PHYSIOLOGY OF BLOOD

FUNCTIONS OF BLOOD

HOMEOSTATIC FUNCTION

buffering

thermoregulation (transport of heat)

TRANSPORT OF SUBSTANCES

(blood gases, nutrients, metabolites, vitamins, electrolytes...)
HUMORAL CONTROL OF ORGANISM (hormones)
DEFENCE OF ORGANISM (immune functions)

BLOOD CLOTTING

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

- •Suspension character
- •6 8% total body mass
- •55% fluid phase (plasma)



- •45% **formed** phase (blood cells and platelets)
- •Serum: from plasma during blood clotting after consumption of
- fibrinogen

BONE MARROW

Size (1600-3000 grams), activity.

Red bone marrow, yellow bone marrow.

Pluripotent stem cells.

Unipotent (determined) stem cells – differentiated cells.

Extra-medullar haematopoiesis – liver, lien – CHILDREN.

Medullar haematopoiesis – ADULTS.

Bone marrow examination – punction. Bone marrow diseases. Bone marrow transplantation.



Silverthorn, D. U. Human Physiology – an Integrated Approach. 6th. edition. Pearson Education, Inc. 2012.





Section of yellow bone marrow. This bone marrow is yellow in its fresh state because of the abundance of vellowish adipocvtes present. The hemopoietic (*) comparatively less tissue is abundant than in red bone marrow. The adipocytes, or fat cells, (Ad) appear as large circular clear spaces in this field. A megakaryocyte (M) and venous sinuses (S) are also labelled. Source:

http://audilab.bmed.mcgill.ca/HA/ht ml/blood_7_E.html

This bone marrow is referred to as red marrow because it contains few adipocytes, or fat cells, among an abundance of hemopoietic cells. It is difficult to identify the individual precursors of red and white blood cells because they are closely packed and condensed during the fixation of the tissue (*).

The following elements are identified: a megakaryocyte (M), which is a very large polyploid cell responsible for the production of blood platelets one adipocyte (Ad) two blood sinuses (S).

The walls of these vessels are the sites where newly formed erythrocytes and leukocytes pass from the connective tissue into the blood circulation.



Source: Wikimedia Commons

BLOOD CELLS

Cells	Cells /µl (average)	Normal range	Percent of total number of leukocytes
Leukocytes (total)	9000	3600 - 9600	White blood cell count
<i>Granulocytes</i> Neutrophiles	5400	3000 - 6000	42 – 75
Eozinophiles	275	150 - 300	1 - 4
Basophiles	35	0 - 100	0,4
Agranulocytes Lymphocytes	2750	1200 - 3400	20 - 50
Monocytes	540	110 - 590	1,7 – 9,3
Erythrocytes woman		4,2-5,4.106	
men		4,5 - 6,3 . 10 ⁶	
Platelets	300 000	140000 - 440000	

RED BLOOD CELLS (ERYTHROCYTES)

		Men	Women
Hematocrit (Hct) (%)		47	42
Erythrocytes (RBC) (10 ⁶ /µl)		4,5 - 6,3 x10 ⁶	$4,2-5,4x10^{6}$
Haemoglobin (Hb) (g/l)		140 - 180	120 - 160
Mean volume of ery (MCV) (fl)	= Hct x 10 / RBC (10 ⁶ /µl)	82 - 97	82 - 97
Mean content of Hb in ery (MCH) (pg)	= Hb x 10 / RBC (10 ⁶ /µl)	27 - 33	27 - 33
Mean concentration of Hb in ery (g/100ml)	= Hb x 100 / Hct	32 - 36	32 - 36
Mean diameter of ery (MCD) (µm)		7,5	7,5

Function of erythrocytes: blood gases transport

RED BLOOD CELL EXAMINATION

1. Red blood cell count

- normocytemia
- erytrocytopenia (oligocytemia)
- polyglobulia (polycytemia)
- **2.** Concentration of haemoglobin
- anaemia

3. Hematocrit

SHAPE AND SIZE OF ERYTHROCYTES

Shape: biconcave disc OPTIMAL RATIO OF SURFACE TO VOLUME!!! By 30% larger surface in comparison with the cell of the same size but of round shape!!!

Anizocytosis – physiological, pathological. Price-Jones curve.

