

Erythrocytes

Dr. Tahani ALI

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**Abnormal
Changes**

Production

Life Cycle

**Structure and
Morphology**

Definition

Red Blood Cells or Erythrocytes

Most abundant cells in the blood

- 40 - 45 %.

Shape: Biconcave disc which is round and flat

- Increases the surface area so more oxygen can be carried
- The surface area of an erythrocyte is calculated to be $128 \mu\text{m}^2$
- The average person has 3840 m^2 of RBC membrane area

Acidophilic cell

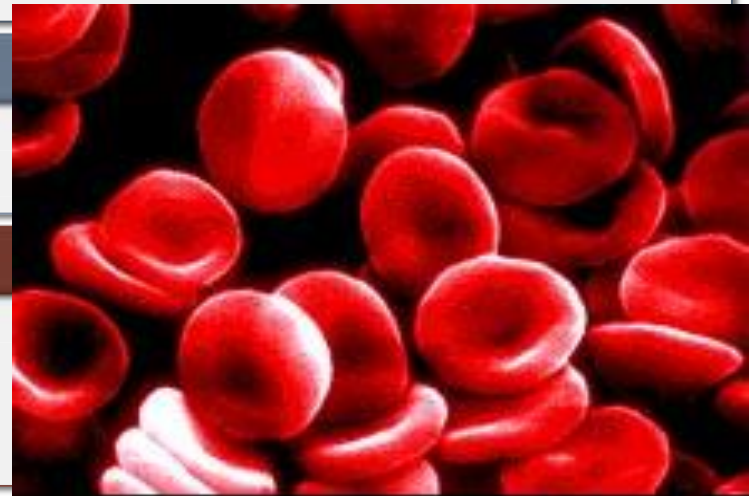
- The iron found in hemoglobin gives the blood its red color

Lack a nucleus

- Extra space inside

Contain hemoglobin(33%)

- Oxygen carrying molecule
- → 250million molecules / cell



Red Blood Cells or Erythrocytes

Diameter

- 7 – 8 microns

4-6 x 10⁶ / mm³
in a healthy individual

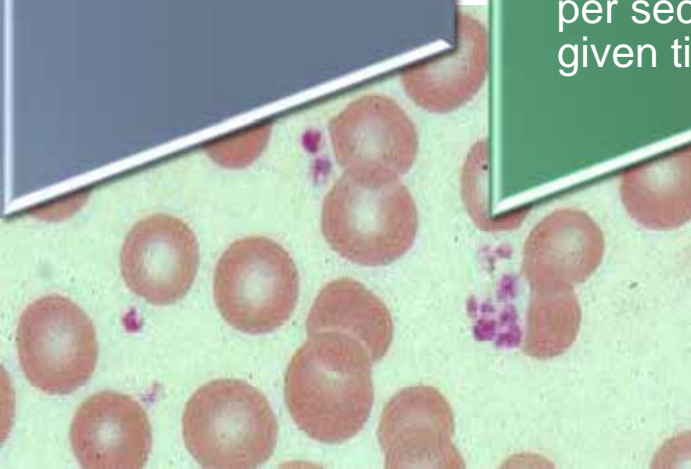
- 2.4 million new RBC are produced /s in human adults
- 20–30 trillion RBC per second at any given time

RBC Development

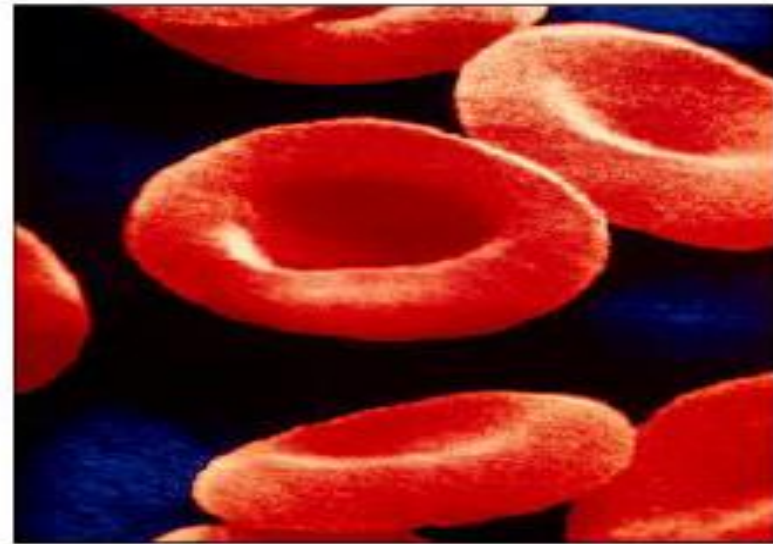
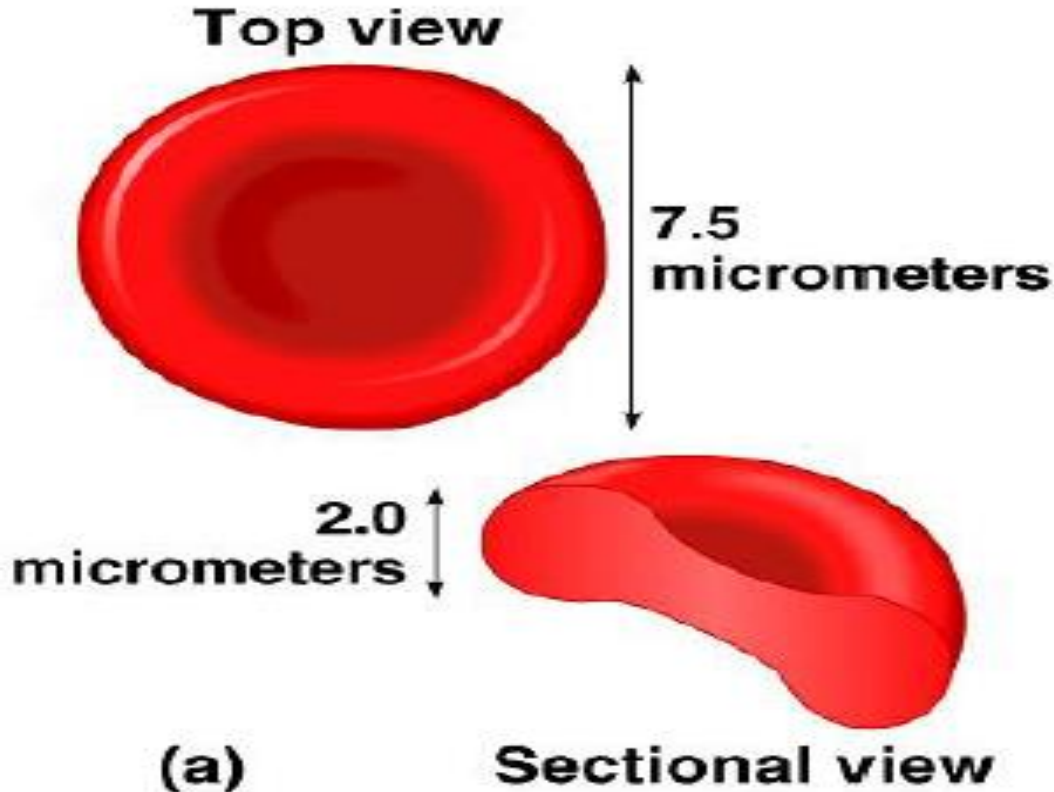
- Cannot repair themselves
- Discard their nuclei during development and so cannot reproduce or produce proteins
- The mature erythrocyte also loses its Golgi apparatus, centrioles, ER and most of its mitochondria

Life span of 120 days

- Under normal circumstances, red blood cells never leave the circulatory system



Erythrocytes



The biconcave shape also allows erythrocytes to form stacks, which facilitate flow through small capillaries, and also makes them flexible enough to pass through capillaries as narrow as 4 mm in diameter.

Erythrocytes (RBCs)

Biconcave discs

- Anucleate
- No organelles

Filled with Hemoglobin (Hb)

- Protein that functions in gas transport

Bilayered Cell Membrane

- **Spectrin** and actin: cytoskeletal function
- RBC flexibility
- Move through capillaries
- Change shape as necessary
- Cup shape in capillaries

