synthesis of hemoglobin and loss of nucleus
- first committed cell - **erythrocyte colony forming unit**
 - has receptors for erythropoietin (EPO) from kidneys
- erythroblasts multiply and synthesize hemoglobin
- nucleus discarded to form a **reticulocyte**
 - named for fine network of endoplasmic reticulum
 - 0.5 to 1.5% of circulating RBCs are reticulocytes

Iron Metabolism

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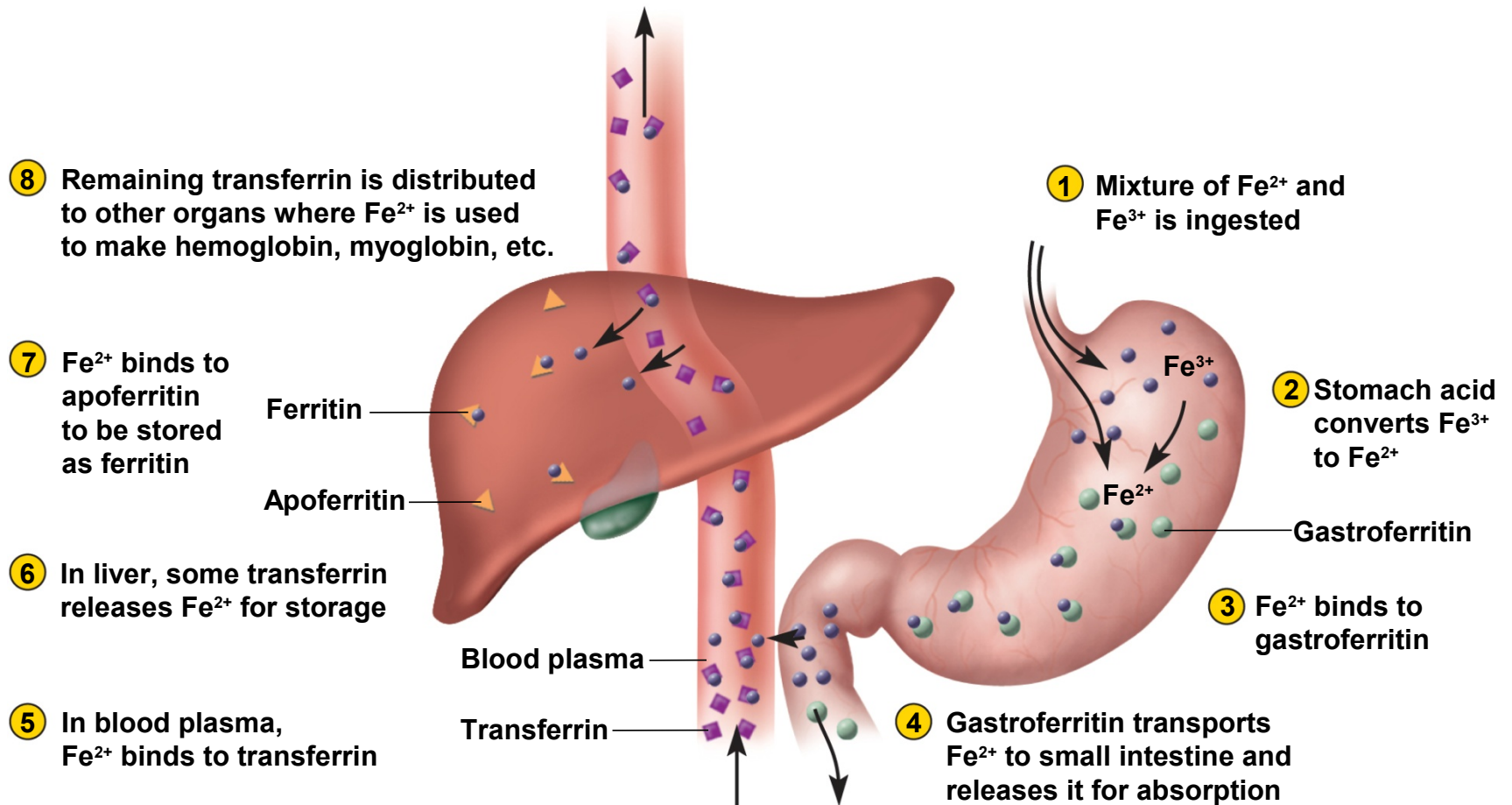


Figure 18.7

Nutritional Needs for Erythropoiesis

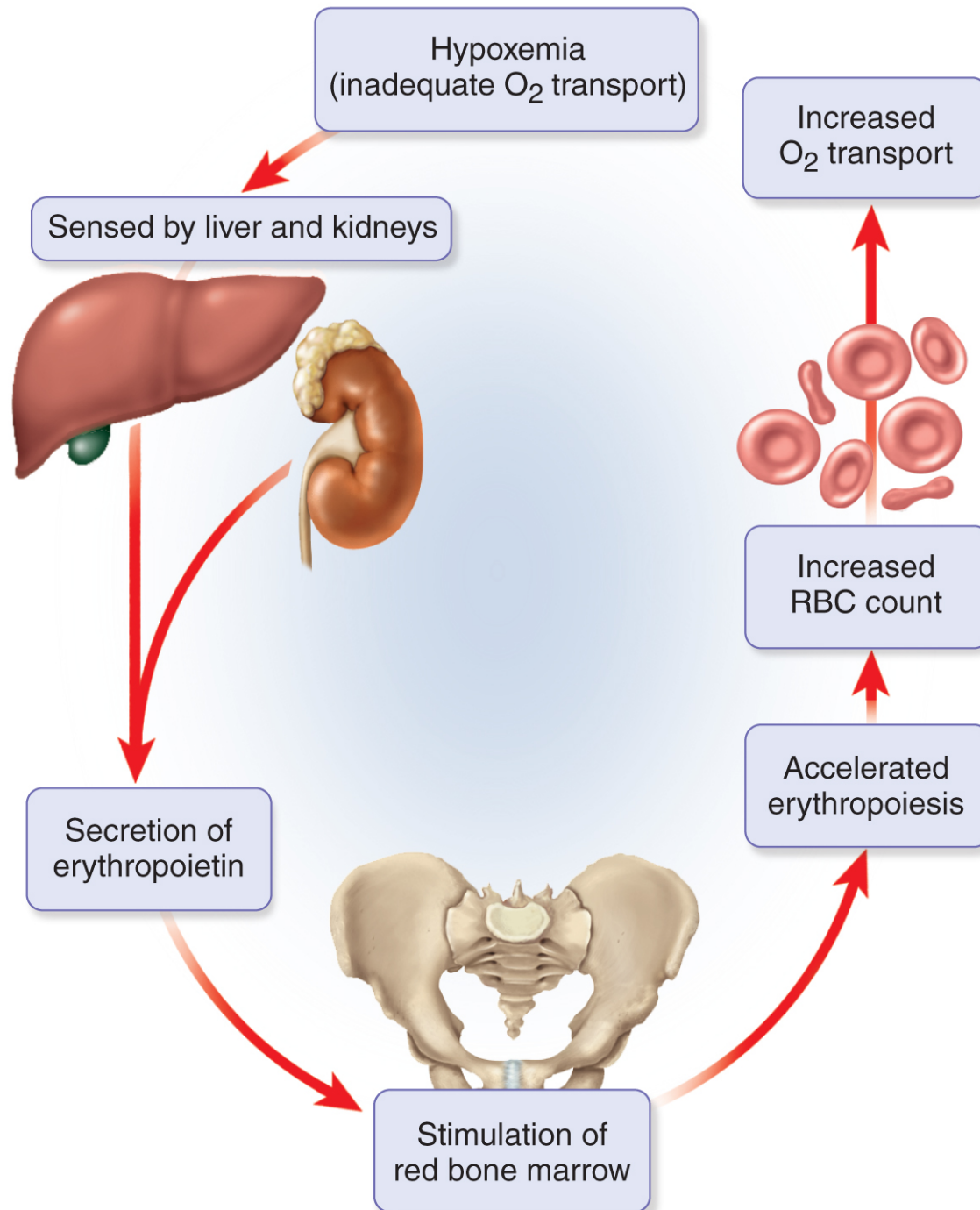
- **iron** - key nutritional requirement
 - lost daily through urine, feces, and bleeding
 - men 0.9 mg/day and women 1.7 mg/day
 - low absorption rate of iron requires consumption of 5-20 mg/day
 - dietary iron: ferric (Fe^{3+}) and ferrous (Fe^{2+})
- bone marrow for **hemoglobin**, muscle for **myoglobin**, and all cells use for **cytochromes** in mitochondria

Nutritional Needs for Erythropoiesis

- Vitamin B₁₂ and folic acid
 - rapid cell division and DNA synthesis that occurs in erythropoiesis
- Vitamin C and copper
 - cofactors for enzymes synthesizing hemoglobin

Erythrocyte Homeostasis

- **negative feedback** control
 - drop in RBC count causes liver and kidney **hypoxemia**
 - Liver and kidney produce **erythropoietin** - stimulates bone marrow
 - RBC count increases in 3 - 4 days
- stimuli for increasing erythropoiesis
 - low levels O_2 (hypoxemia)
 - high altitude
 - increase in exercise
 - loss of lung tissue in emphysema



Erythrocytes Death and Disposal

- RBCs lyse in narrow channels in **spleen**
- macrophages in spleen
 - digest membrane bits
 - separate heme from globin
 - **globins** hydrolyzed into **amino acids**
 - **iron** removed from **heme**
 - heme pigment converted to **biliverdin** (green)
 - biliverdin converted to **bilirubin** (yellow)
 - released into blood plasma (kidneys - yellow urine)
 - liver removes bilirubin and secretes into bile
- concentrated in gall bladder: released into small intestine; bacteria create **urobilinogen** (brown feces)