Size: 7,5 μ m in diameter, 2 μ m thickness – normocytes. Microcytes (-osis): diameter below 6 μ m, volume below 80 fl Macrocytes (-osis), megalocytes: diameter above 8.2 μ m, volume above 95 fl

Amount of haemoglobin in one red blood cell: hypochromia (below 27 pg Hb/ery), normochromia, hyperchromia

Deformation of red blood cells. Fahraeus-Lindqvist effect.

Gallagher PG: Abnormalities of the Erythrocyte Membrane. Pediatric Clinics of North America 2013, 60(6):1349-+.

- 1. Transport proteins
- 2. Cell adhesion proteins
- 3. Structural proteins



Fig. 1. The erythrocyte membrane. A model of the major proteins of the erythrocyte membrane is shown: α - and β -spectrin, ankyrin, band 3 (the anion exchanger), 4.1 (protein 4.1) and 4.2 (protein 4.2), actin and glycophorin. (*From* Perrotta S, Gallagher PG, Mohandas N. Hereditary spherocytosis. Lancet 2008;372:1412; with permission.)

- Glycophorins A and B
 - major sialoglycoproteins of the human erythrocyte membrane which bear the antigenic determinants for the MN and Ss blood groups (MNS blood group)
- Spectrin
 - the most prominent component (two isoforms α,β; a tetramer; a meshwork)
 - fixed to the membrane ankyrin binding sites for several other proteins (glycophorin C, actin, band 4.1, adducin)
- This organization keeps the erythrocyte shape.

Transport proteins

- Band 3 (Diego Blood group)
 - mediating the exchange of chloride (CI⁻) for bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻) across a plasma membrane
- Aquaporin 1 = water channel (Colton Blood Group)
- GLUT1
- Jk antigen
 - on a protein responsible for urea transport in the red blood cells and the kidney (aka human urea transporter 11- HUT11 or UT-B1)
- Rh-associated glycoprotein (RHAG) (Rh Blood Group)
 - an ammonia transporter protein
- Na+/K+-ATPase
- Ca²⁺-ATPase
- Na-K-CI cotransporter
- Sodium-chloride symporter
- Chloride potassium symporter
- Potassium intermediate/small conductance calcium-activated channel (Gardos channel)

Cell adhesion proteins

- ICAM-4 (Landsteiner and Wiener Blood System)
- BCAM = Basal cell adhesion molecule (Lutheran blood group)

Structural proteins

- Establish linkages with skeletal proteins
- Regulating cohesion
- Ankyrin-based macromolecular complex
- Protein 4.1R-based macromolecular complex
 - Protein 4.1 (Beatty's Protein)
 - Glycophorins C and D (Gerbich Blood Group)
 - XK (Kell blood group precursor) (Kell Blood Group)
 - RhD/RhCE (Rh Blood Group)
 - Duffy antigen/chemokine receptor (DARC)
 - Alpha-adducin
 - Dematin

Erythrocyte exceptions

They lack organelles

- no ATP production in oxidative phosphorylation
- no ability to replace damaged lipids and proteins (low metabolic activities, with no ability to synthesize new proteins or lipids)

Free radicals exposure

- haemoglobin autoxidation (O₂ release)
- a cell membrane rich in polyunsaturated fatty acids (susceptible to lipid peroxidation)
- deformation in tiny capillaries; catalytic ions leakage (cause of lipid peroxidation)

Erythrocyte metabolism

1. **Glucose as a source of energy** (GLUT1 transporter, insulin-independent)

2. **Glycolysis generates ATP and 2,3bisphosphoglycerate** (the specific binding of 2,3-BPG to deoxyhemoglobin decreases the oxygen affinity of hemoglobin and facilites oxygen release in tissues)

3. The pentose phosphate pathway produces NADPH

4. Glutathione synthesis - the antioxidant defence system





Figure 1. Cascade of events initiated by the entrance of erythrocytes into a tissue region (dashed oval) in which oxygen demand exceeds oxygen supply. [For clarity, a single crythrocyte (REC) is enlarged along with the associated vascular cells to show the events that occur following the entrance of an erythrocyte into the region class the events that occur following the entrance of an erythrocyte single arythrocytes that perfuse the tissue region to decrease proportionally. This decrease in oxygen content initiates a series of events resulting in the release of ATP from the erythrocyte. The ATP then diffuses to the endothelium (Endo) where it binds to purinergic (P₂) receptors resulting in the production of vascative mediators, either within the endothelium or the smooth muscle (SMC), which initiate vasodilation. This vasodilation is conducted (dashed arrow) in a retrograde fashion increasing flow and thus oxygen supply to the tissue region in need.