RBC Membrane

Trilaminar

Outermost layer

Central layer

Inner layer

Glycolipids

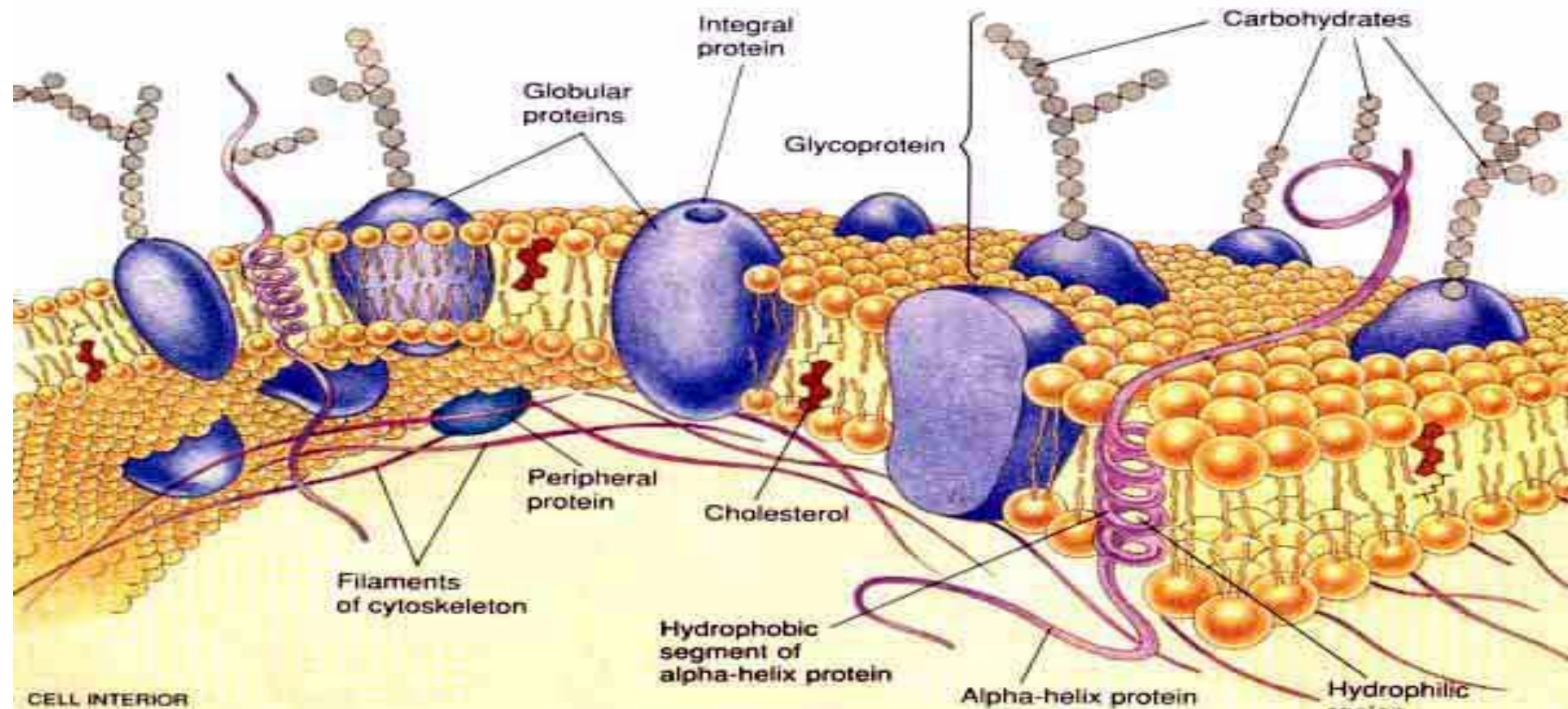
Glycoproteins

Cholesterol

Phospholipids

Cytoskeleton

CELL EXTERIOR



Cytoskeleton of the RBC Membrane

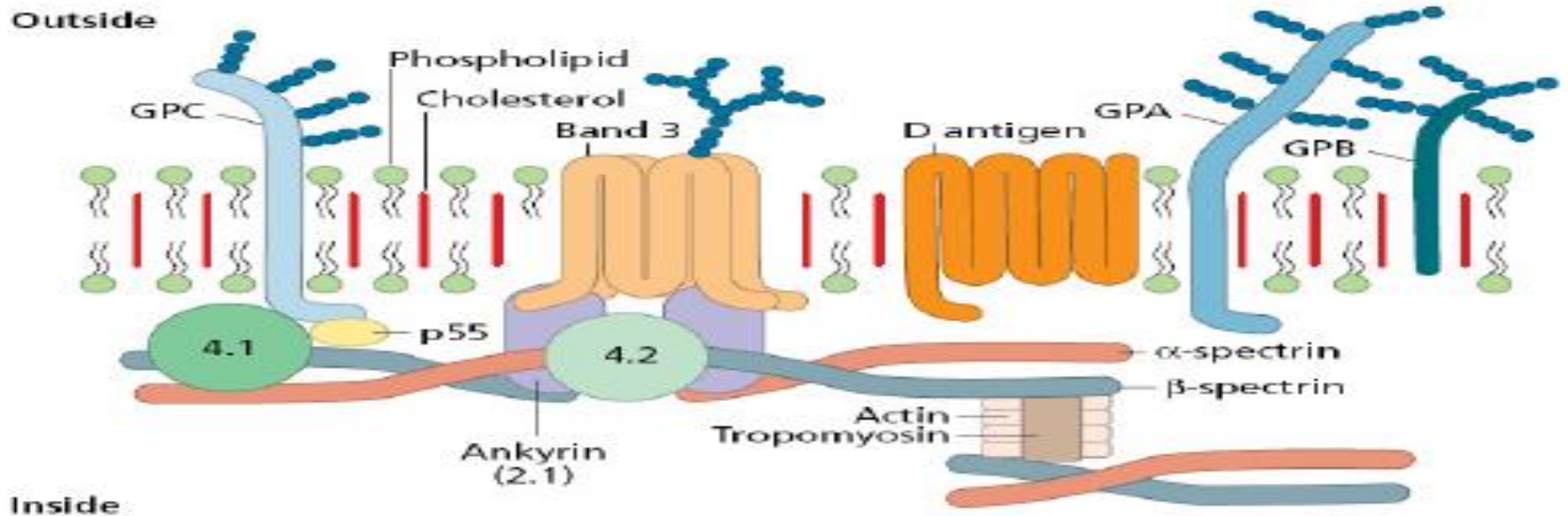
Spectrin

Composed of alpha & beta chains

Join to form a matrix which strengthens the membrane against sheer force and controls biconcave shape

Ankyrin

Binding site for spectrin



RBC Membrane: Function

Shape

Provides the optimum surface to volume ratio

Respiratory exchange and is essential to deformability



Provide Deformability, Elasticity

Allows for passage through microvessels



Provides permeability

Allows water and electrolytes to exchange via cation pumps

RBC controls volume and H₂O content primarily through control of sodium and potassium

Erythrocytes (RBCs)

Complementarity
of structure
and
function

Structural characteristics contribute to its gas transport function

Biconcave shape that has a huge surface area relative to volume

No mitochondria

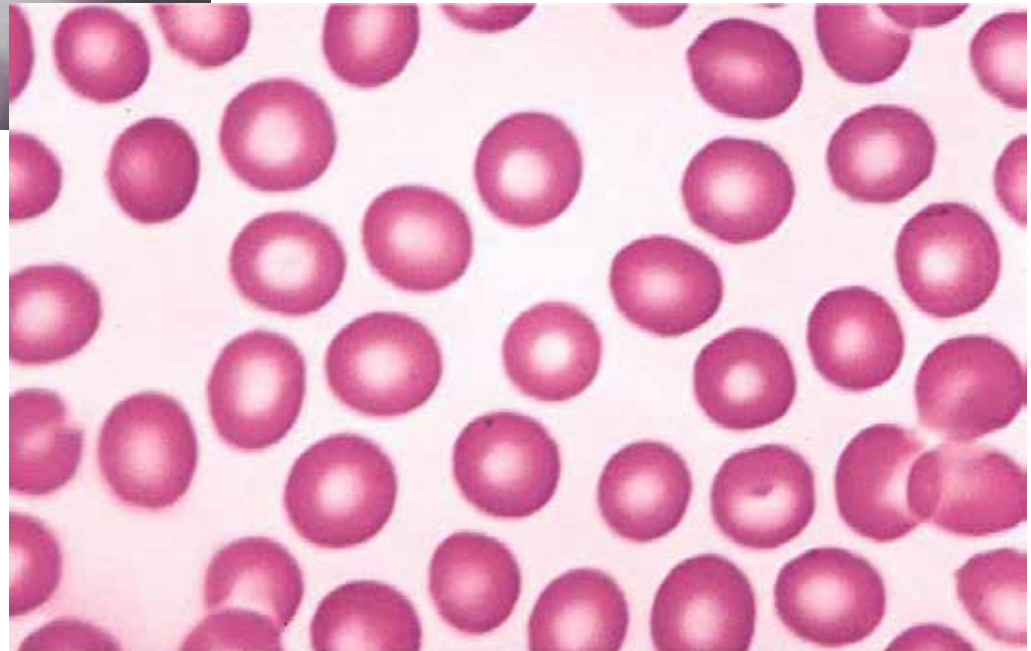
ATP is generated anaerobically (through glycolysis alone)

Do not consume the oxygen they transport

RBC

Erythrocytes

ERYTHROCYTES
(abundant pale pink discs)

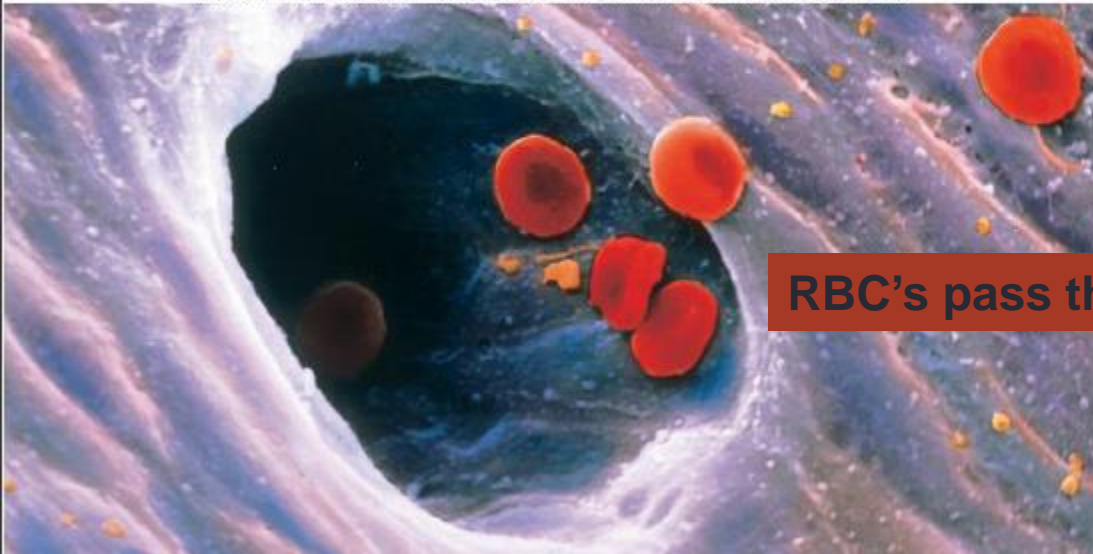


RBC Erythrocytes



SEM of erythrocytes moving into a capillary

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RBC's pass through capillary beds in single file

Erythrocyte Function

Hemoglobin reversibly binds with oxygen

Most oxygen in the blood is bound to hemoglobin

CO₂ , NO are also carried by hemoglobin

Hemoglobin: protein globin
two alpha and two beta chains
Each bound to a **heme group**

Respiratory gas transport

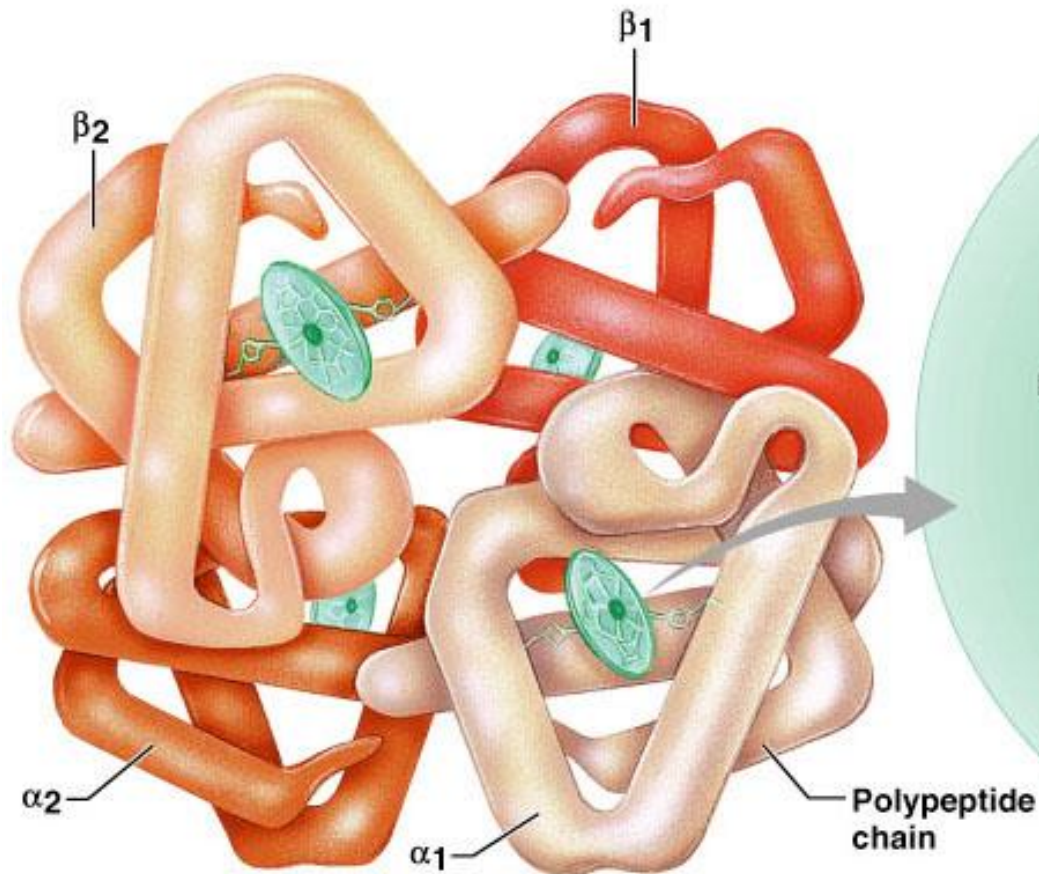
Each heme group bears an atom of **iron**

bind to one oxygen molecule

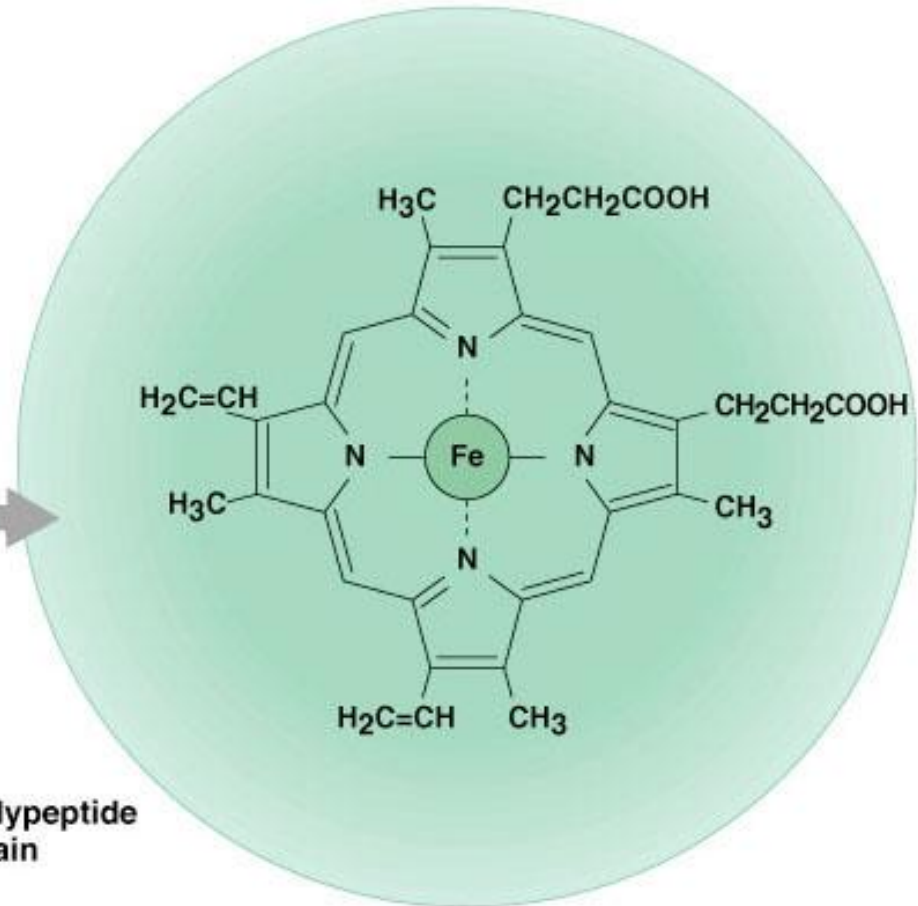
Each hemoglobin molecule can transport four molecules of oxygen