Erythrocytes Recycle/Disposal

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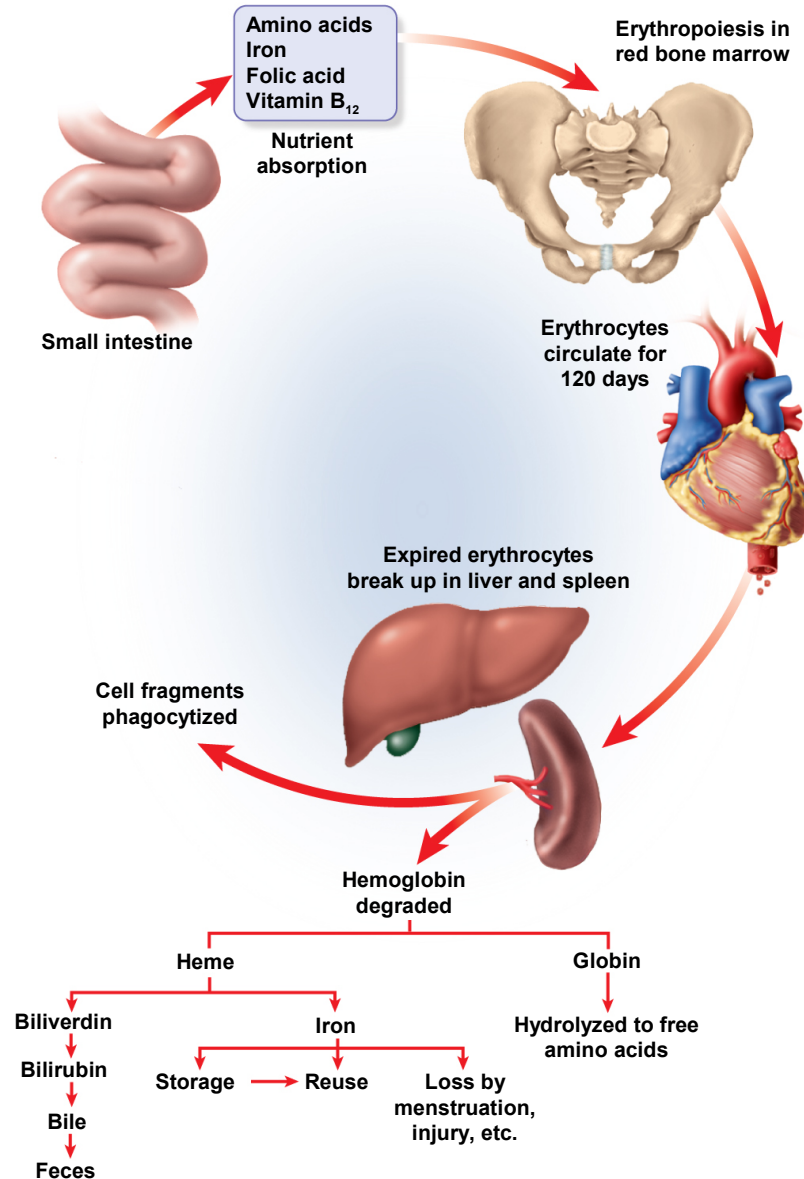


Figure 18.9

Erythrocyte Disorders

- **polycythemia** - an excess of RBCs
 - **primary polycythemia (polycythemia vera)**
 - cancer of erythropoietic cell line in red bone marrow
 - RBC count as high as 11 million/ μ L; hematocrit 80%
 - **secondary polycythemia**
 - from dehydration, emphysema, high altitude, or physical conditioning
 - RBC count up to 8 million/ μ L
- **dangers of polycythemia**
 - increased blood volume, pressure, viscosity
 - can lead to embolism, stroke or heart failure

Anemia

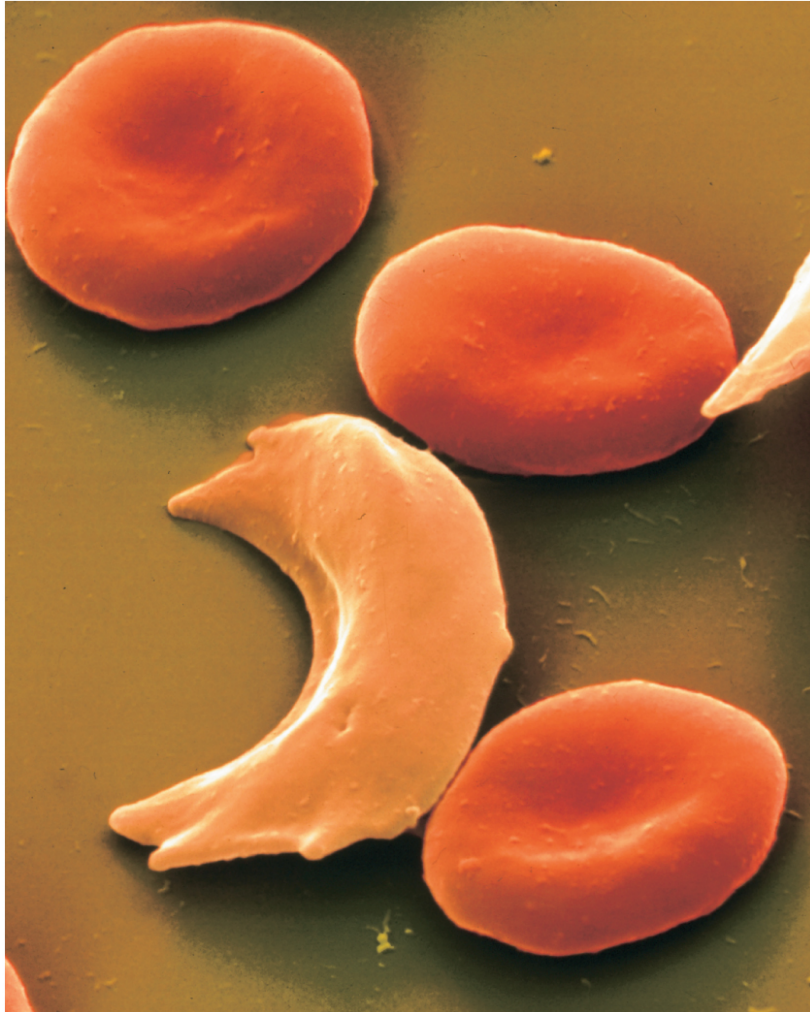
- **causes** of anemia fall into three categories:
 - **inadequate erythropoiesis or hemoglobin synthesis**
 - kidney failure and insufficient erythropoietin
 - iron-deficiency anemia
 - inadequate vitamin B₁₂ from poor nutrition or lack of intrinsic factor (**pernicious anemia**)
 - **hypoplastic anemia** – slowing of erythropoiesis
 - **aplastic anemia** - complete cessation of erythropoiesis
 - **hemorrhagic anemias** from bleeding
 - **hemolytic anemias** from RBC destruction

Anemia

- anemia has three potential **consequences**:
 - **tissue hypoxia and necrosis**
 - patient is lethargic
 - shortness of breath upon exertion
 - life threatening necrosis of brain, heart, or kidney
 - **blood osmolarity is reduced** producing tissue edema
 - **blood viscosity is low**
 - heart races and pressure drops
 - cardiac failure may ensue

Sickle-Cell Disease

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Figure 18.10

- hereditary hemoglobin defects that occur mostly among people of African descent
- caused by a recessive allele that modifies the structure of the hemoglobin molecule (HbS)
 - differs only on the sixth amino acid of the beta chain
 - HbS does not bind oxygen well
 - RBCs become rigid, sticky, pointed at ends
 - clump together and block small blood vessels causing intense pain
 - can lead to kidney or heart failure, stroke, rheumatism or paralysis

Blood Types

- blood types and transfusion compatibility are a matter of interactions between plasma proteins and erythrocytes
- Karl Landsteiner discovered blood types A, B and O in 1900
 - won Nobel Prize
- blood types are based on interactions between antigens and antibodies

Blood Antigens and Antibodies

- **antigens**

- complex molecules on surface of cell membrane that are unique to the individual
 - used to distinguish self from foreign
 - foreign antigens generate an immune response
 - **agglutinogens** – antigens on the surface of the RBC that is the basis for blood typing

- **antibodies**

- proteins (gamma globulins) secreted by **plasma cells**
 - part of immune response to foreign matter
 - bind to antigens and mark them for destruction
 - forms **antigen-antibody complexes**
 - **agglutinins** – antibodies in the plasma that bring about transfusion mismatch

- **agglutination**

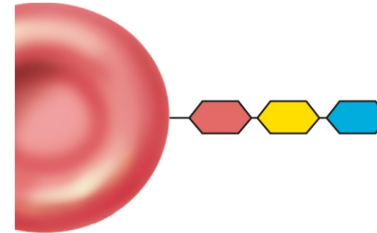
- antibody molecule binding to antigens
- causes clumping of red blood cells

Blood Types

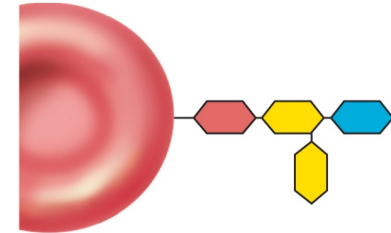
- RBC antigens called **agglutinogens**
 - called antigen A and B
 - determined by carbohydrate moieties found on RBC surface
- antibodies called **agglutinins**
 - found in plasma
 - anti-A and anti-B

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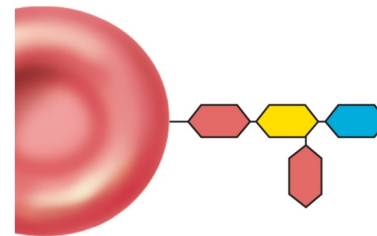
Type O



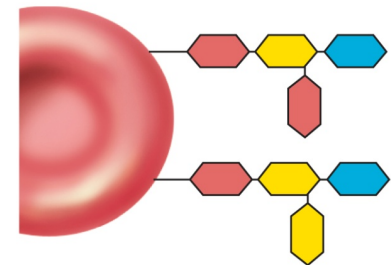
Type B



Type A



Type AB



Key

Yellow hexagon Galactose

Blue hexagon Fucose

Red hexagon N-acetylgalactosamine

Figure 18.12

ABO Group

- your ABO blood type is determined by presence or absence of antigens (agglutinogens) on RBCs
 - blood **type A** person has **A** antigens
 - blood **type B** person has **B** antigens
 - blood **type AB** has **both A and B** antigens
 - blood **type O** person has **neither antigen**
 - most common - type O
 - rarest - type AB

ABO Blood Typing

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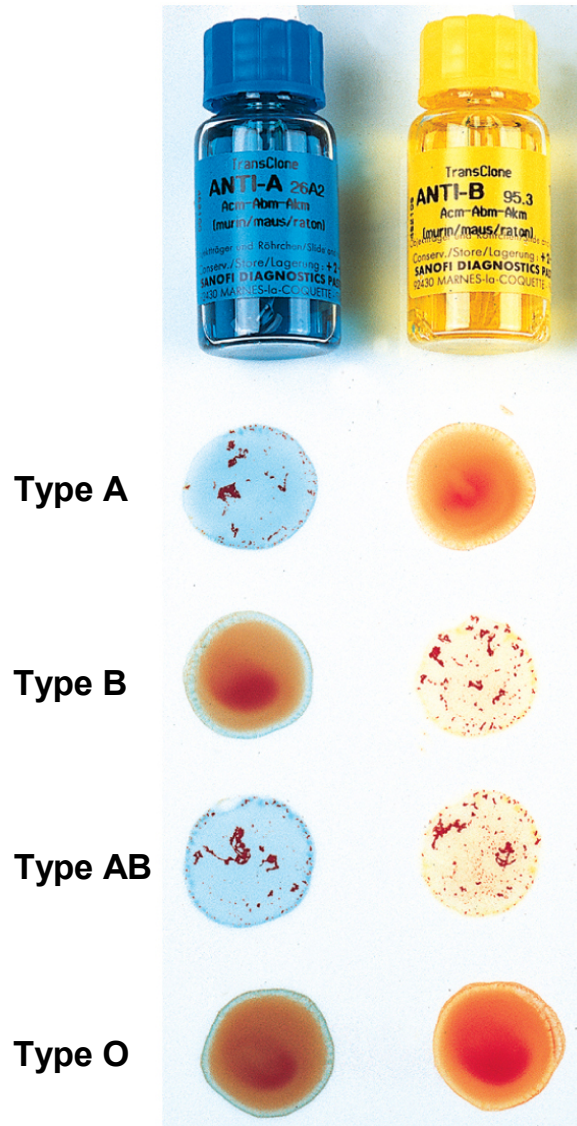