Figure 2. Proposed pathway for regulated ATP release from erythrocytes in response to passage of these cells through areas of increased oxygen demand in skeletal muscle. The increase in oxygen demand leads to oxygen release from hemoglobin within the erythrocyte. Consequently, hemoglobin oxygen content decreases resulting in activation of the heterotrimeric G protein, Gi, leading to ATP release. ATP released from the erythrocyte can bind to purinergic receptors (P_{2y}) on the vascular endothelium resulting in the release of vasodilators and, ultimately, an increase in blood flow (oxygen delivery). Abbreviations: Gi and Gs = heterotrimeric G proteins - i = inhibitory, s = stimulatory; ATP = adenosine 5'-triphosphate; cAMP = 3'5'-cyclic adenosine monophosphate; Hb = hemoglobin; PKA = protein kinase A; CFTR = cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator; ? = an as yet unidentified mechanism; $P_{2y} = P_{2y}$ purinergic receptor; \pm = stimulation.

Sprague RS, Stephenson AH, Ellsworth ML: **Red not dead: signaling in and from** erythrocytes. *TRENDS in Endocrinology and Metabolism 2007, 18(9):350-355.*

Poikilocytes – drop-like erythrocytes

Schizocytes – fragmented erythrocytes

Spherocytes – volume normal, diameter smaller, thickness bigger

Eliptocytes – ecliptic shape

Leptocytes – thin, centrally concentrated haemoglobin

(thalasemia, after splenectomy)

Akantocytes – prickly prominences



FRAGILITY OF ERYTHROCYTES

Haemolysis – destruction of red blood cell membrane.

Types of haemolysis:

- a) physical
- b) chemical
- c) osmotic
- d) biological (toxic)
- e) immunological

Spherocytosis

 disorders of protein net responsible for shape and elasticity of erythrocyte membrane – actin, ankyrin, spectrin.
 Disorders of glucose-6-phosphate-dehydrogenase .

Erythrocytes life span: 120 days, role of lien (double circulation), splenectomy. **Reticulocytes**.



Fig. 2. Peripheral blood smears in hereditary spherocytosis. (A) Typical hereditary spherocytosis. Characteristic spherocytes lacking central pallor are seen. (B) Severe, recessively inherited spherocytosis. Numerous small, dense spherocytes and bizarre erythrocyte morphology with anisocytosis and poikilocytosis associated with severe hemolysis are seen.

Table 1 Classification of here	editary spheroc	ytosis		
	Carrier	Mild Spherocytosis	Moderate Spherocytosis	Severe Spherocytosis ^a
Hemoglobin (g/dL)	Normal	11–15	8–12	6–8
Reticulocytes (%)	≤3	3–6	≥6	≥10
Bilirubin (mg/dL)	0–1	1–2	≥2	≥ 2
Spectrin content (% of normal)	100	80–100	50-80	40–60
Peripheral smear	Normal	Mild spherocytosis	Spherocytosis	Spherocytosis
Osmotic fragility fresh blood	Normal	Normal or slightly increased	Distinctly increased	Distinctly increased
Incubated blood	Slightly increased	Distinctly increased	Distinctly increased	Distinctly increased

^a Values in untransfused patients.

From Eber SW, Armbrust R, Schroter W. Variable clinical severity of hereditary spherocytosis: relation to erythrocytic spectrin concentration, osmotic fragility, and autohemolysis. J Pediatr 1990;117:409–16.

Gallagher PG: Abnormalities of the Erythrocyte Membrane. Pediatric Clinics of North America 2013, 60(6):1349-+. Sedimentation rate indirectly corresponds to suspension stability of blood.

Method of Fahreus-Westergren (FW).

Physiological values: men – women
Units: mm/10min, 1 hr, 2 hrs, 24 hrs
Physiological causes of increased sedimentation.
Pathological causes of increased sedimentation.



THE BLOOD COUNT

This table lists the normal ranges of values.