280 million hemoglobin molecules in each RBC

Structure of Hemoglobin



(a) Hemoglobin



(b) Iron-containing heme group

Haemoglobin

Gives RBC
their color

Can carry
up to 4
molecules
of O_2

Associates
and
dissociates
with O_2

Contains
iron



Properties of Hemoglobin

Structure

Quaternary structure: ($\alpha_2\beta_2$)

Each subunit is:
1 Heme + 1 globin

Each heme contains 1 iron
($2+ \leftrightarrow 3+$)

Function

Oxygen binding and transport

CO₂ binding and transport

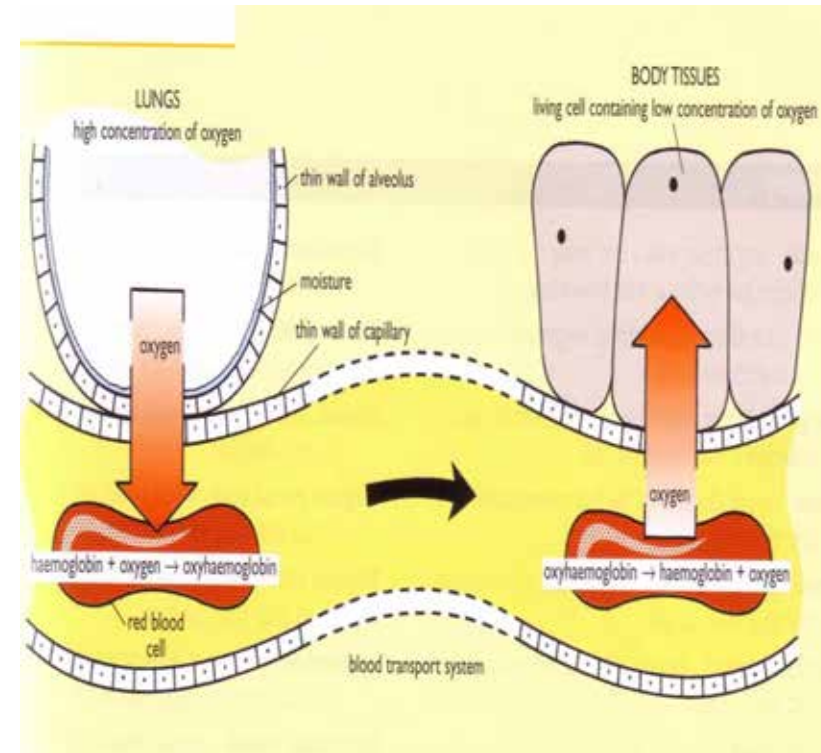
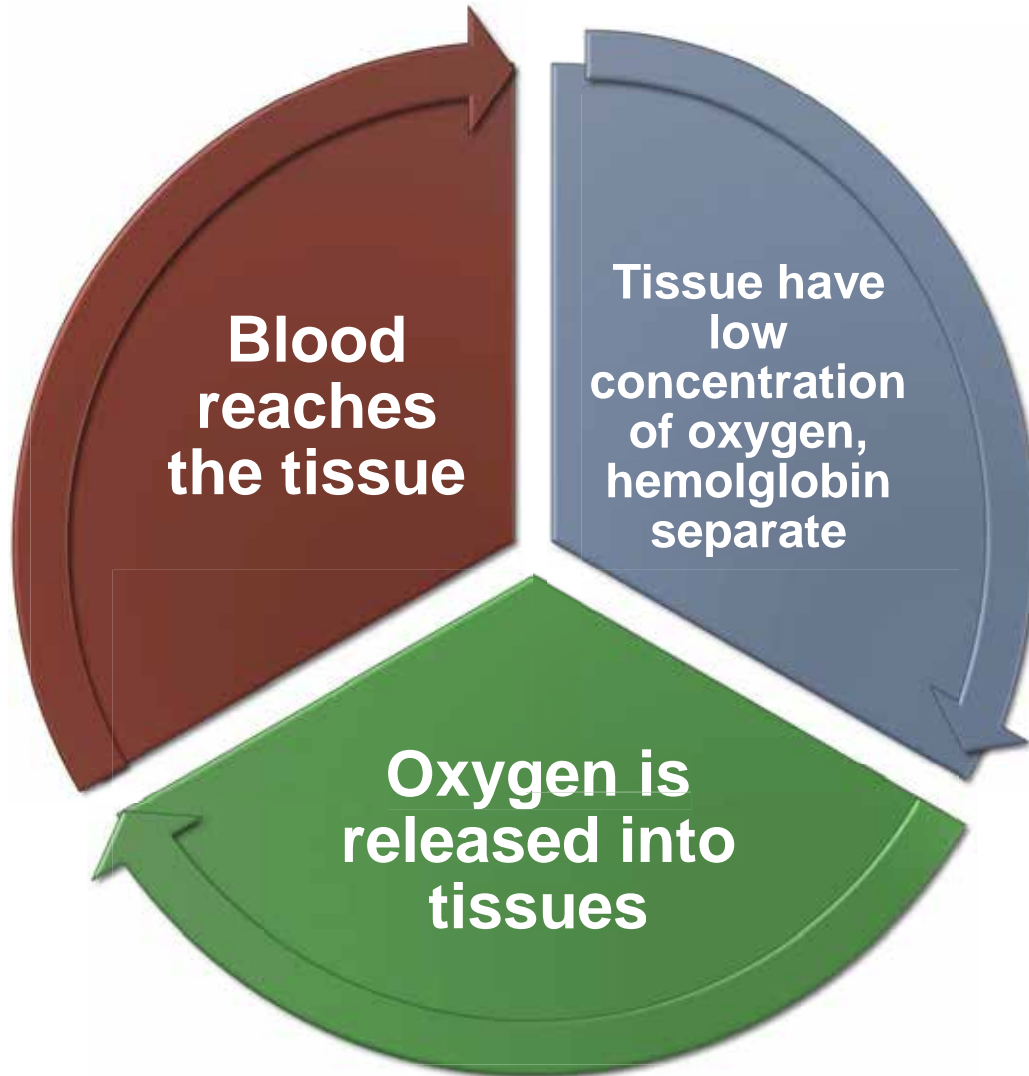
Hemoglobin levels

infants: 140-200 g/l

Adult males:
140-180 g/l

Adult females:
120-160 g/l

Function of Haemoglobin



Haemoglobin: the key to successful gas carriage

Four different globin chains: α , β , γ and δ

Adult haemoglobin A
HbA

Fetal haemoglobin
HbF

Haemoglobin A2
HbA2

$\alpha_2\beta_2$

$\alpha_2\gamma_2$
greater affinity for
oxygen than HbA

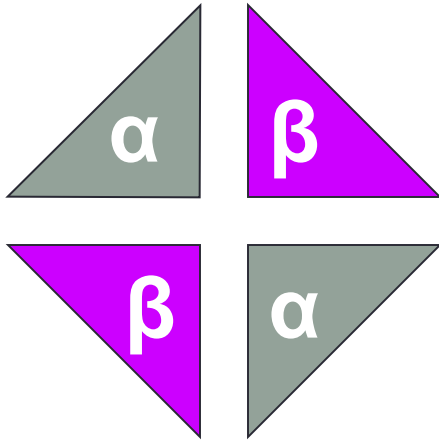
$\alpha_2\delta_2$

Facilitates the transfer of oxygen
from the maternal blood to the
fetal blood

HbF greater oxygen saturation
than adult haemoglobin for a
given PO_2

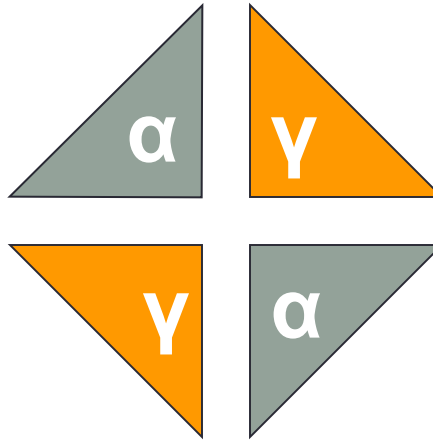
2-3% of adult

Hb in Adults



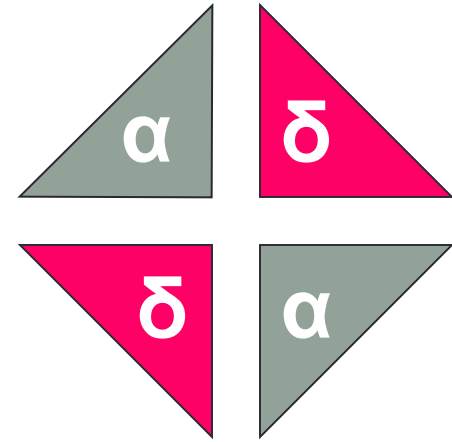
HbA

98%



HbF

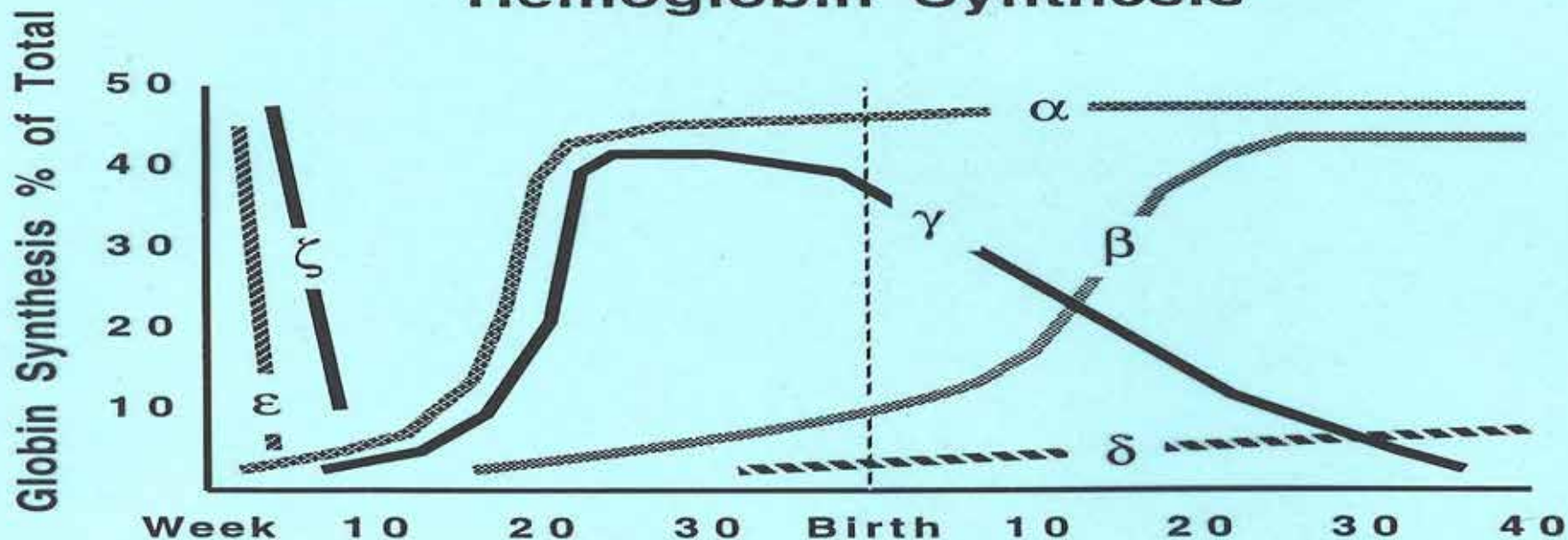
~1%



HbA₂

<3.5%

Hemoglobin Synthesis



		<u>Adult</u>	<u>Newborn</u>
$\alpha_2\beta_2$	Hb A	97 %	20 %
$\alpha_2\delta_2$	Hb A ₂	2.5	<0.5
$\alpha_2\gamma_2$	Hb F	<1	80