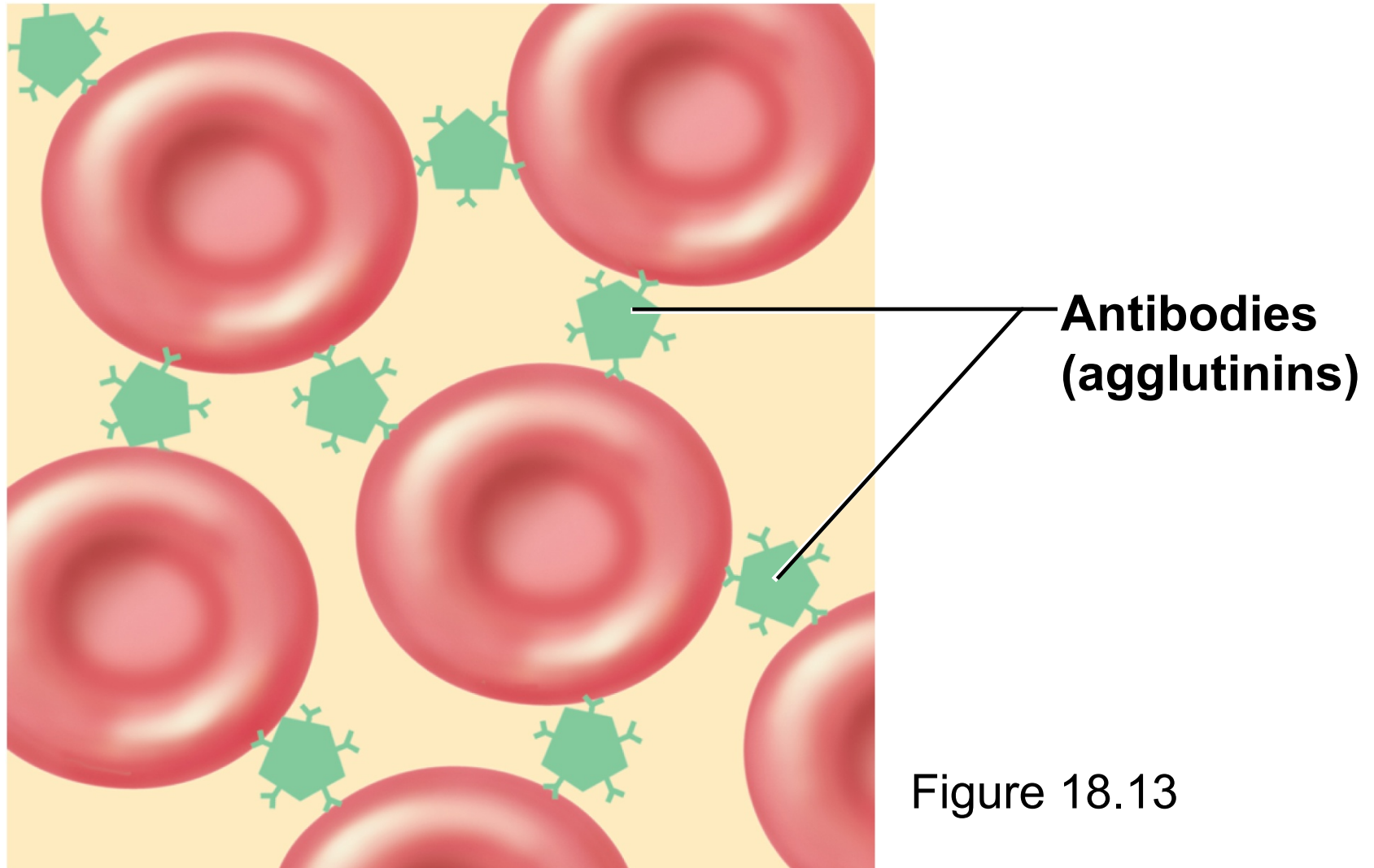
Figure 18.14

Plasma Antibodies

- antibodies (**agglutinins**); anti-A and anti-B
- appear 2-8 months after birth; at maximum concentration at 10 yr.
 - antibody-A and/or antibody-B (both or none) are found in plasma
 - you do not form antibodies against your antigens
- **agglutination**
 - each antibody can attach to several foreign antigens on several different RBCs at the same time
- responsible for mismatched **transfusion reaction**
 - agglutinated RBCs block small blood vessels, hemolyze, and release their hemoglobin over the next few hours or days
 - Hb blocks kidney tubules and causes acute renal failure

Agglutination of Erythrocytes

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Transfusion Reaction

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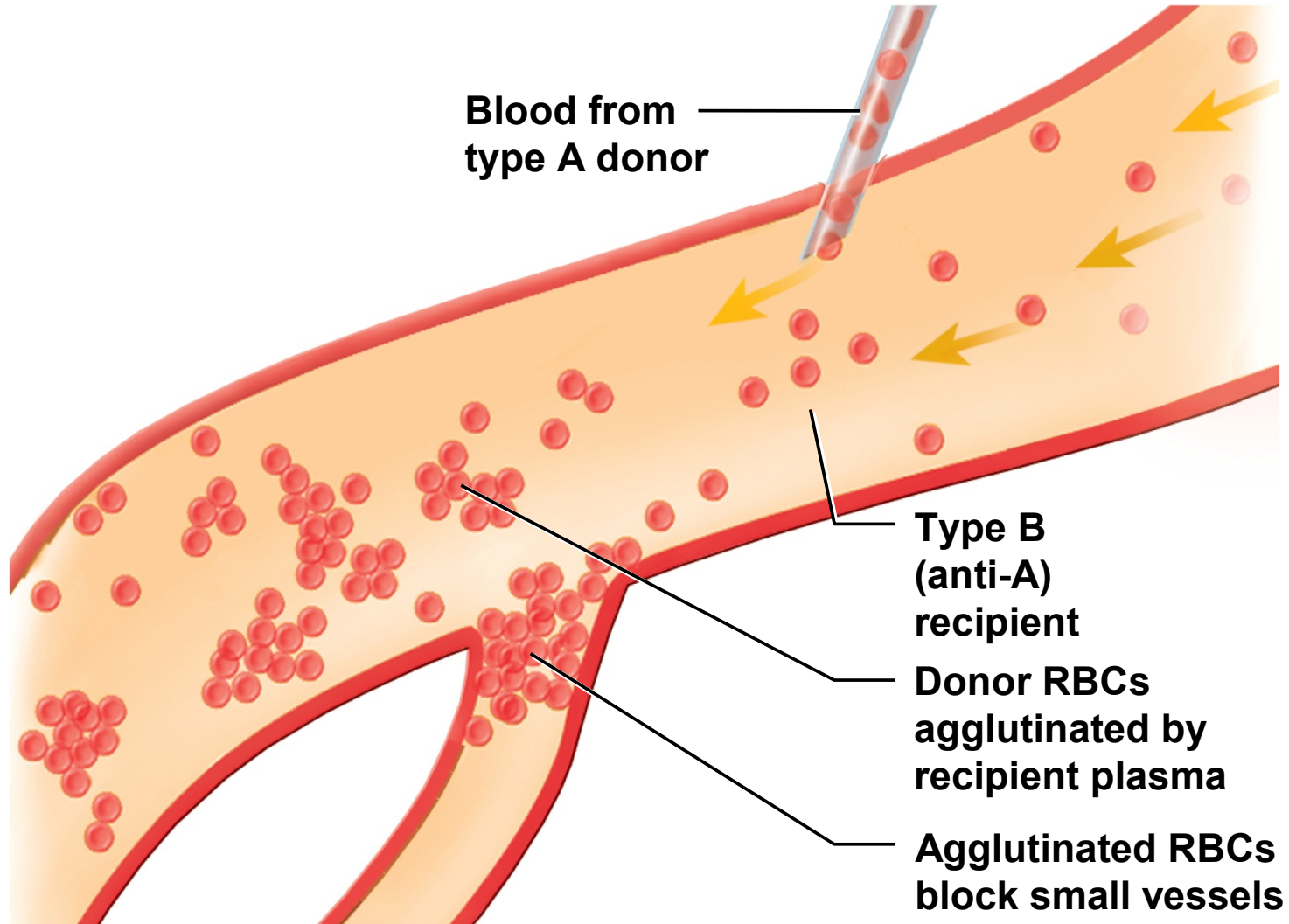


Figure 18.15

Universal Donors and Recipients

- universal donor
 - **Type O** – most common blood type
 - lacks RBC antigens
 - donor's plasma may have both antibodies against recipient's RBCs (anti-A and anti-B)
 - may give packed cells (minimal plasma)
- universal recipient
 - **Type AB** – rarest blood type
 - lacks plasma antibodies; no anti- A or B

Rh Group

- Rh (C,D,E) agglutinogens discovered in rhesus monkey in 1940
 - Rh D is the most reactive and a patient is considered blood type Rh⁺ if they have D antigen (agglutinogens) on RBCs
 - Rh frequencies vary among ethnic groups
- Anti-D agglutinins not normally present
 - form in Rh⁻ individuals exposed to Rh⁺ blood
 - Rh⁻ woman with an Rh⁺ fetus or transfusion of Rh⁺ blood
 - no problems with first transfusion or pregnancy

Hemolytic Disease of Newborn

- occurs if Rh⁻ mother has formed antibodies and is pregnant with second Rh⁺ child
 - Anti-D antibodies can cross placenta
- prevention
 - RhoGAM given to pregnant Rh⁻ women
 - binds fetal agglutinogens in her blood so she will not form Anti-D antibodies