	MALES	FEMALES
Hematocrit		
Hematocrit is the percentage of total blood volume that is occupied by packed (centrifuged) red blood cells.	40–54%	37–47%
Hemoglobin (g Hb/dL* whole blood)		
The hemoglobin value reflects the oxygen-carrying capacity of red blood cells. (*1 deciliter (dL) = 100 mL)	14–17	12–16
Red cell count (cells/µL)		
A machine counts erythrocytes as they stream through a beam of light.	4.5–6.5 × 10 ³	3.9–5.6 × 10 ³
Total white count (cells/µL)		
A total white cell count includes all types of leukocytes but does not distinguish between them.	4–11 × 10 ³	4–11 × 10 ³
Differential white cell count		
The differential white cell count presents estimates of the relative proportions of the five types of leukocytes in a thin blood smear stained with biological dyes.		
Neutrophils	50–70%	50-70%
Eosinophils	1–4%	1-4%
Basophils	<1%	<1%
Lymphocytes	20-40%	20-40%
Monocytes	2-8%	2–8%
Platelets (per µL)		
Platelet count is suggestive of the blood's ability to clot.	150–450 × 10 ³	150–450 × 10 ³

Fig. 16.3

Silverthorn, D. U. Human Physiology – an Integrated Approach. 6th. edition. Pearson Education, Inc. 2012.

Table 2. Factors causing false changes in Erythrocyte Sedimentation Kate

Factors causing false increases	Factors causing false decreases
Increased fibrinogen, globulin, cholesterol levels	Cachexia
High room temperature	Coagulation of the blood sample
Macrocytic anemia	Increase in bile salts
Menstruation	Increase in phospholipids
Pregnancy	Making the sedimentation sample wait more than two hours
Tilting or lying down of the ESR tube	Increase in adrenal steroids
Drugs: Dextrane, methyldopa, methysergide, penicillamine, procainamide,	Hypofibrinogenemia
teophylline, trifluoperidole, vitamin A	Hyperglycemia
	Hyperalbuminemia
	Leukocytosis
	Microcytic anemia
	Drugs: ACTH, cortisone, ethambutol, quinine, salicylates

(Adapted from A Textbook of Natural Medicine, Pizzorno and Murray, 1992)

Increased ESR	Decreased ESR
Acute Heavy Metal Poisoning	Congestive heart failure
Collagen Vascular Disease	Polycythemia
Carcinomas	Sickle Cell Anemia
Cell or tissue injury	
Gout arthritis	
Infections	
Inflammatory disorders	
Leukemia	
Myocardial infarction	
Nephritis	
Syphilis	

Table 3. Factors affecting Erythrocyte Sedimentation Rate (ESR)

(Adapted from A Textbook of Natural Medicine, Pizzorno and Murray, 1992)





Red pigment transporting oxygen. Protein, 64 450, 4 subunits.

Hem – derivative of porphyrine containing iron, conjugated with polypeptides (globin).

Embryonic haemoglobin: Gower I a Gower II ($\tau 2\epsilon 2$, $\alpha 2\epsilon 2$), Portland Fetal haemoglobin: Hb F, $\beta 2\gamma 2$, weaker binding of 2,3 DPG Adult haemoglobin: Hb A, $\alpha 2\beta 2$ (141/146)

Forms of haemoglobin: oxyhaemoglobin - O_2 carbaminohaemoglobin - CO_2 methaemoglobin - Fe^{3+} in hem carboxyhaemoglobin - CO









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Abnormalities of haemoglobin production

haemoglobinopathy (abnormal structure of chains)
thalasemia (lower production of normal chains)

•Sickle cell anaemia (Hb J)

Synthesis and destruction of haemoglobin

Hem: glycin a succinyl-CoA Globin: AMK Hem - globin: biliverdin, bilirubin (lumirubin – photo-therapy), bil

TABLE 32–3 Partial amino acid composition of normal human β chain, and some hemoglobins with abnormal β chains.^a

		Positions on Polypeptide Chain of Hemoglobin					
Hemoglobin	123	67	26	63	67	121	146
A (normal)	Val-His-Leu	Glu-Glu	Glu	His	Val	Glu	His
S (sickle cell)		Val					
С		Lys					
G _{San Jose}		Gly					
E			Lys				
M _{Saskatoon}				Tyr			
M _{Milwaukee}					Glu		
O _{Arabia}						Lys	

^aOther hemoglobins have abnormal α chains. Abnormal hemoglobins that are very similar electrophoretically but differ slightly in composition are indicated by the same letter and a subscript indicating the geographic location where they were first discovered; hence, M_{Saskatoon} and M_{Milwaukee}.