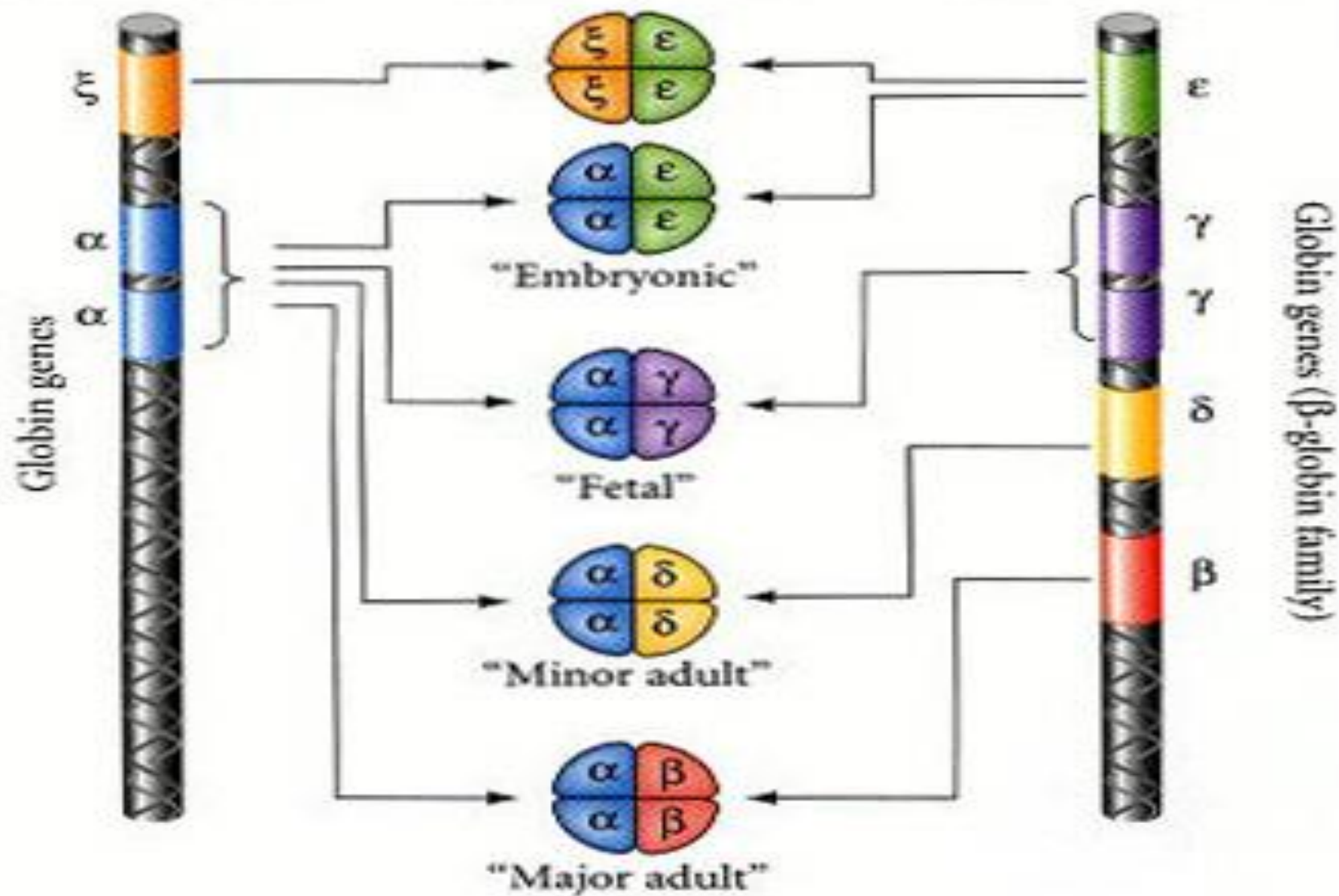
Embryonic:

$\zeta_2\epsilon_2$	Gower-1
$\alpha_2\epsilon_2$	Gower-2
$\zeta_2\gamma_2$	Portland

Chromosome 16

Globin proteins

Chromosome 11



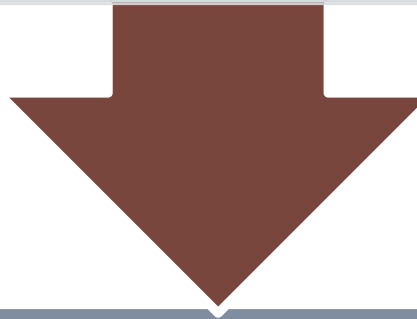
Metabolic Pathways

Energy required for maintenance of

Cation pumps

Hb in reduced state

RBC integrity and
deformability



Limited

Production of Erythrocytes

Hematopoiesis

Red blood cell formation

Occurs in the red bone marrow of the :

Epiphyses of the humerus and femur
Axial skeleton and girdles

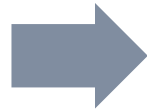
Hemocytoblasts

give rise to all formed elements
100 billion blood cells/day

Production of Erythrocytes

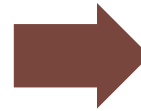
Embryonic blood cells

- third week of gestation
- vessels of the yolk sac
- first 8 weeks



As organs develop

- Embryonic blood cells migrate to the liver, spleen, thymus and bone marrow
- where they differentiate into stem cells



From 2 to 5 months of gestation

- the liver and, to a lesser extent, the spleen are the primary sites of erythropoiesis

Production of Erythrocytes

As the skeleton matures

- Red bone marrow gradually takes over as the major site of erythrocyte production

In children

- Axial skeleton (skull, vertebrae, ribs, sternum, scapulae and pelvis)
- the bones of the extremities.

In adults

- Axial skeleton
- Proximal ends of the femur and humerus

Originate from red bone marrow

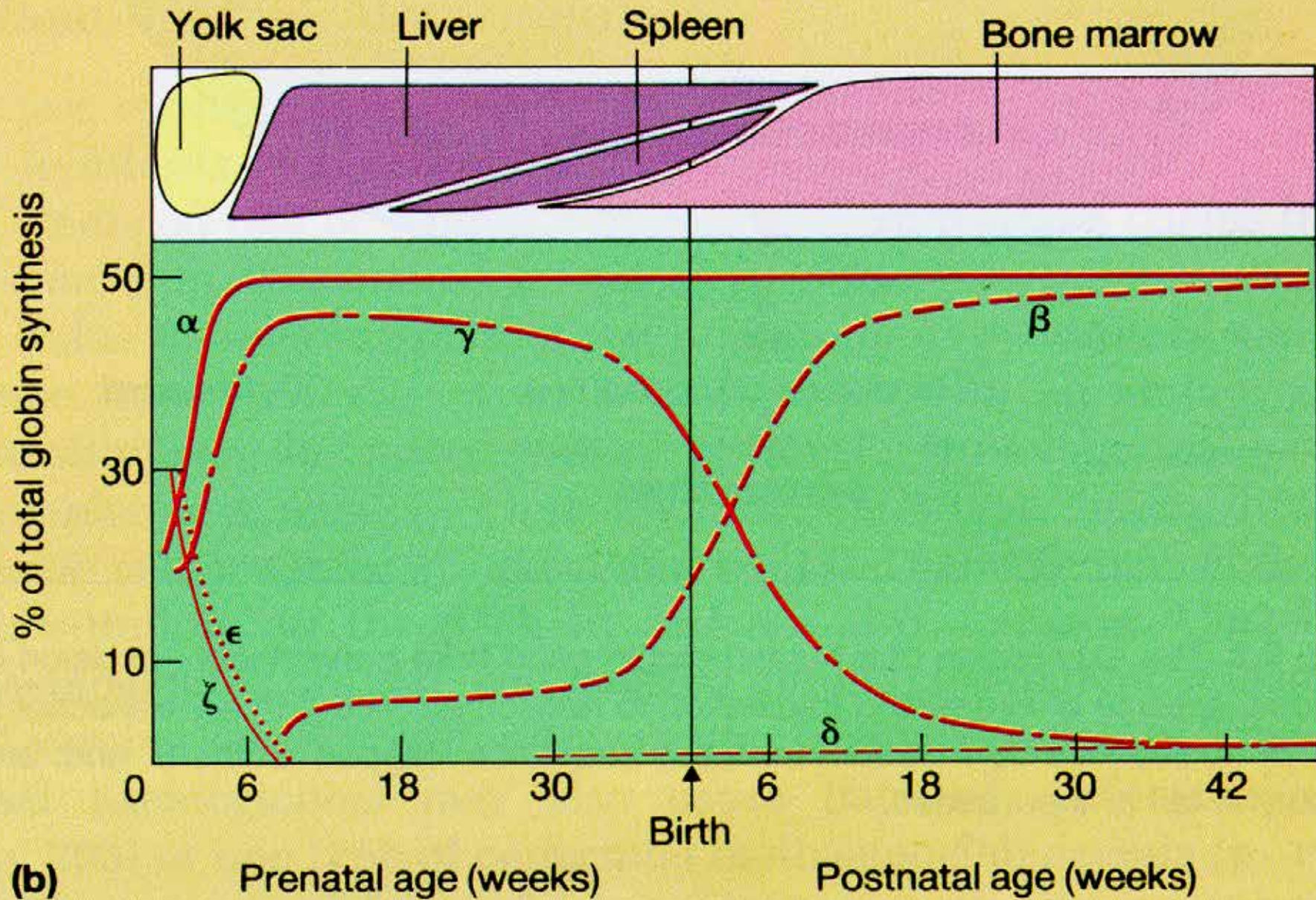
Emryo

- yolk sac
- liver



Adults

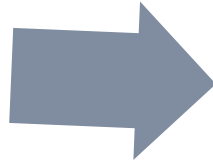
- **Flat bones:** hip bone, breast bone, skull, ribs, vertebrae and shoulder blades
- **“Spongy” material** at the proximal ends of the long bones **femur and humerus.**



Production of Erythrocytes

Erythropoiesis

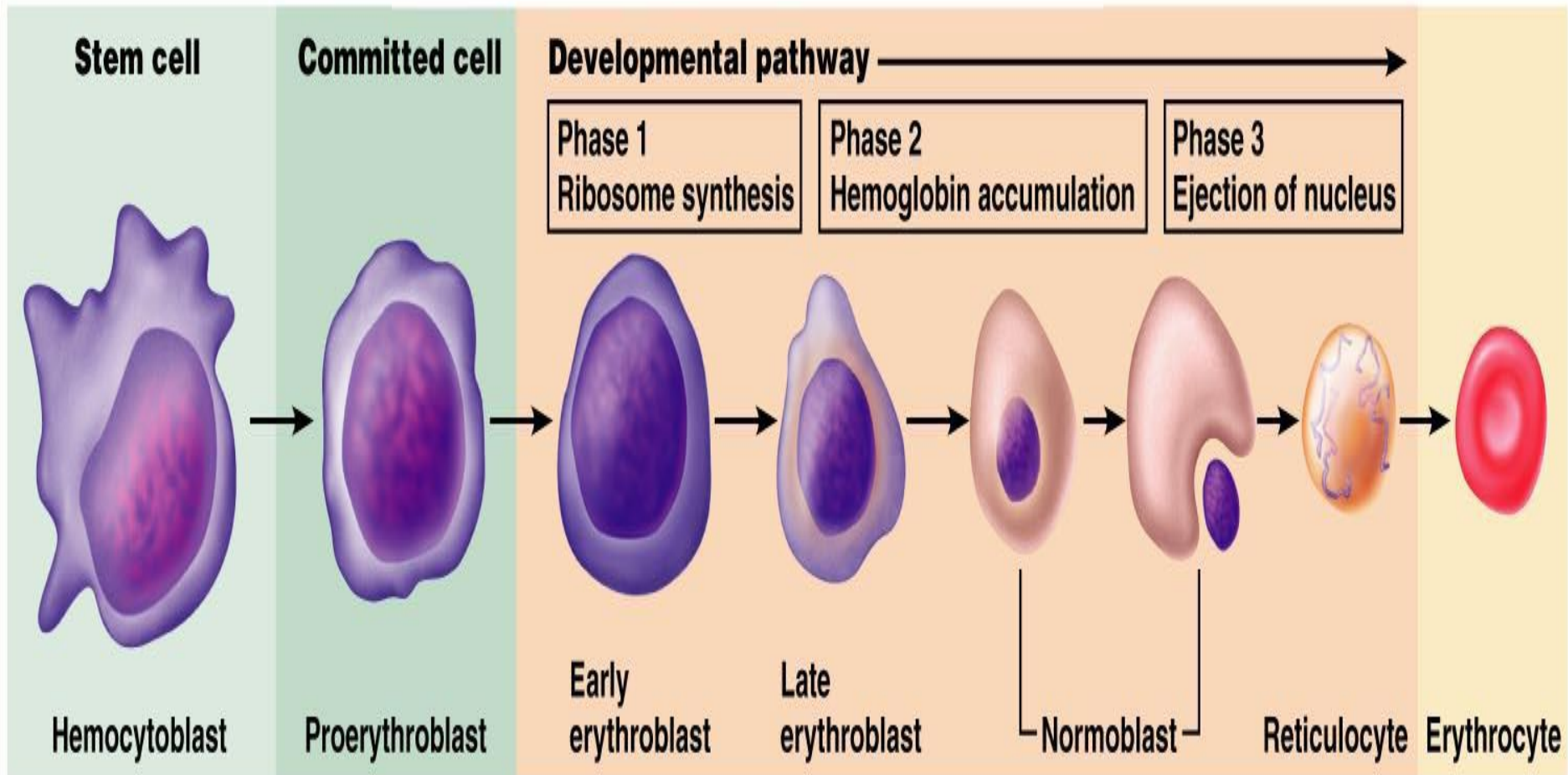
- **Stimulated by** the hormone erythropoietin
- Produced by the kidney in response to a reduction in PO_2