Hemolytic Disease of Newborn

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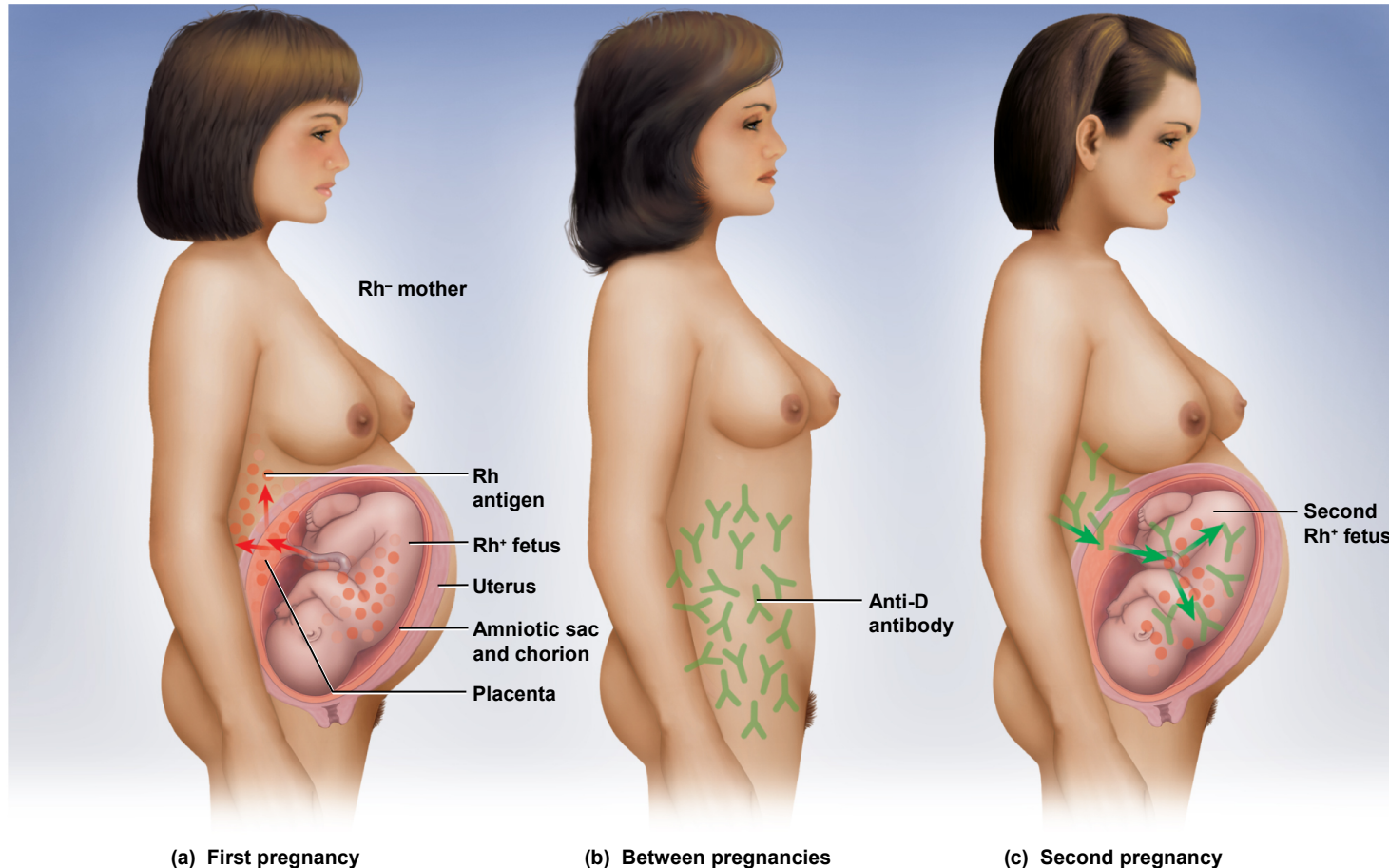


Figure 18.16

- Rh antibodies attack fetal blood causing severe anemia and toxic brain syndrome

Leukocytes (WBCs)

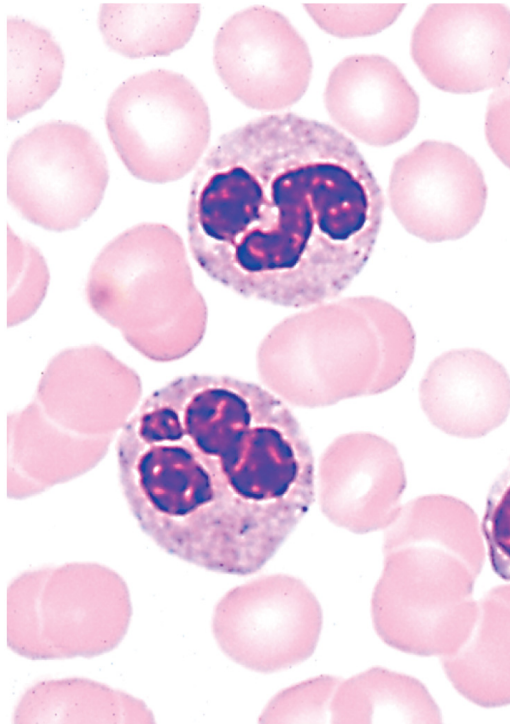
- least abundant formed element
 - 5,000 to 10,000 WBCs/ μ L
- protect against infectious microorganisms and other pathogens
- conspicuous nucleus
- spend only a few hours in the blood stream before migrating to connective tissue
- retain their organelles for protein synthesis
- granules
 - all WBCs have **lysosomes** called nonspecific (azurophilic) granules – inconspicuous so cytoplasm looks clear
 - granulocytes have **specific granules** that contain enzymes and other chemicals employed in defense against pathogens

Types of Leukocytes

- **granulocytes**
 - **neutrophils** (60-70%)-polymorphonuclear leukocytes
 - barely-visible granules in cytoplasm; 3 to 5 lobed nucleus
 - **eosinophils** (2-4%)
 - large rosy-orange granules; bilobed nucleus
 - **basophils** (<1%)
 - large, abundant, violet granules (obscure a large S-shaped nucleus)
- **agranulocytes**
 - **lymphocytes** (25-33%)
 - variable amounts of bluish cytoplasm (scanty to abundant); ovoid/round, uniform dark violet nucleus
 - **monocytes** (3-8%)
 - largest WBC; ovoid, kidney-, or horseshoe- shaped nucleus

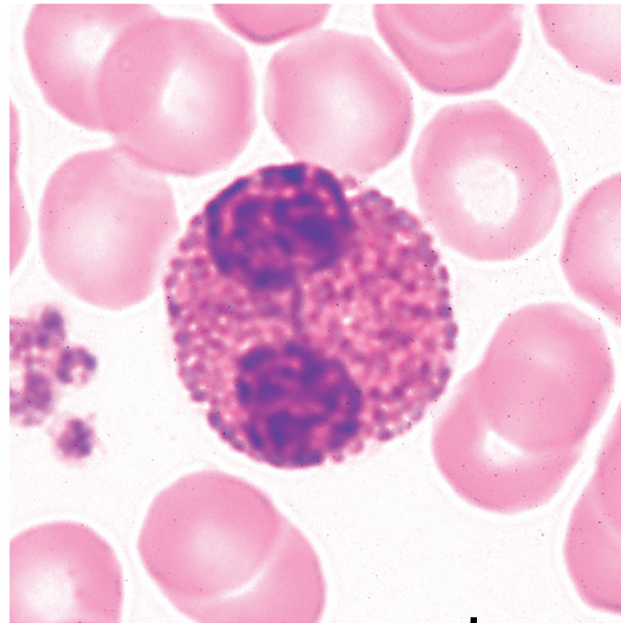
Granulocytes

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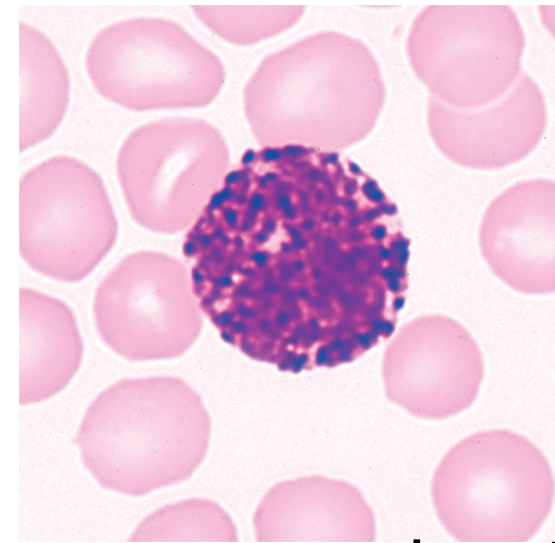
Neutrophils

10 µm



Eosinophil

10 µm



Basophil

10 µm

all: © Ed Reschke

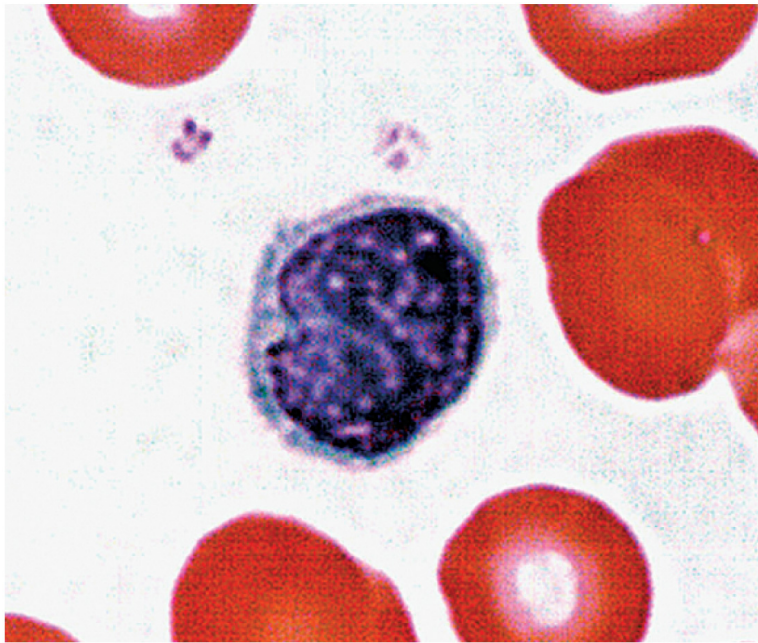
Figure TA 18.1

Figure TA 18.2

Figure TA 18.3

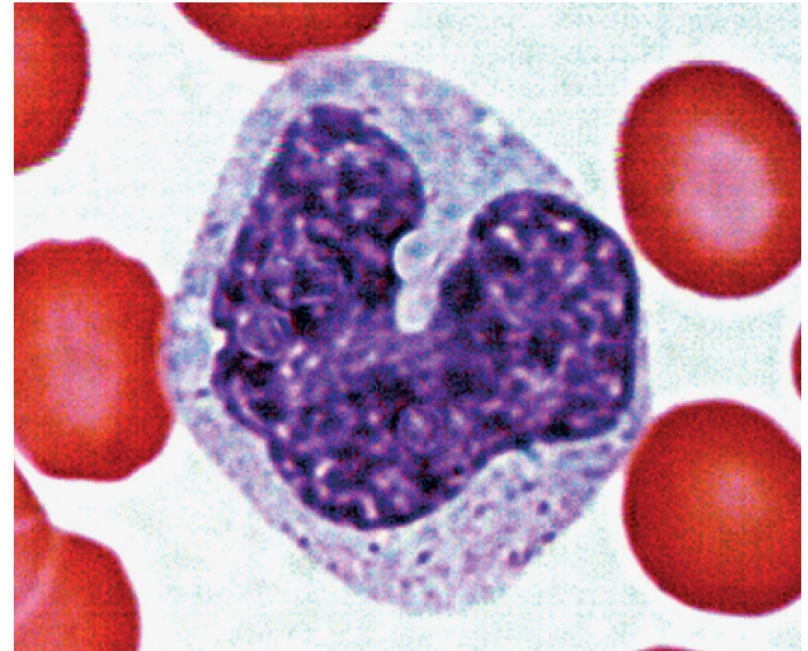
Agranulocytes

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Lymphocyte

10 μm



Monocyte

10 μm

both: Michael Ross/Photo Researchers, Inc.