Clinical aspects - Glycosylated haemoglobin (HbA₁)

- formed by hemoglobin's exposure to high plasma levels of glucose
- non-enzymatic glycolysation (glycation)- sugar bonding to a protein
- normal level HbA₁- 5%; a buildup of HbA₁- increased glucose concentration
- the HbA₁ level is proportional to average blood glucose concentration over previous weeks; in individuals with poorly controlled diabetes, increases in the quantities of these glycated hemoglobins are noted (patients monitoring)



ERYTHROPOETIN

- Glycoprotein, 39 000, α 2-globulin.
- Recombinant erythropoetin.
- Small amount in plasma, urine, lymph, foetal blood.
- Inactivation: liver
- Origin: kidneys (85-90%) endothelial cells of peri-tubular capillaries in kidney core, liver (10-15%)
- Stimulation of release: tissue hypoxia of any origin, alkalosis, cobalt salts, androgens, catecholamines (β -receptors)
- Effects:
- Erythropoetin responsive cell differentiation into erythroid line: increase of synthesis of nucleic acids, increase of iron absorption in erythroid cells, stimulation of cells release from bone marrow into circulation

Acclimation – adaptation to high altitude

EPO and brain



FIGURE 1. Expression pattern of Epo/EpoR in the brain Whereas Epo expression is restricted to astrocytes and neurons, EpoR is expressed on the surface of endothelial cells, microglia, astrocytes, oligodendrocytes, and neurons. Epo is thought to act in an autocrine as well as paracrine manner.

Table 1. Functions of Epo				
Function	Description			
Neuroprotection	Infusion of soluble EpoR into the brain of gerbils, subjected to a mild form of ischemia, caused neu- ronal death in the hippocampus.			
Neurotrophic factor	Regeneration of septal cholinergic neurons in adult rats, which had undergone fimbria-fornix transections. Promotion of the survival and differentiation of dopaminergic precursor neurons in vitro.			

Neurotrophic factor	Regeneration of septal cholinergic neurons in adult rats, which had undergone fimbria-fornix transections. Promotion of the survival and differentiation of dopaminergic precursor neurons in vitro.	107 107
Neurogenesis	Hypoxia-induced Epo production acts directly on neuronal stem cells in the forebrain. Indirectly by inducing BDNF expression.	99 113
Anti-inflammation	Reduced production of inflammatory mediators leading to: Cerebral ischemia: smaller infarcts. Multiple sclerosis: protection. Optic neuritis: improved survival of retinal ganglion cells.	112 2, 96
Angiogenesis	Mitogenic action on: Human umbilical vein. Adrenal capillary endothelial cells. Brain capillary endothelial cells.	4 4 121
	Angiogenic action on: Rat aortic rings. Mouse endometrium. Chick embryo chorioallantonic membrane.	19 123 90
Vascular permeability	In vitro: BBB protection against VEGF-induced increase in vascular permeability	75

Refs.

95

BDNF, brain-derived neurotrophic factor; BBB, blood-brain barrier; VEGF, vascular endothelial growth factor.

Rabie T, Marti HH: Brain Protection by Erythropoietin: A Manifold Task. Physiology 2008, 23(5):263-274.

ERYTHROPOESIS

Substances affecting erythropoesis

Need of copper

Ceruloplasmin – binding protein (α 2-globulin) with ferroxidase activity. Oxidation of Fe²⁺ to Fe³⁺ is necessary for binding of iron to transferrin.

Need of cobalt

Part of vitamin B₁₂ molecule.

Vitamin B12 (cyancobalamin)

Produced by bacteria in GIT.

Source: liver, kidneys, meet, milk products...

Resorption: necessity of s.c. intrinsic factor secreted by parietal cells of gastric

fundus and body. Bound to transcobalamins in blood.

Stored in liver, pancreas, kidneys, brain, myocardium.

Function: synthesis of nucleic acids, co-factor in conversion of ribonucleotids to deoxyribonucleotids, production of metabolic active forms of folic acid

NECESSARY FOR NORMAL DIVISION AND MATURATION OF RED BLOOD CELL LINE ELEMENTS.

Symptoms of anaemia after years only!!!

Pernicious anaemia.

Folic acid (pteroylglutamic)

Produced by higher plants and micro-organisms.

Source: green vegetables, yeast, liver, kidneys...

Function: part of co-enzymes during synthesis of DNA, participation in cell division and differentiation

Deficiency: deficient nutrition, treatment with cytostatics (methotrexate) Symptoms of anaemia already after couple of months!!!

Macrocyte hyperchromic anaemia.