Under conditions of severe blood loss

- Yellow bone marrow found in other bones may convert to red marrow in order to increase erythrocyte production

Production of Erythrocytes: Erythropoiesis



7 days process
2.5 million RBC/s

Reticulocytes

Less Mature Erythrocytes

1-2 days in the circulation

Cytology

Slightly larger than the older RBCs

Have slightly more RNA

Slightly bluish staining (polychromasia).

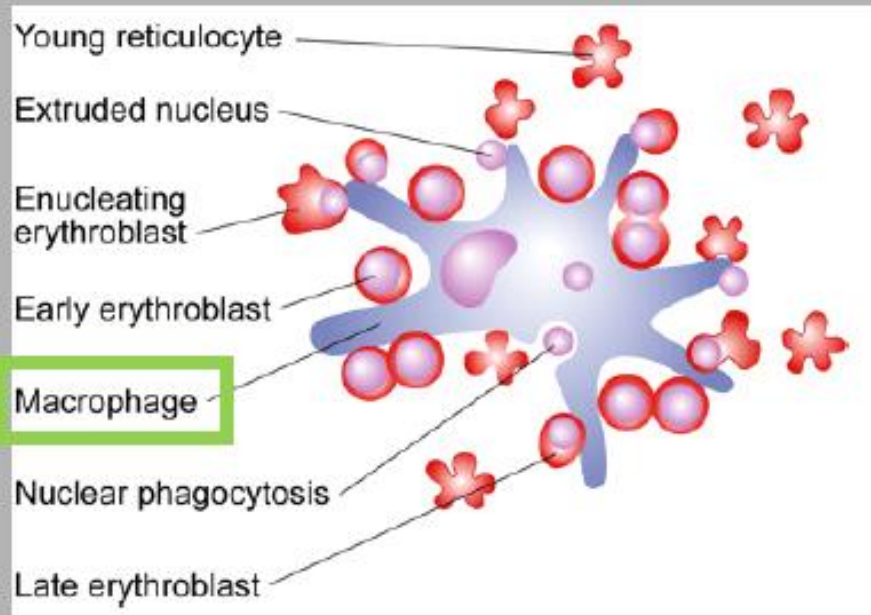
Staining with a supravital dye (stains RNA)

Frequency

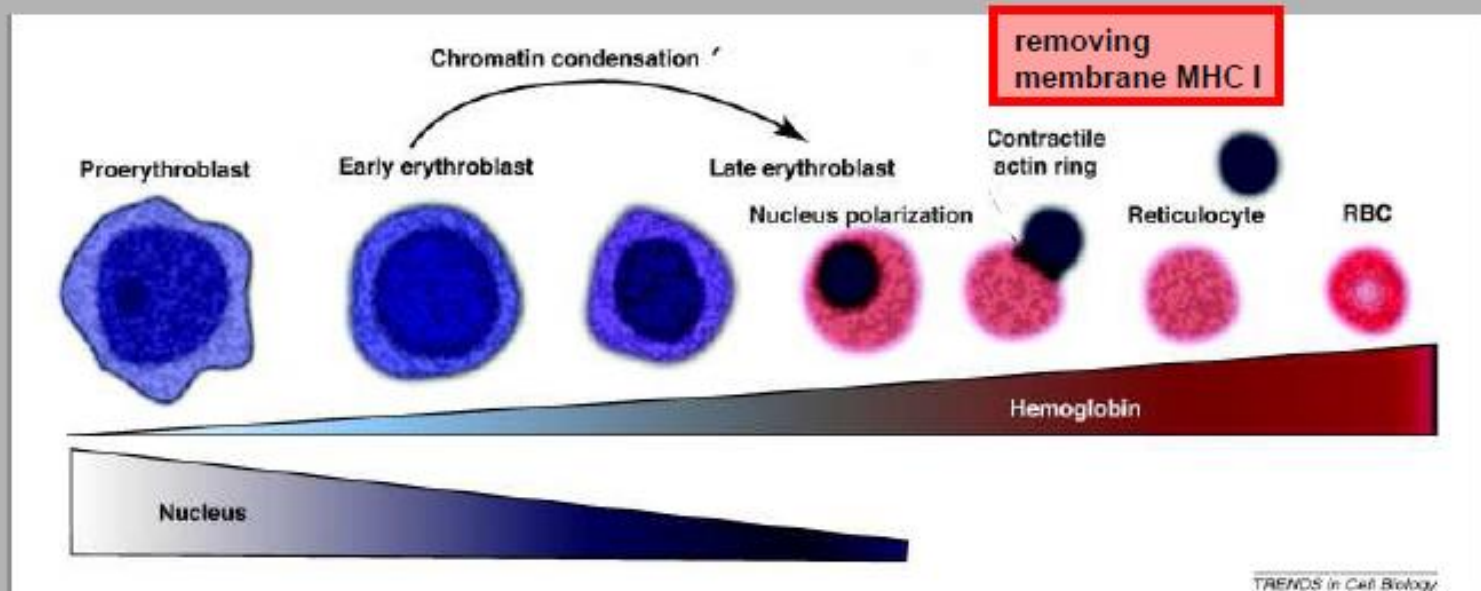
1-2% of RBCs

increased : blood loss

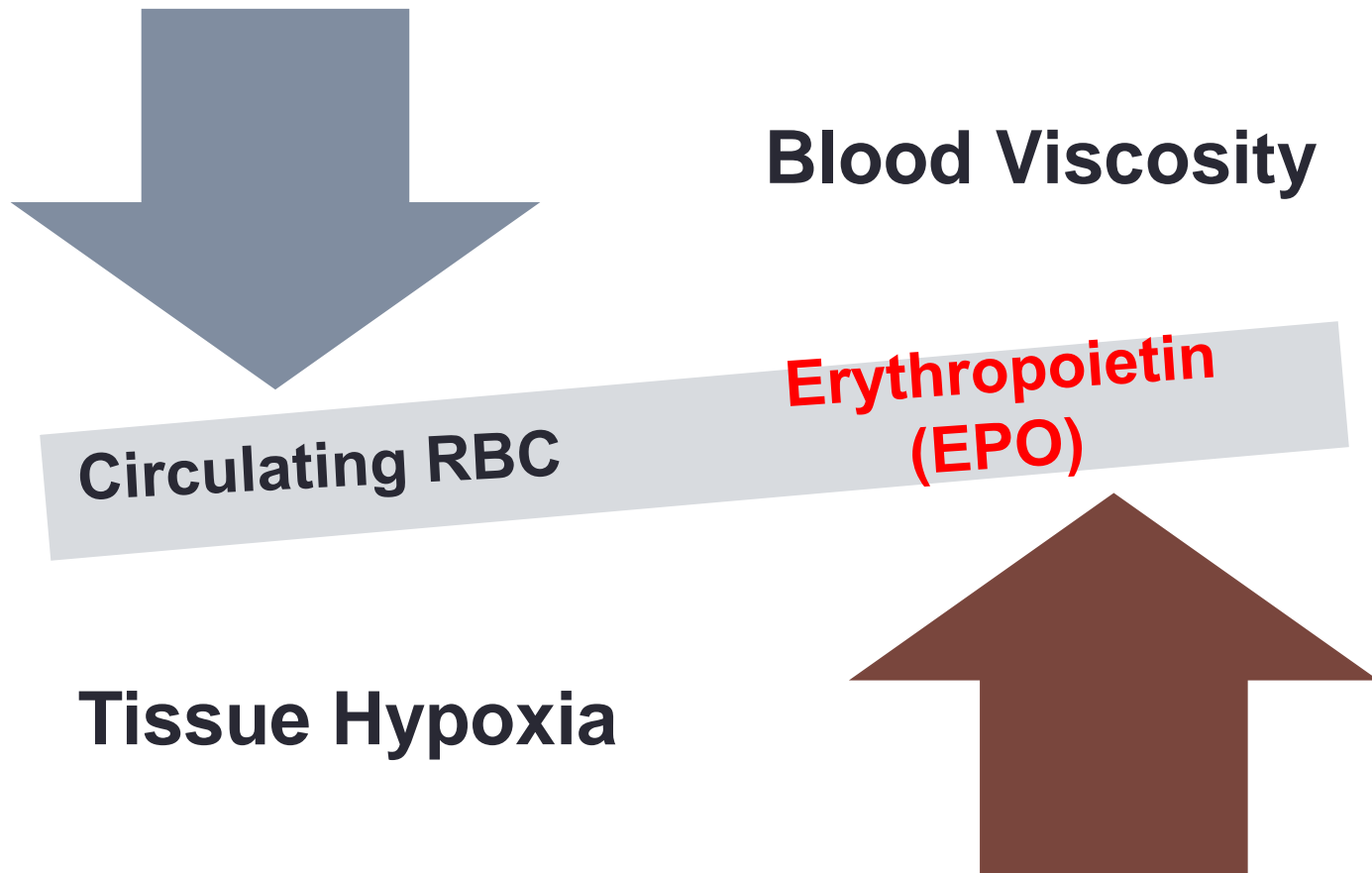
leukemia or metastatic cancer : bone marrow not be able to respond appropriately