Figure TA 18.4

Figure TA 18.5

Granulocyte Functions

- **neutrophils** - increased numbers in bacterial infections
 - phagocytosis of bacteria
 - release antimicrobial chemicals
- **eosinophils** - increased numbers in parasitic infections, collagen diseases, allergies, diseases of spleen and CNS
 - phagocytosis of antigen-antibody complexes, allergens, and inflammatory chemicals
 - release enzymes to destroy large parasites
- **basophils** - increased numbers in chicken pox, sinusitis, diabetes)
 - secrete **histamine** (vasodilator) – speeds flow of blood to an injured area
 - secrete **heparin** (anticoagulant) – promotes the mobility of other WBCs in the area

Agranulocyte Functions

- **lymphocytes** - increased numbers in diverse infections and immune responses
 - destroy cells (cancer, foreign, and virally infected cells)
 - “present” antigens to activate other immune cells
 - coordinate actions of other immune cells
 - secrete antibodies and provide immune memory
- **monocytes** - increased numbers in viral infections and inflammation
 - leave bloodstream and transform into macrophages
 - phagocytize pathogens and debris
 - “present” antigens to activate other immune cells - **antigen presenting cells (APCs)**

Complete Blood Count

- Hematocrit
- Hemoglobin concentration
- Total count for RBCs, reticulocytes, WBCs, and platelets
- Differential WBC count
- RBC size and hemoglobin concentration per RBC

Leukocyte Life Cycle

- **leukopoiesis** – production of white blood cells
 - **pluripotent stem cells** – (PPSCs)
 - **myeloblasts** – form neutrophils, eosinophils, basophils
 - **monoblasts** - form monocytes
 - **lymphoblasts** give rise to all forms of lymphocytes
 - T lymphocytes complete development in thymus
- red bone marrow stores and releases granulocytes and monocytes
- circulating WBCs do not stay in bloodstream
 - granulocytes leave in 8 hours and live 5 days longer
 - monocytes leave in 20 hours, transform into macrophages and live for several years
 - lymphocytes provide long-term immunity (decades) being continuously recycled from blood to tissue fluid to lymph and back to the blood

Leukopoiesis

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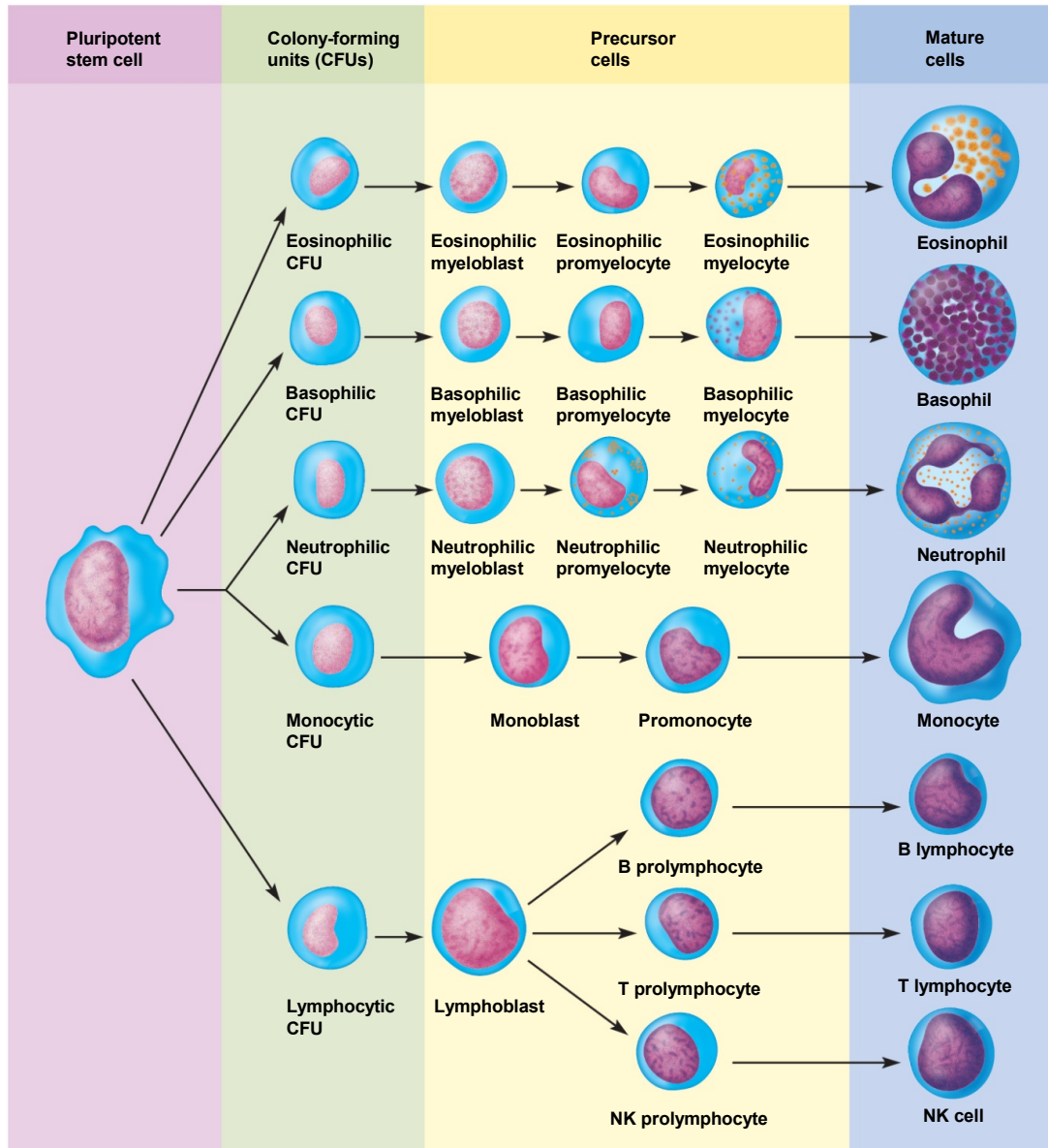


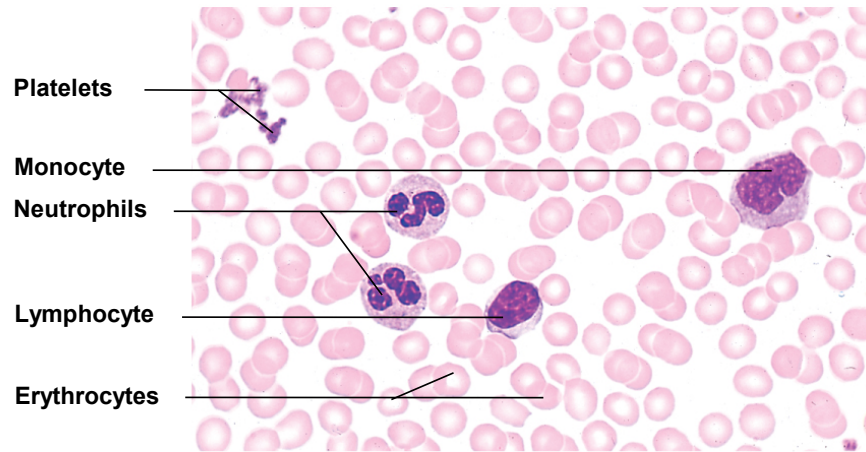
Figure 18.18

Leukocyte Disorders

- **leukopenia** - low WBC count below 5000/ μ L
 - causes: radiation, poisons, infectious disease
 - effects: elevated risk of infection
- **leukocytosis** - high WBC count above 10,000/ μ L
 - causes: infection, allergy and disease
 - differential WBC count – identifies what percentage of the total WBC count consist of each type of leukocyte
- **leukemia** - cancer of hemopoietic tissue that usually produces an extraordinary high number of circulating leukocytes and their precursors
 - **myeloid leukemia** – uncontrolled granulocyte production
 - **lymphoid leukemia** - uncontrolled lymphocyte or monocyte production
 - **acute leukemia** – appears suddenly, progresses rapidly, death within months
 - **chronic leukemia** –undetected for months, survival time three years
 - effects - normal cell percentages disrupted; impaired clotting; opportunistic infections

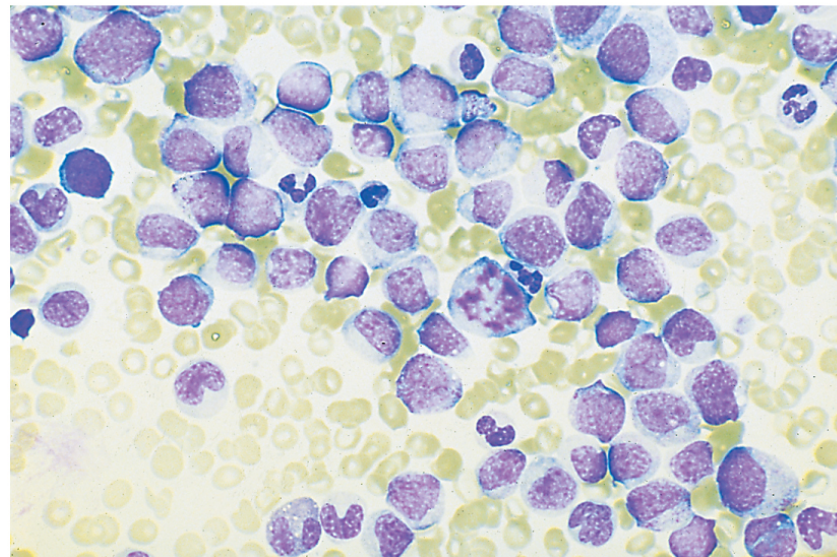
Normal and Leukemic Blood

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(a)

Figure 18.19 a-b



(b)

75 μ m

Hemostasis

- **hemostasis** – the cessation of bleeding
 - stopping potentially fatal leaks
 - hemorrhage – excessive bleeding
- **three hemostatic mechanisms**
 - vascular spasm
 - platelet plug formation
 - blood clotting (coagulation)
- **platelets** play an important role in all three