Other vitamins

Vitamin B6 (pyridoxine) – metabolism of amino acids, synthesis of hem Vitamin B2 (riboflavin) – part of flavoprotein enzymes – reductases of erythrocytes (normal function and survival of erythrocytes). Normocyte anaemia with lower reticulocytes count.

Vitamin C (ascorbic acid) – non-specific function in erythropoesis.

Hormonal influences

Androgens, estrogens, hormones of thyroid gland, glucocorticoids, growth hormone.





Disorder, in which basic and characteristic feature is **lower amount of haemoglobin.** Usually also haematocrit and red blood cell count in 1 litre of blood are below physiological value.

CLASSIFICATION OF ANEMIAS

MORPHOLOGICAL CLASSIFICATION

Evaluation of erythrocyte volume and concentration of haemoglobin in erythrocytes

- 1. Normocyte anaemia
- 2. Microcyte a.
- 3. Macrocyte
- 1. Normochromic anaemia
- 2. Hypochromic a.

PATHOPHYSIOLOGICAL CLASSIFICATION

Anaemias caused by inefficient blood production Sideropenic anaemias – lack of iron Megaloblastic a. – lack of vitamin B_{12} or folic acid Anaemias caused by suppression of blood production Anaemias in chronic diseases and symptomatic anaemias Thalasemia

Anaemias caused by increased losses

Haemolytic a.– caused by increased destruction of erythrocytes Chronic posthaemorhagic anemia

Acute posthaemorhagic anaemia

ANTIGENS AND ANTIBODIES OF RED BLOOD CELLS

1) History of blood transfusions.

2) *Posttransfusion reactions*: aglutination, haemolysis (immediate or delayed), life-threatening complications (jaundice, damage of kidneys, anuria, death – in case of full blood or RBCs administration, in case of plasma – dilution of aglutinins!!! *Autoimmune diseases. Paternity tests, event. transplantology.*

- 3) Antigens of blood cells:
- a) 30 antigen systems (ABO, Rh, MNSs, Lutheran, Kell, Kidd, Lewis, Diego, P, Duffy...)
- b) hundreds of other "weak" antigens (important for paternity testing, organ transplantations)
- 4) *Aglutinogen*: antigen of plasmatic membrane of cells
- complex oligosaccharide
- erytrocytes, salivary glands, pancreas, liver, kidney, lungs, testes
- saliva, sperm, amnionic fluid, milk, urine

5) *Aglutinin:* antibody against aglutinogen, γ -globulin (IgM –AB0 system, IgG – Rh system), produced in the same way as other antibodies

- after births almost zero concentration in blood

- production of aglutinins begins 2-8 months after birth: **stimulation by antigens similar to aglutinogens – in food, in GIT bacteria**

- maximal concentration of antibodies is reached in 8-10 years, decreases gradually with age