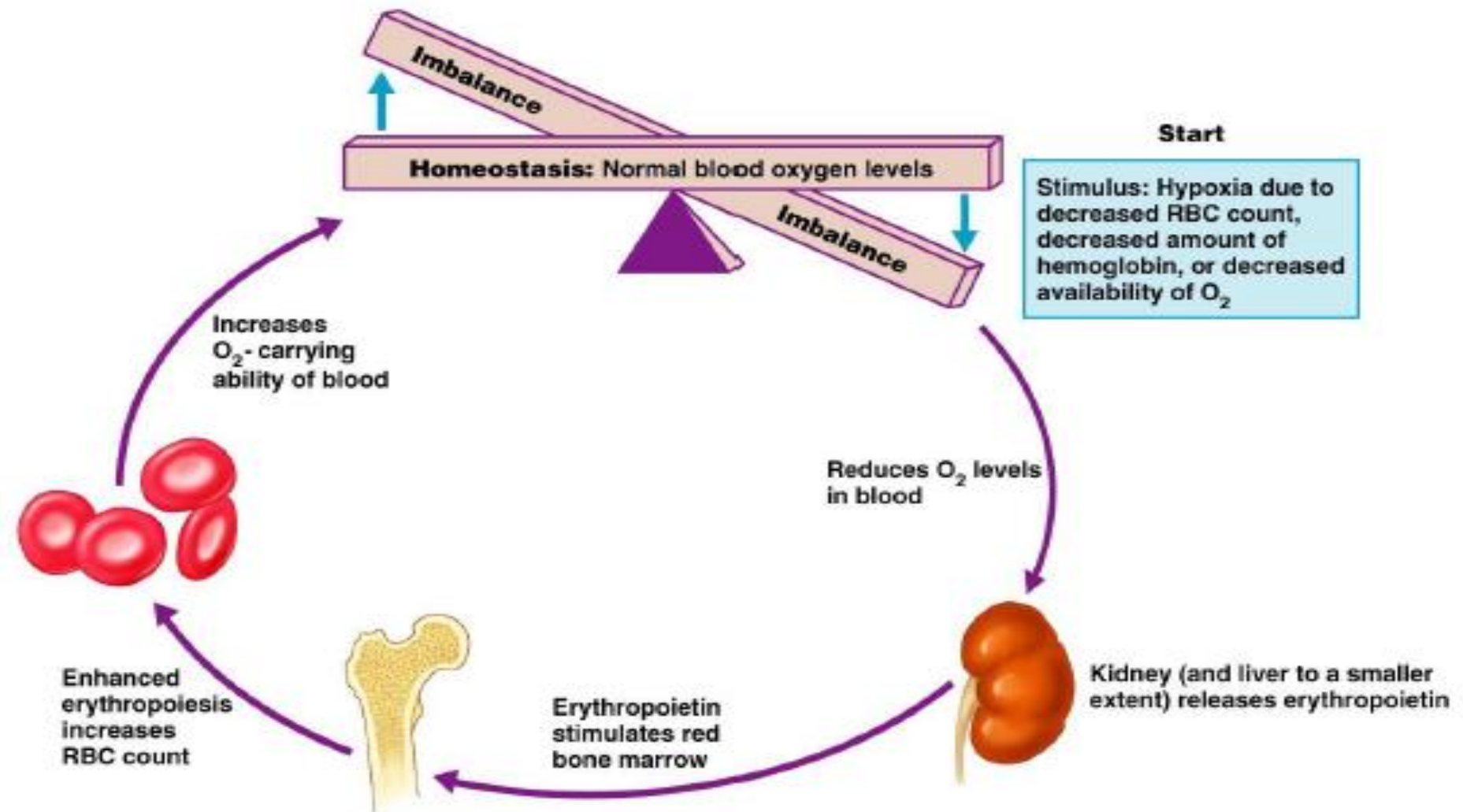
*reticular (mesh-like)
ribosomal RNS*

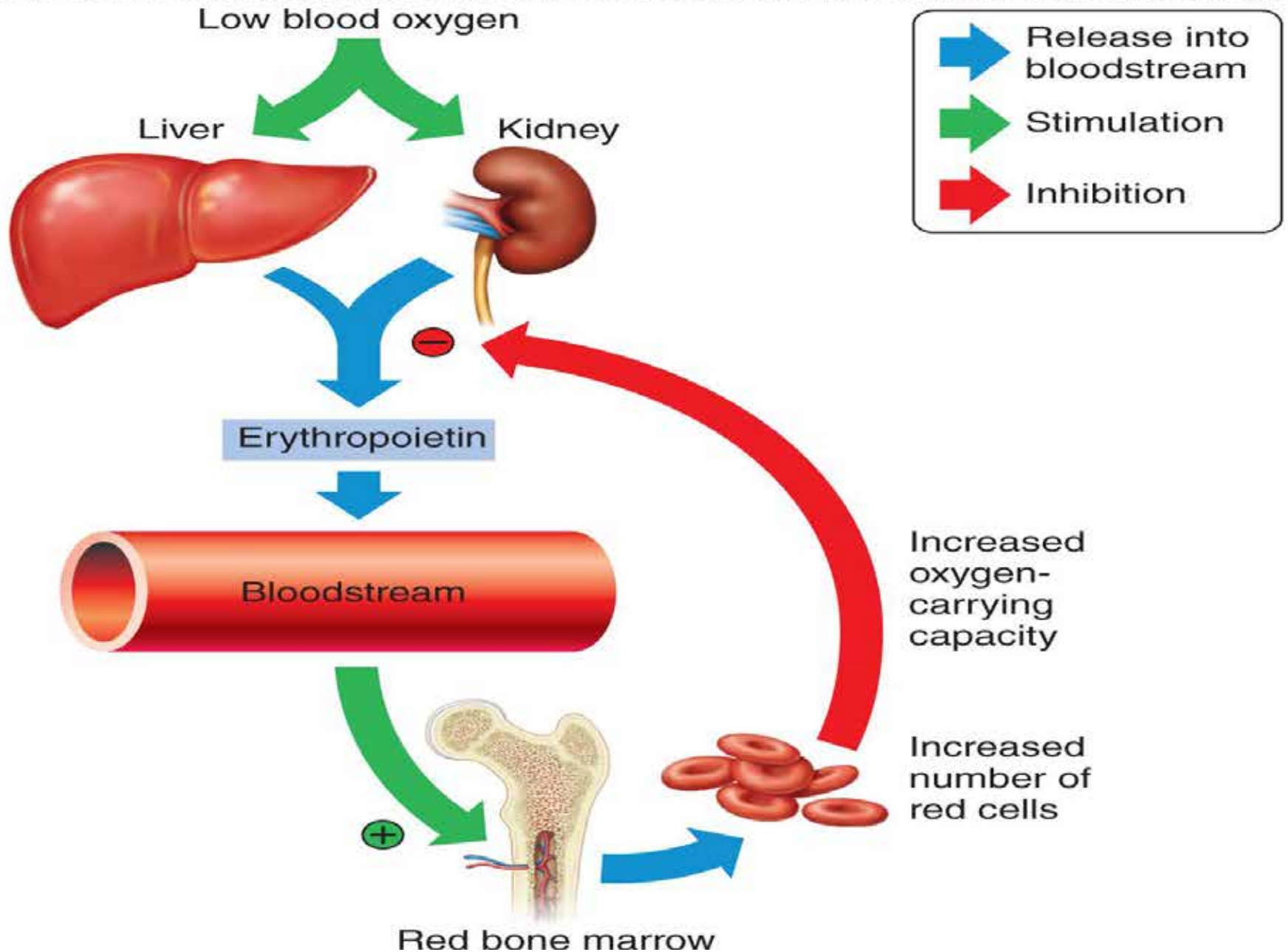


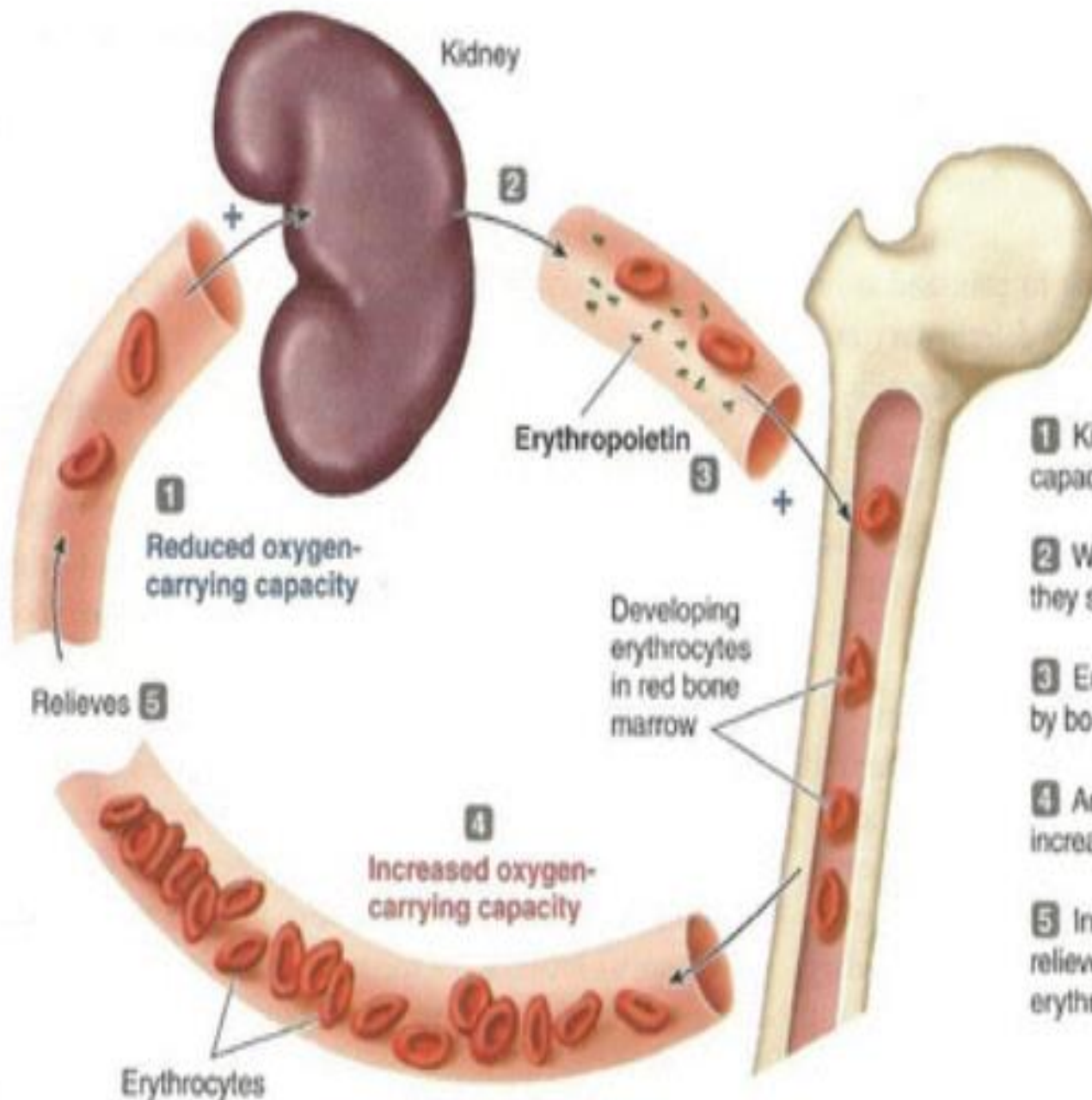
Erythropoiesis Regulation



Erythropoietin Mechanism







1 Kidneys detect reduced O_2 -carrying capacity of blood.

2 When less O_2 is delivered to the kidneys, they secrete erythropoietin into blood.

3 Erythropoietin stimulates erythropoiesis by bone marrow.

4 Additional circulating erythrocytes increase O_2 -carrying capacity of blood.

5 Increased O_2 -carrying capacity relieves initial stimulus that triggered erythropoietin secretion.

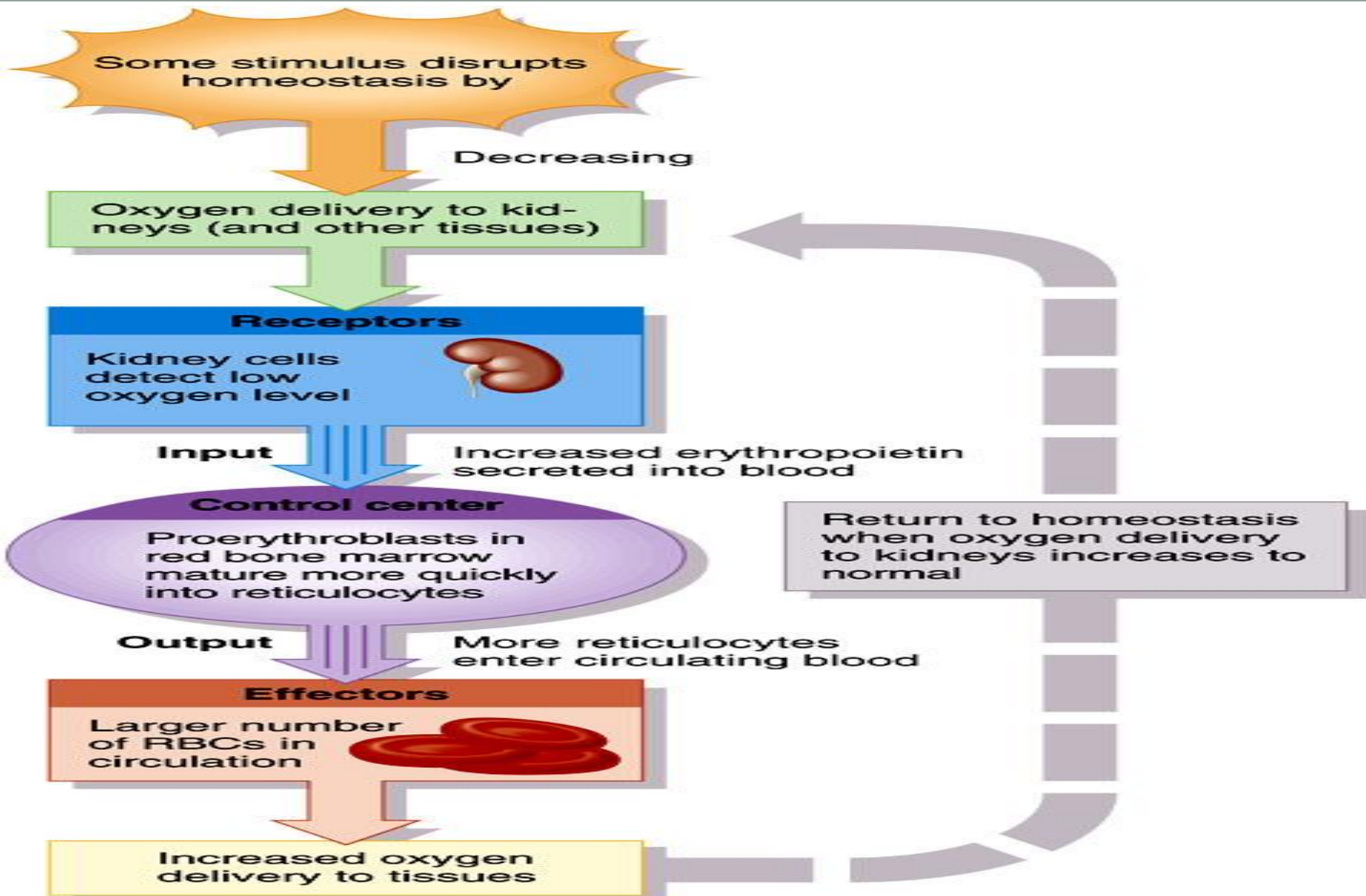


Figure 19.06 Tortora - PAP 12/e
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Proteins
Lipids
Carbohydrates

Vitamins
B12
Folic Acid

DNA
Synthesis