Platelets

- **platelets** - small fragments of **megakaryocyte** cells
 - 2-4 μm diameter; contain “granules”
 - amoeboid movement and phagocytosis
- normal platelet count - **130,000 to 400,000** platelets/ μL
- functions
 - secrete vasoconstrictors that help reduce blood loss
 - stick together to form **platelet plugs** to seal small breaks
 - secrete **procoagulants** or clotting factors promote clotting
 - initiate formation of **clot-dissolving enzyme**
 - chemically attract neutrophils and monocytes to sites of inflammation
 - phagocytize and destroy bacteria
 - secrete **growth factors** that stimulate mitosis to repair blood vessels

Platelets

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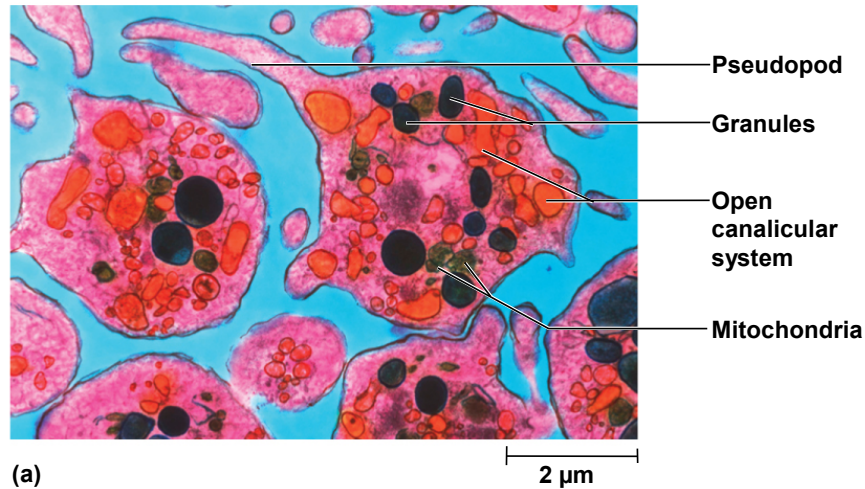
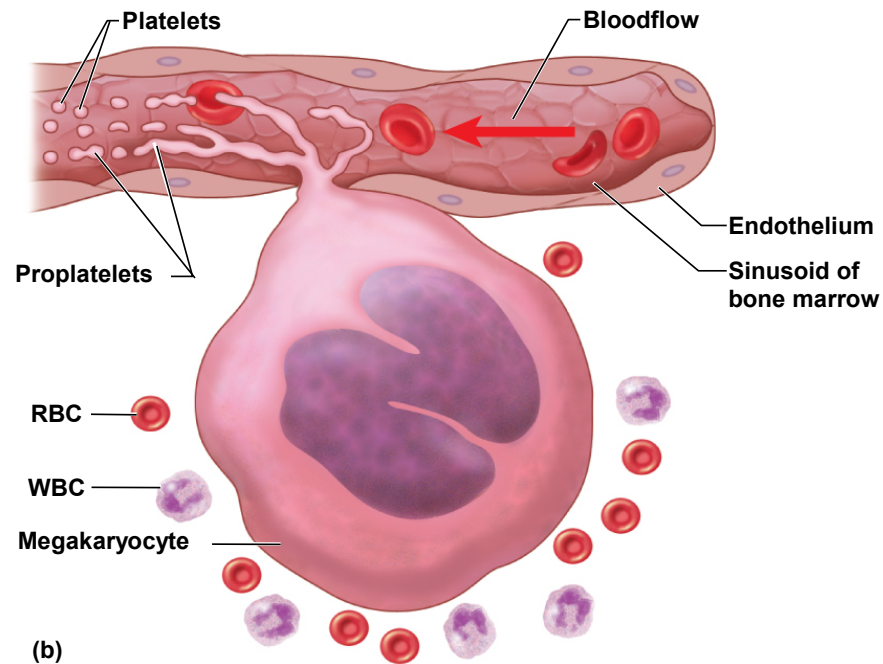


Figure 18.20 a-b

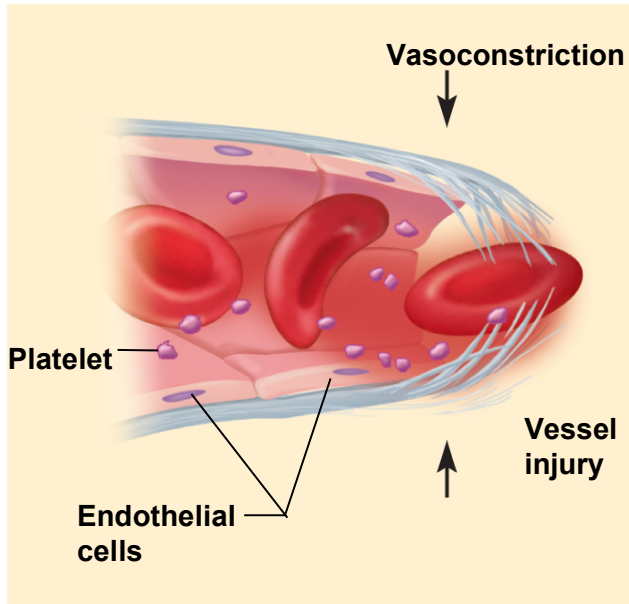


Platelet Production -Thrombopoiesis

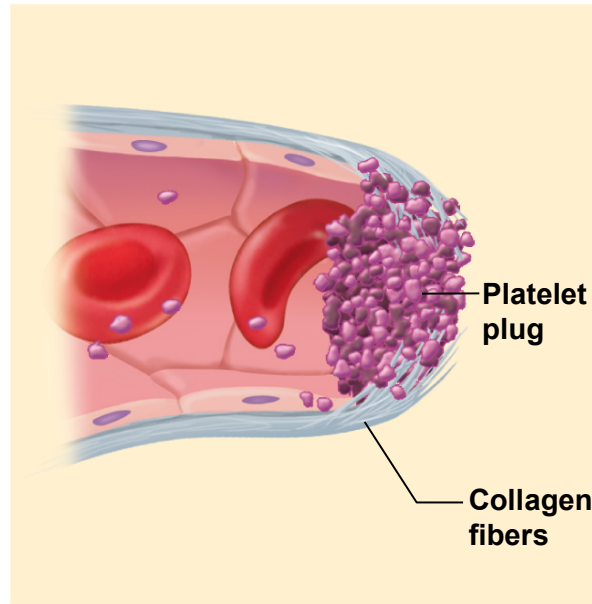
- stem cells (that develop receptors for thrombopoietin) become megakaryoblasts
- **megakaryoblasts**
 - repeatedly replicate DNA without dividing
 - forms gigantic cell called megakaryocyte with a multilobed nucleus
 - 100 μm in diameter, remains in bone marrow
- **megakaryocytes** – live in bone marrow adjacent to blood sinusoids
 - long tendrils of cytoplasm (**proplatelets**) protrude into the blood sinusoids – blood flow splits off fragments called platelets
 - circulate freely for 10 days
 - 40% are stored in spleen

Hemostasis

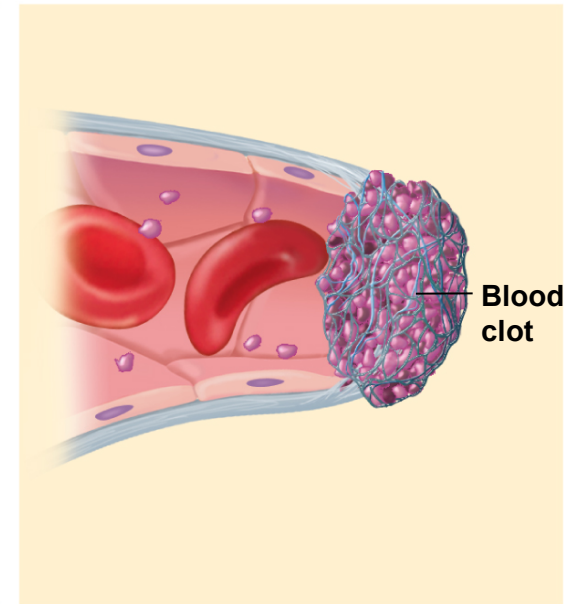
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(a) Vascular spasm



(b) Platelet plug formation



(c) Coagulation

Figure 18.21 a-c

all 3 pathways involve platelets

Hemostasis - Vascular Spasm

- **vascular spasm** - prompt constriction of a broken vessel
 - most immediate protection against blood loss
- **causes:**
 - pain receptors
 - some directly innervate blood vessels to constrict
 - smooth muscle injury
 - platelets release serotonin (vasoconstrictor)
- **effects:**
 - prompt constriction of a broken vessel
 - pain receptors - short duration (minutes)
 - smooth muscle injury - longer duration
 - provides time for other two clotting pathways

Hemostasis -Platelet Plug Formation

- endothelium smooth, coated with **prostacyclin** – a platelet repellant
- platelet plug formation
 - broken vessel exposes collagen
 - platelet **pseudopods** stick to damaged vessel and other platelets - pseudopods contract and draw walls of vessel together forming a platelet plug
 - platelets **degranulate** releasing a variety of substances
 - serotonin is a vasoconstrictor
 - ADP attracts and degranulates more platelets
 - thromboxane A_2 , an eicosanoid, promotes platelet aggregation, degranulation and vasoconstriction
 - positive feedback cycle is active until break in small vessel is sealed

Hemostasis - Coagulation

- **coagulation** (clotting) – last and most effective defense against bleeding
 - conversion of plasma protein **fibrinogen** into insoluble **fibrin threads** to form framework of clot
- **procoagulants** (clotting factors), usually produced by the liver, are present in plasma
 - activate one factor and it will activate the next to form a **reaction cascade**
- **extrinsic pathway**
 - factors released by damaged tissues begin cascade
- **intrinsic pathway**
 - factors found in blood begin cascade (platelet degranulation)