Blood group systems

ISBT № ^[1] \$	System name 🔶	System symbol \$	Epitope or carrier, notes +	Chromosome 🕈
001	ABO	ABO	Carbohydrate (N-Acetylgalactosamine, galactose). A, B and H antigens mainly elicit IgM antibody reactions, although anti-H is very rare, see the Hh antigen system (Bombay phenotype, ISBT #18).	9q34.2
002	MNS	MNS	GPA / GPB (glycophorins A and B). Main antigens M, N, S, s.	4q31.21
003	Р	P	Glycolipid. Three antigens: P ₁ , P, and P ^k	22q13.2
004	Rh	RH	Protein. C, c, D, E, e antigens (there is no "d" antigen; lowercase "d" indicates the absence of D).	1p36.11
005	Lutheran	LU	Protein (member of the immunoglobulin superfamily). Set of 21 antigens.	19q13.32
006	Kell	KEL	Glycoprotein, K1 can cause hemolytic disease of the newborn (anti-Kell), which can be severe.	7q34
007	Lewis	LE	Carbohydrate (fucose residue). Main antigens Le ^a and Le ^b — associated with tissue ABH antigen secretion.	19p13.3
008	Duffy	FY	Protein (chemokine receptor). Main antigens Fy ^a and Fy ^b . Individuals lacking Duffy antigens altogether are immune to malaria caused by Plasmodium vivax and Plasmodium knowlesi.	1q23.2
009	Kidd	JK	Protein (urea transporter). Main antigens Jk ^a and Jk ^b .	18q12.3
010	Diego	DI	Glycoprotein (band 3, AE 1, or anion exchange). Positive blood is found only among East Asians and Native Americans.	17q21.31
011	Yt	YT	Protein (AChE, acetylcholinesterase).	7q22.1
012	XG	XG	Glycoprotein.	Xp22.33
013	Scianna	SC	Glycoprotein.	1p34.2
014	Dombrock	DO	Glycoprotein (fixed to cell membrane by GPI, or glycosyl-phosphatidyl-inositol).	12p12.3
015	Colton	со	Aquaporin 1. Main antigens Co(a) and Co(b).	7p14.3
016	Landsteiner-Wiener	LW	Protein (member of the immunoglobulin superfamily).	19p13.2
017	Chido	СН	C4A C4B (complement fractions).	6p21.3
018	Hh	н	Carbohydrate (fucose residue).	19q13.33
019	ХК	ХК	Glycoprotein.	Xp21.1
020	Gerbich	GE	GPC / GPD (Glycophorins C and D).	2q14.3
021	Cromer	CROM	Glycoprotein (DAF or CD55, regulates complement fractions C3 and C5, attached to the membrane by GPI).	1q32.2
022	Knops	KN	Glycoprotein (CR1 or CD35, immune complex receptor).	1q32.2
023	Indian	IN	Glycoprotein (CD44 adhesion function?).	11p13
024	Ok	ок	Glycoprotein (CD147).	19p13.3
025	Raph	RAPH	Transmembrane glycoprotein.	11p15.5
026	ЈМН	ЈМН	Protein (fixed to cell membrane by GPI). Also known as Semaphorin 7A or CD108.	15q24.1
027	li	I	Branched (I) / unbranched (i) polysaccharide.	6p24.2
028	Globoside	GLOB	Glycolipid. Antigen P.	3q26.1
029	GIL	GIL	Aquaporin 3.	9p13.3
030	Rh-associated glycoprotein	RHAg	Rh-associated glycoprotein.	6p21-qter
031	Forssman	FORS	Globoside alpha-1,3-N-acetylgalactosaminyltransferase 1 (GBGT1)	9q34.13
032	Langereis ^[4]	LAN	ABCB6. Porphyrin transporter	2q36
033	Junior ^[4]	JR	ABCG2. Multi-drug transporter protein	4q22
034	Vel	Vel	Human red cell antigens	1p36.32
035	CD59	CD59		11p13

A-B-O SYSTEM

Genotype	Blood group	Aglutinogen	Aglutinin
00	0	(H)	anti-A a anti-B
0A or AA	A	A	anti-B
0B or BB	В	В	anti-A
AB	AB	A and B	-

Described by Landsteiner in 1901, 1930 – awarded by Nobel Price. Janský -1906.

Frequency of blood groups in ABO system:

0	47% (38%)
А	41% (42%)
В	9% (14%)
AB	3% (6,5%)

Subgroups in A a B blood groups.

 A_1 (1 million copies of antigen on 1 ery), A_2 (250 thousands copies).

Heredity: both A and B is inherited dominantly, according to Mendel's law.

Rh SYSTEM

Monkey *Maccacus rhesus*. 40th of the 20th century, Wiener a Landsteiner. Frequency: 85% - Rh⁺, 15% - Rh⁻.

Antigens D, C, E, d, c, e. Present only on erythrocytes.

D – the "strongest" antigen: Rh – positive, Rh – negative (produces anti-D aglutinin after contact with D-erythrocytes).

Aglutinins production: only after the contact with D-erythrocytes (transfusion, foetal erythroblastosis). High concentration of anti-D antibodies lasts for many years!!!

HAEMOLYTIC JAUNDICE OF NEWBORNS

Rh-negative mother x Rh-positive foetus.

First pregnancy – immunisation of mother during delivery (or interruption or miscarriage!!!).

Next pregnancy – anti-D aglutinins (IgG) cross foetoplacental barrier.

Foetus damage: approx. in 17% of next pregnancies

Haemolysis of foetal erythrocytes – haemolyti disease of newborn (erythroblastosis fetalis): •anaemia

•jaundice

•oedemas – event. hydrops fetalis
•CNS damage (icterus) –bile acids enter CNS (no haematoencephalic barrier!)
•deaths of foetus in utero

Prevention of foetal damage:

administration of small doses of anti-D antibodies to mother during pregnancy
 administration of one dose of anti-D antibodies during postpartum period

Success of therapy: up 90%.