Iron

Hemoglobin synthesis

Most of the iron comes from recycling old RBC

The body stores iron in Hb (65%), the liver, spleen, and bone marrow

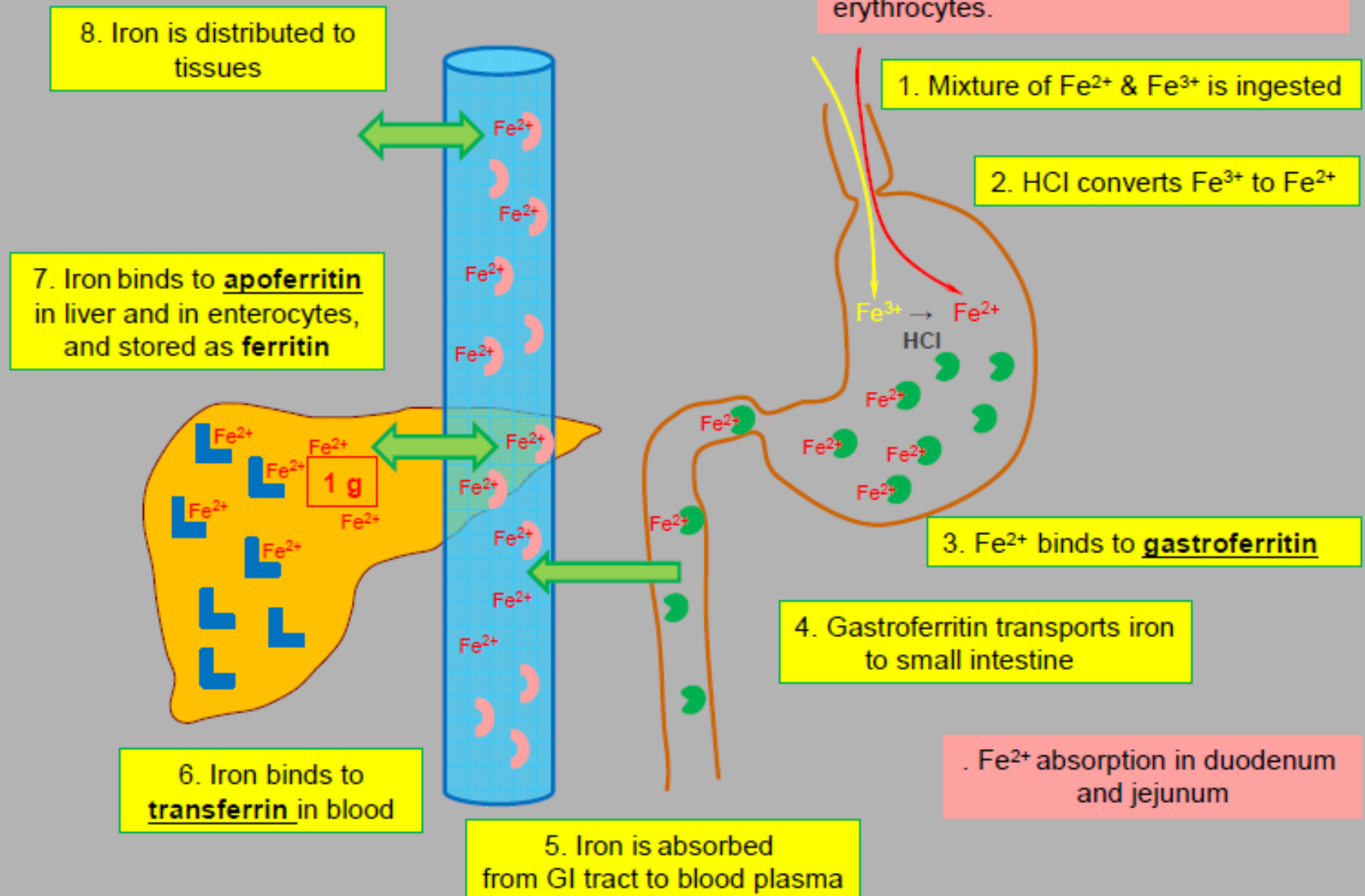
Intracellular iron is stored in protein-iron complexes such as **Ferritin** and **Hemosiderin**

Circulating iron is loosely bound to the transport protein **transferrin**

Erythropoietic factors 2:

Iron

Total body iron in human adult: 3-4g.
2/3 of it is incorporated into the heme of erythrocytes.



Vitamin B12 (cobalamine)

water soluble

Only some bacteria and protozoa are able to synthesize (importance of colon bacteria!)

Plants do not contain (VEGETARIANS!)




Meat, liver, egg, milk

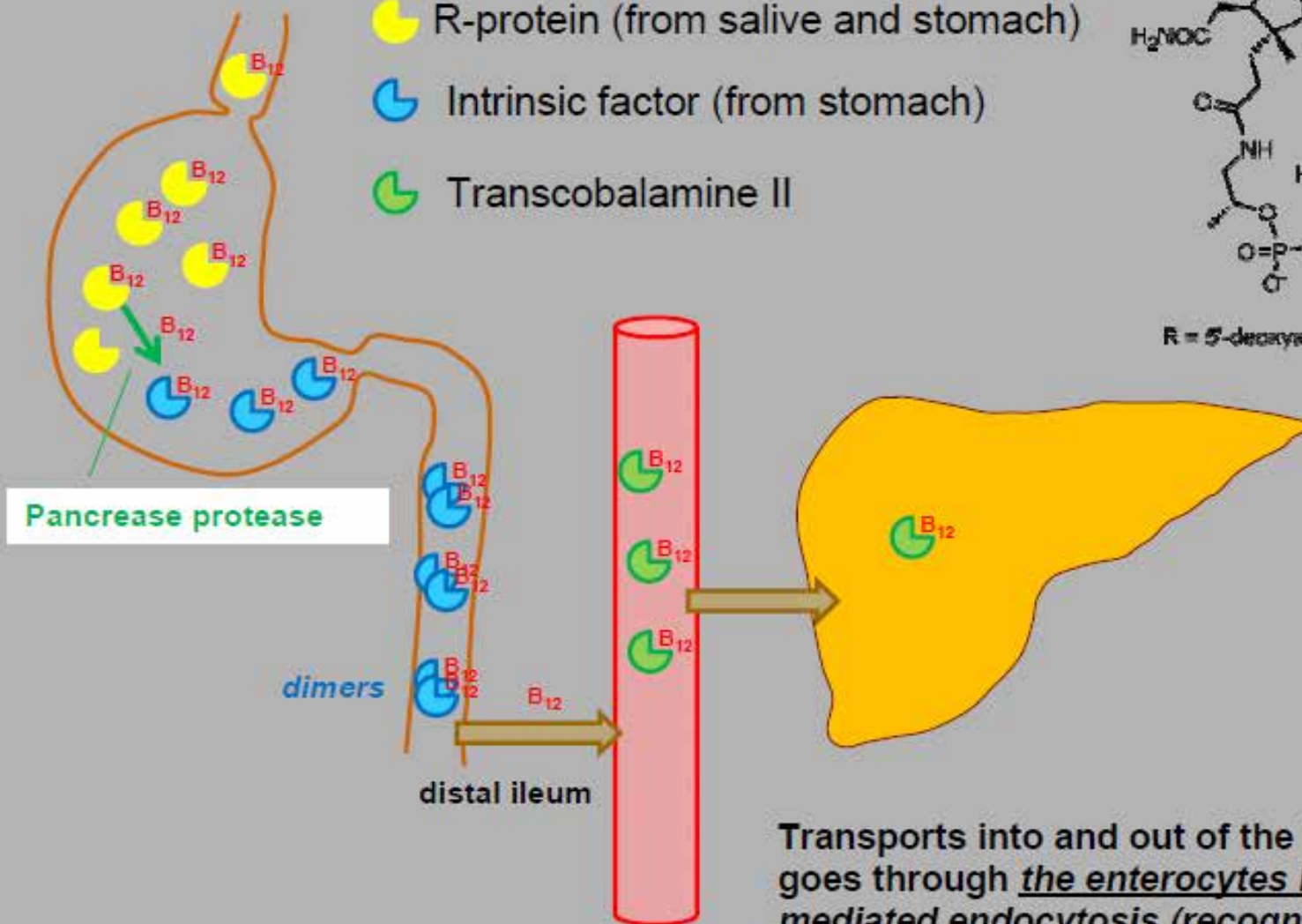
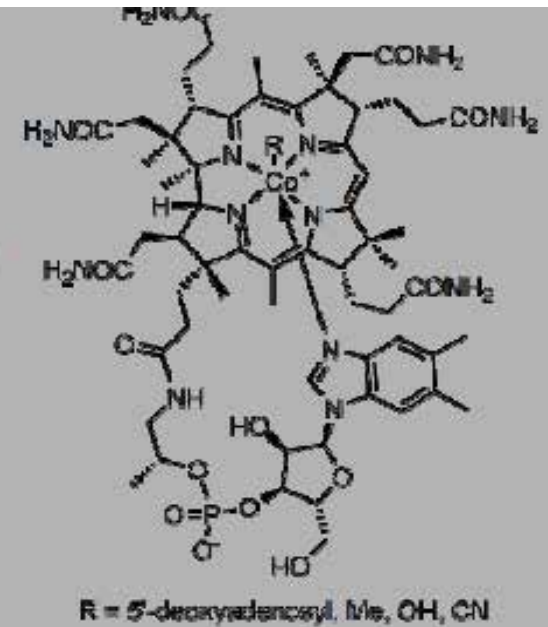
Nicotine reduces the absorption (smoking!)