SEM of Blood Clot

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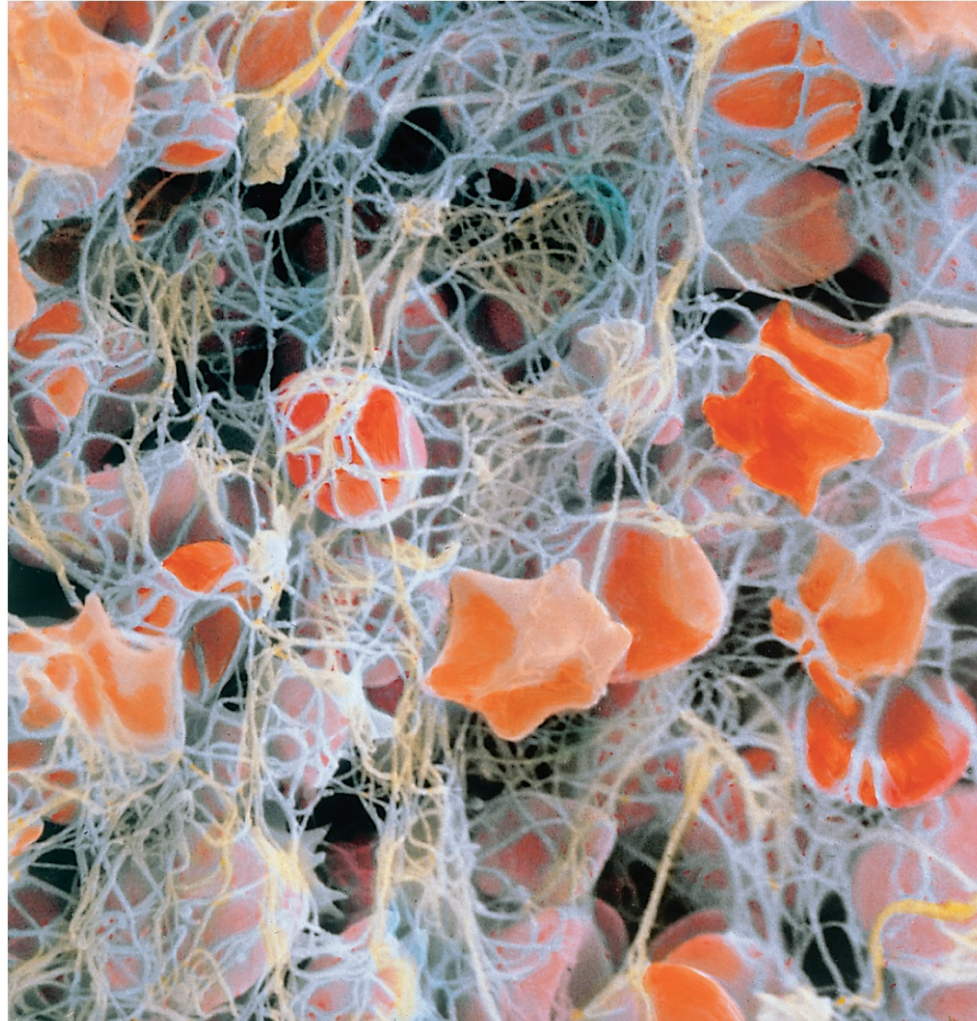
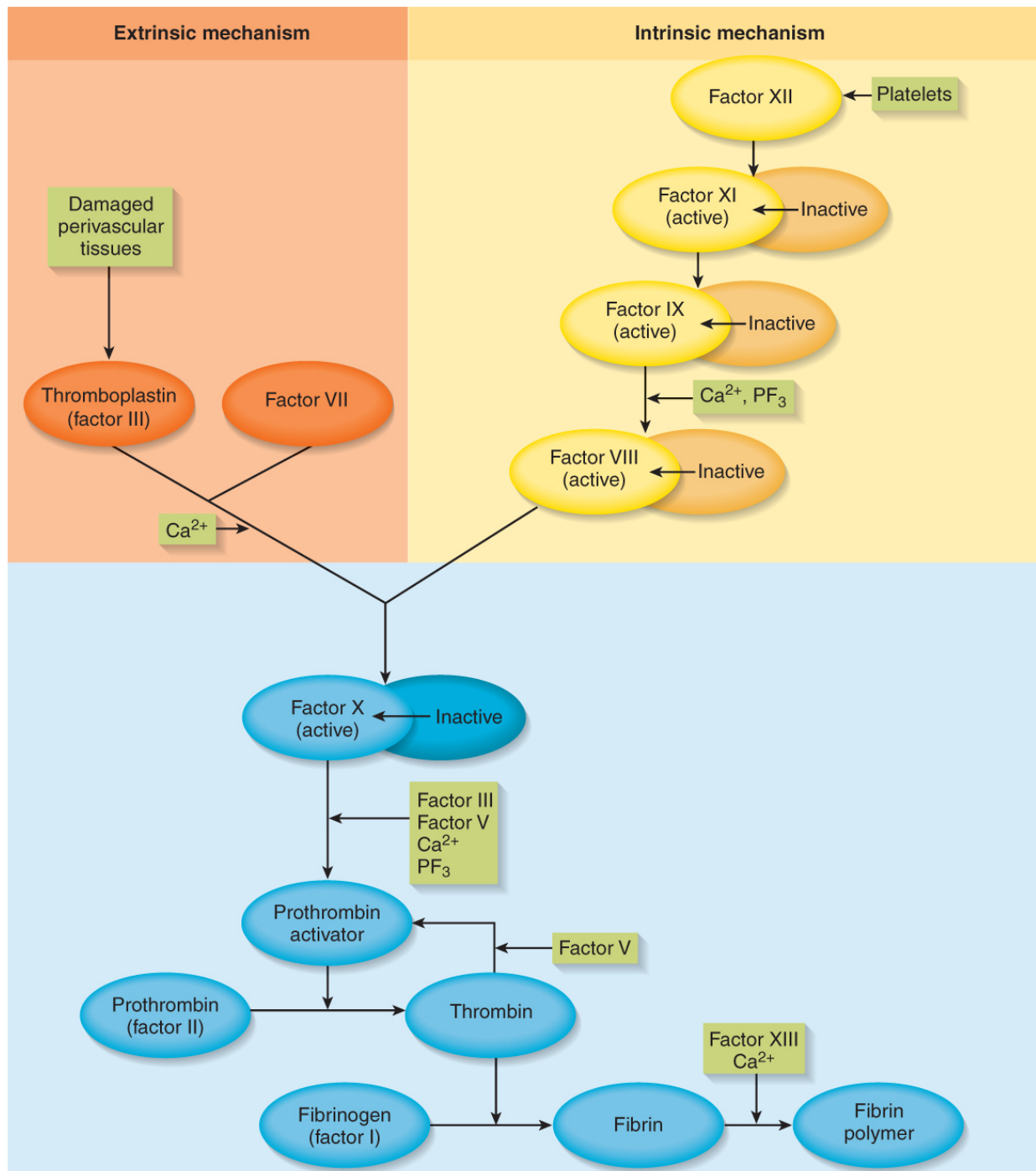


Figure 18.22

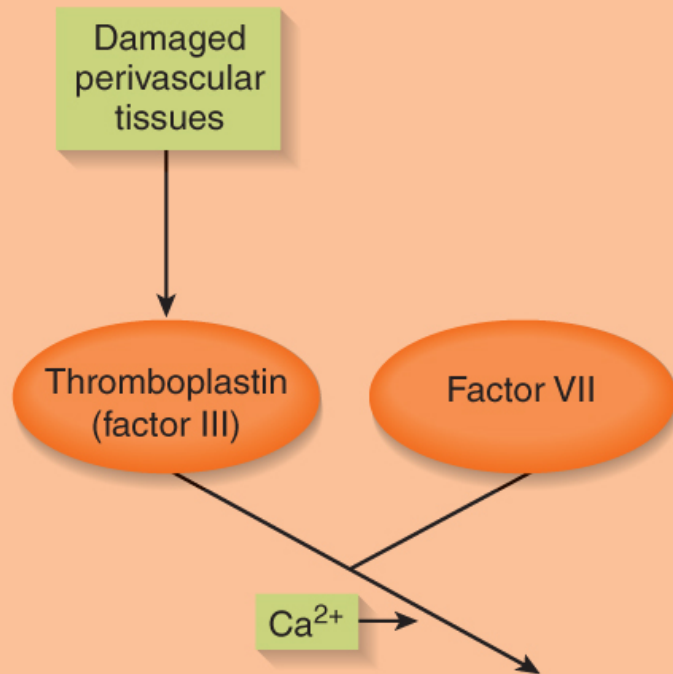
© P. Motta/SPL/Photo Researchers, Inc.

Coagulation Pathways

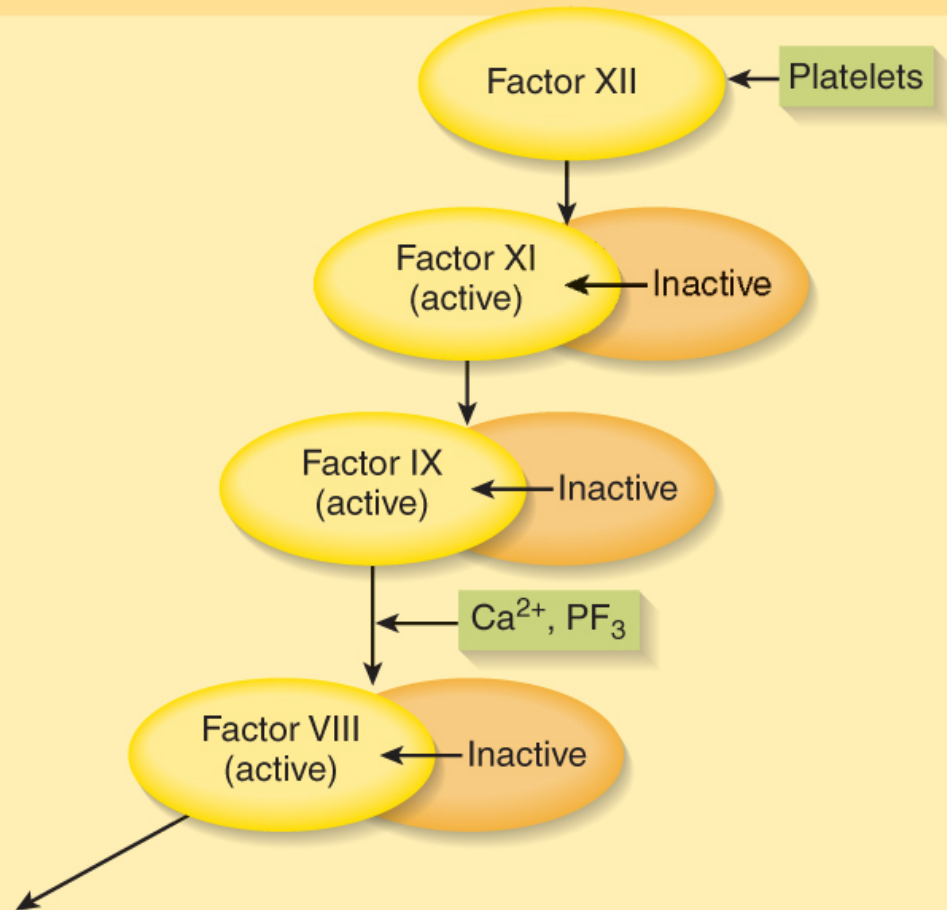
- **extrinsic pathway**
 - initiated by release of **tissue thromboplastin** (factor III) from damaged tissue
 - cascade to factor VII, V and X (fewer steps)
- **intrinsic pathway**
 - initiated by platelets releasing **Hageman factor** (factor XII)
 - cascade to factor XI to IX to VIII to X
- **calcium** required for either pathway

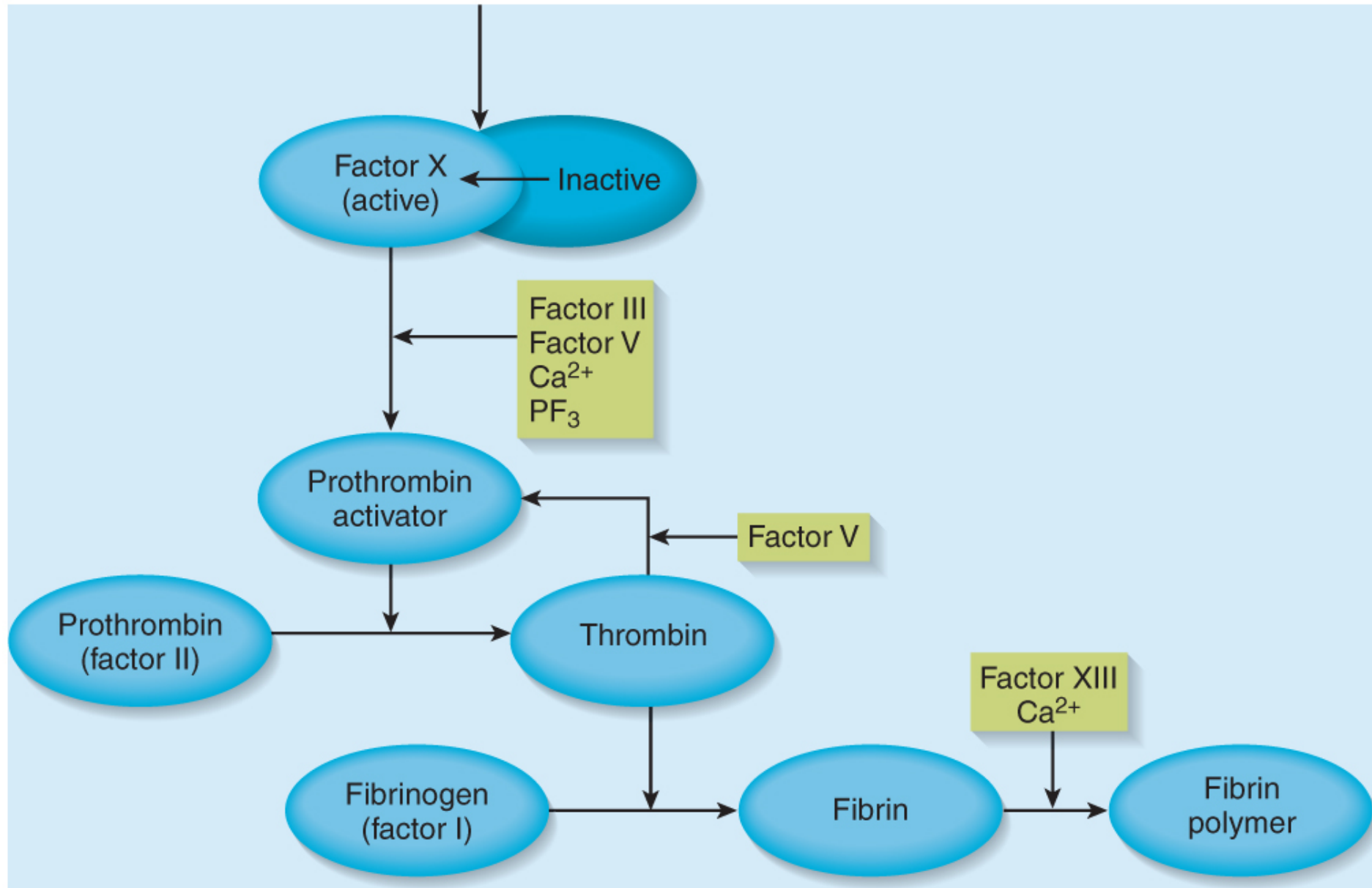


Extrinsic mechanism



Intrinsic mechanism

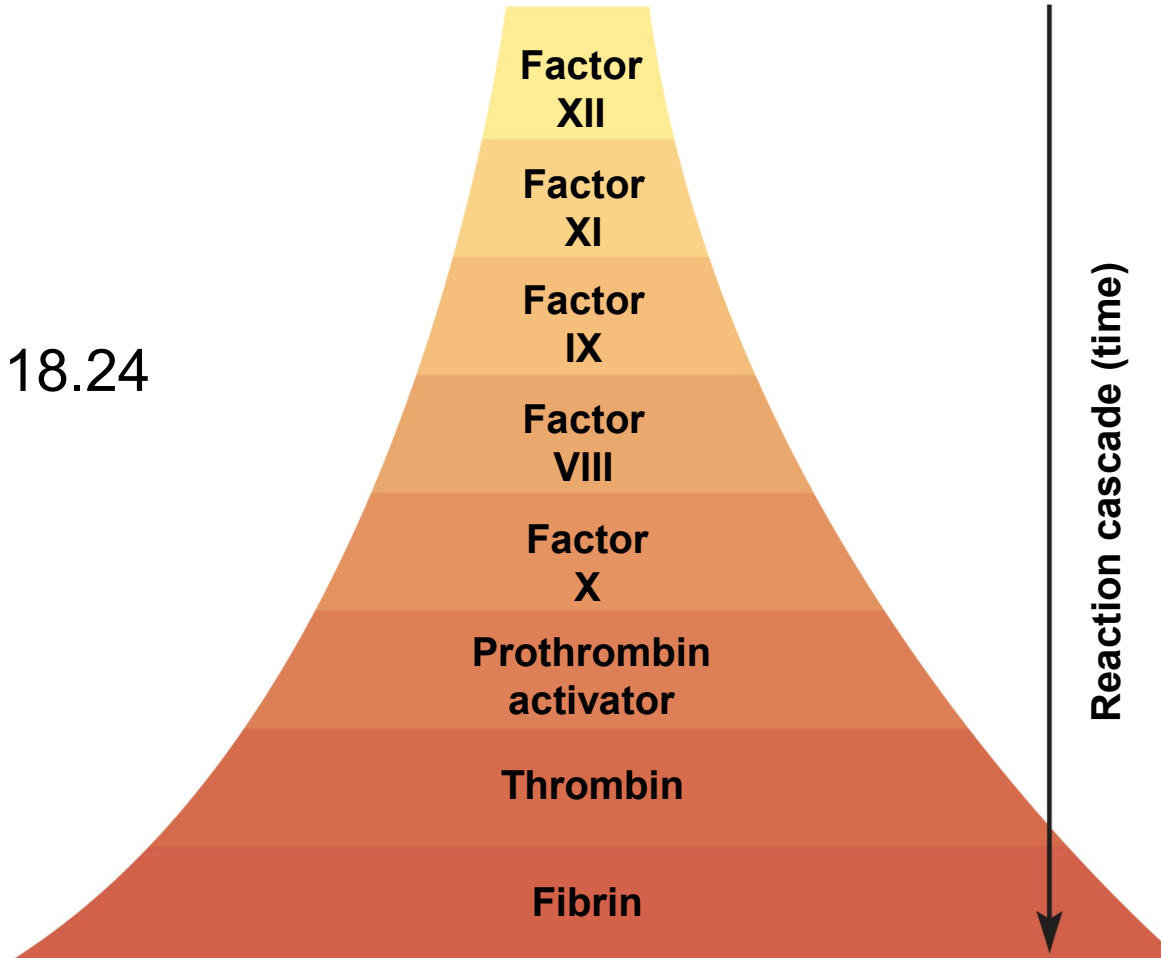




Enzyme Amplification in Clotting

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Figure 18.24



rapid clotting - each activated cofactor activates many more molecules in next step of sequence

Completion of Coagulation

- activation of factor X
 - leads to production of prothrombin activator
- prothrombin activator
 - converts **prothrombin** to **thrombin**
- **thrombin**
 - converts **fibrinogen** into **fibrin**
- **positive feedback** - thrombin speeds up formation of prothrombin activator

Fate of Blood Clots

- **clot retraction** occurs within 30 minutes
- **platelet-derived growth factor** secreted by platelets and endothelial cells
 - mitotic stimulant for fibroblasts and smooth muscle to multiply and repair damaged vessel
- **fibrinolysis** - dissolution of a clot
 - factor XII speeds up formation of **kallikrein** enzyme
 - kallikrein converts **plasminogen** into **plasmin**, a fibrin-dissolving enzyme that breaks up the clot

Prevention of Inappropriate Clotting

- **platelet repulsion**
 - platelets do not adhere to prostacyclin-coating
- **thrombin dilution**
 - by rapidly flowing blood
 - heart slowing in shock can result in clot formation
- **natural anticoagulants**
 - **heparin** (from basophils and mast cells) interferes with formation of prothrombin activator
 - **antithrombin** (from liver) deactivates thrombin before it can act on fibrinogen

Clotting Disorders - Hemophilia

- deficiency of any clotting factor can shut down the coagulation cascade
- **hemophilia** – family of hereditary diseases characterized by deficiencies of one factor or another
- sex-linked recessive (on X chromosome)
 - **hemophilia A** missing factor VIII (83% of cases)
 - **hemophilia B** missing factor IX (15% of cases)

note: **hemophilia C** missing factor XI (autosomal)

- physical exertion causes bleeding and excruciating pain
 - transfusion of plasma or purified clotting factors
 - factor VIII produced by transgenic bacteria
- **hematomas** – masses of clotted blood in the tissues

Coagulation Disorders

- **thrombosis** - abnormal clotting in unbroken vessel
 - **thrombus** - clot
 - most likely to occur in leg veins of inactive people
 - **pulmonary embolism** - clot may break free, travel from veins to lungs
- **embolus** – anything that can travel in the blood and block blood vessels
- **infarction** (tissue death) may occur if clot blocks blood supply to an organ (MI or stroke)
 - 650,000 Americans die annually of thromboembolism – traveling blood clots

Clinical Management of Clotting

- **goal** - prevent formation of clots or dissolve existing clots
- **preventing clots**
 - Vitamin K is required for formation of clotting factors
 - coumarin (Coumadin) is a vitamin K antagonist
 - **aspirin** suppresses thromboxane A_2
 - other anticoagulants discovered in animal research
 - medicinal leeches used since 1884 (hirudin)
 - snake venom from vipers (Arvin)

Clinical Management of Clotting

- **dissolving clots that have already formed**
 - **streptokinase** – enzyme made by streptococci bacteria
 - used to dissolve clots in coronary vessels
 - digests almost any protein
 - **tissue plasminogen activator (TPA)** – works faster, is more specific, and now made by transgenic bacteria
 - **hementin** – produced by giant Amazon leech