Daily requirement: 1-2ug

Stored in liver (3-6 years)

Erythropoietic factors 3: Vitamin B₁₂ (cobalamine)

-  R-protein (from salive and stomach)
-  Intrinsic factor (from stomach)
-  Transcobalamine II



Fate and Destruction of Erythrocytes

RBC Life
span

- **100–120 days**

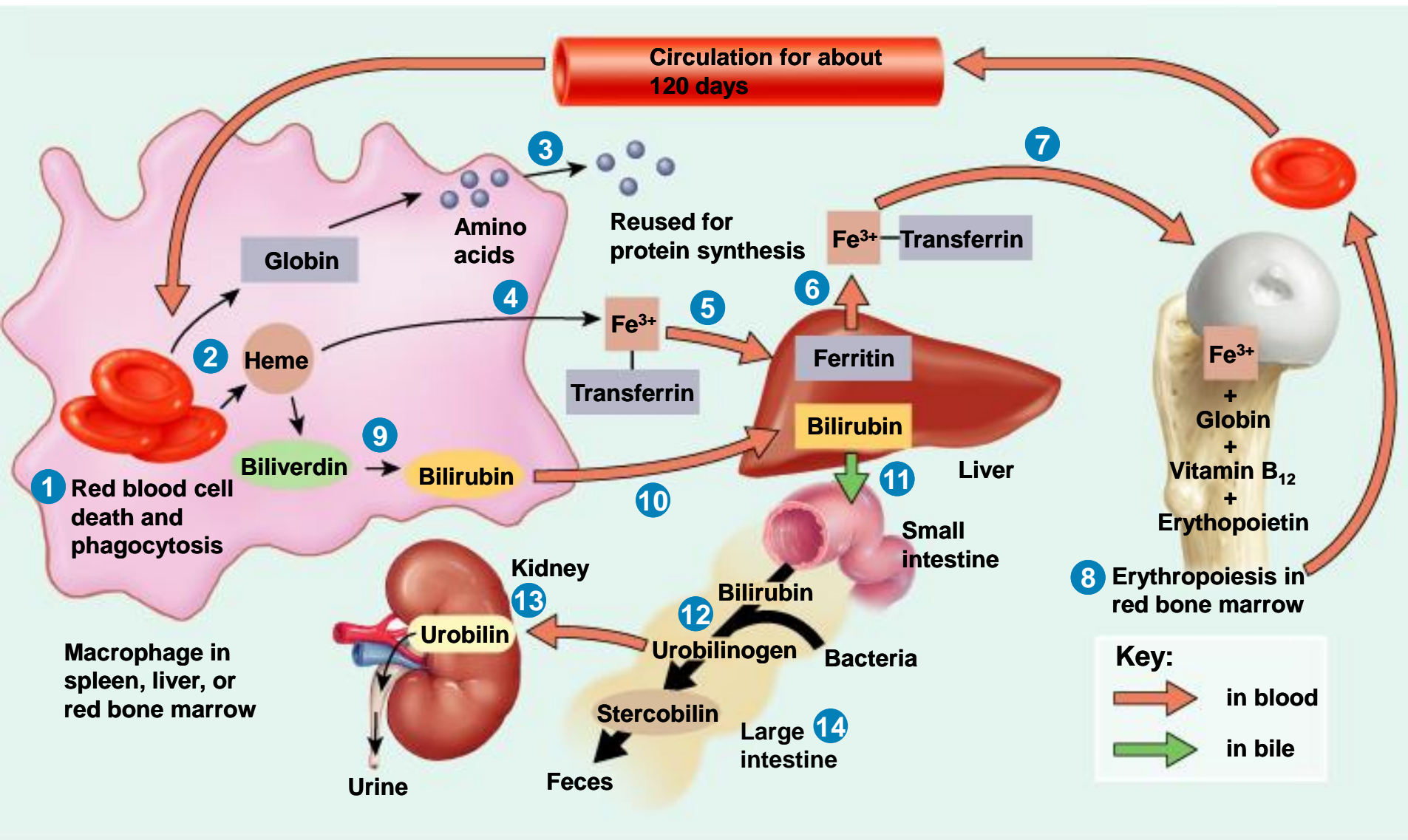
Turnover of
RBC is
high

- **1% replaced per day**

With age

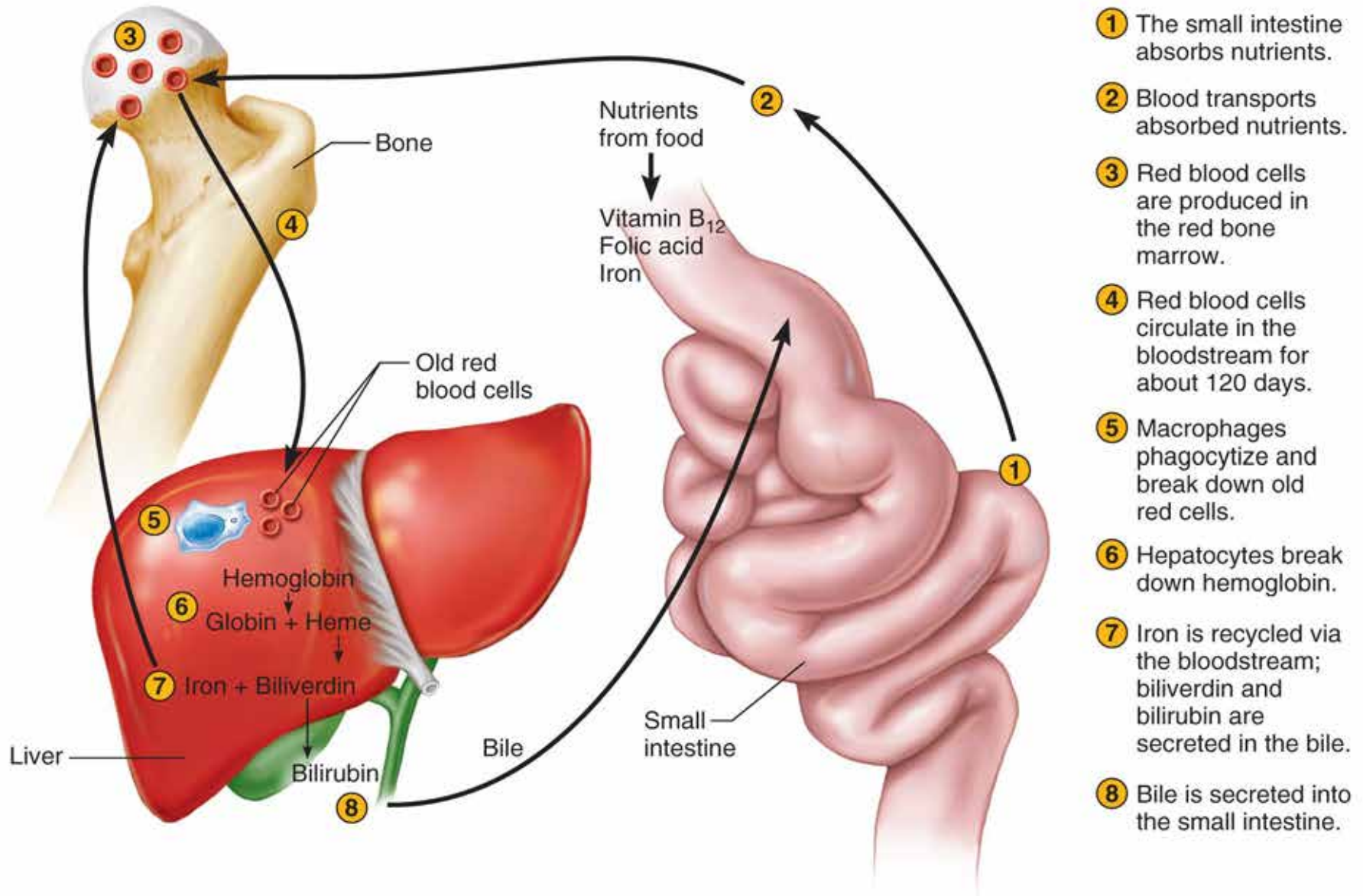
- RBC become increasingly fragile
- Damaged by passing through narrow capillaries
- Macrophages in the liver and spleen phagocytize damaged RBC

Formation and Destruction of RBC's



Formation and Destruction of RBC's

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Major Events in RBC Destruction

1. Squeezing through the capillaries of active tissues damages red blood cells.
2. Macrophages in the spleen and liver phagocytize damaged red blood cells.
3. Hemoglobin from the red blood cells is decomposed into heme and globin.
4. Heme is decomposed into iron and biliverdin.
5. Iron is made available for reuse in the synthesis of new hemoglobin or is stored in the liver as ferritin.
6. Some biliverdin is converted into bilirubin.
7. Biliverdin and bilirubin are excreted in bile as bile pigments.
8. The globin is broken down into amino acids metabolized by macrophages or released into the plasma.

Properties of RBC (Erythrocytes)

Concentration
in blood is 4-6
million/cubic
mm (4-6 T/l)

**Gender
differences**

**High
individual
variability**

Morphology
: biconcave
discs

**Large
surface area**

**Enables cells
to bend in
small
capillaries**

**Main
characteristics:**
reduced cell

**No nucleus →
cannot
reproduce**

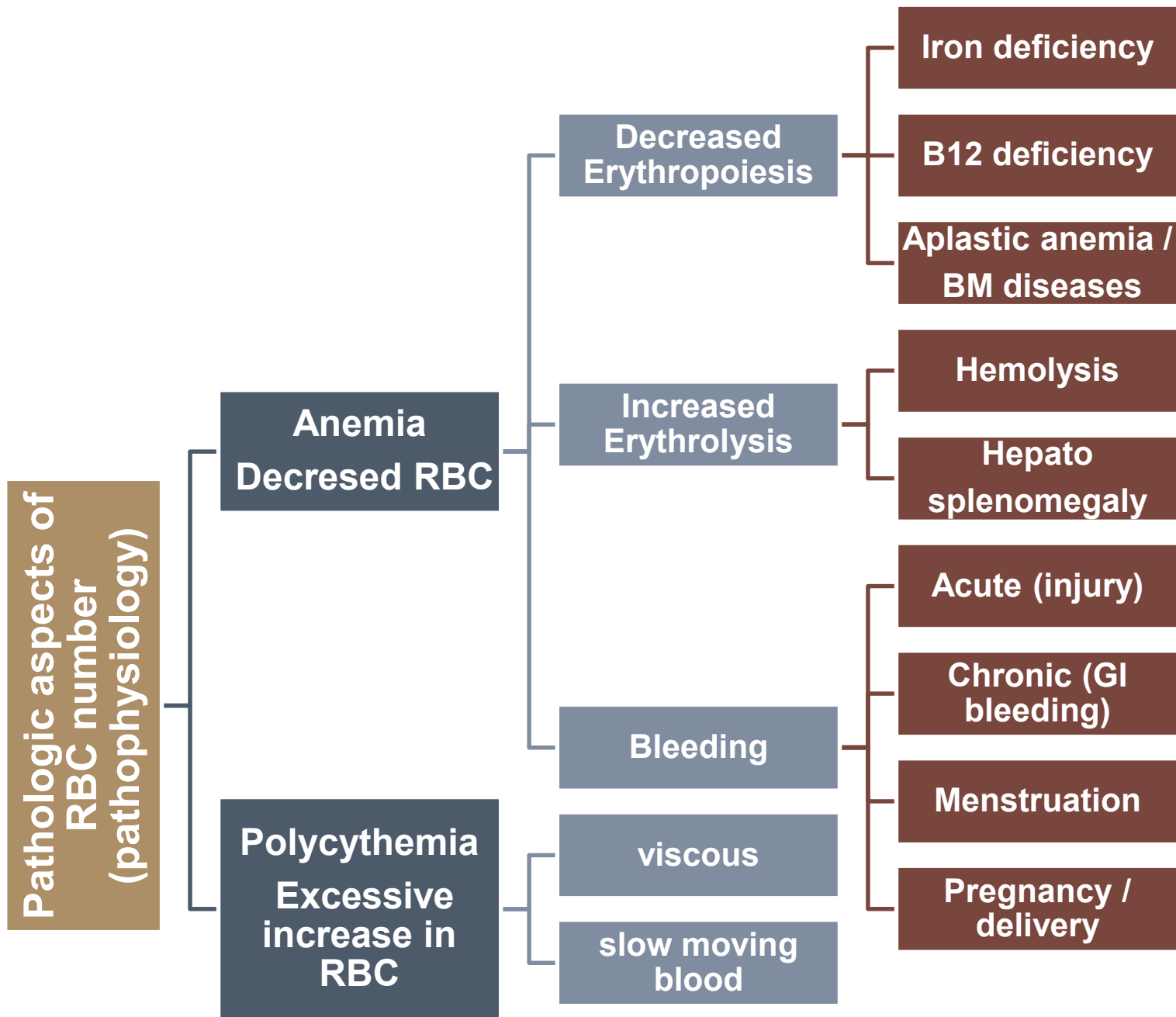
**No
mitochondria
→ no
metabolism**

**No ribosomes
→ no protein
synthesis**

Function

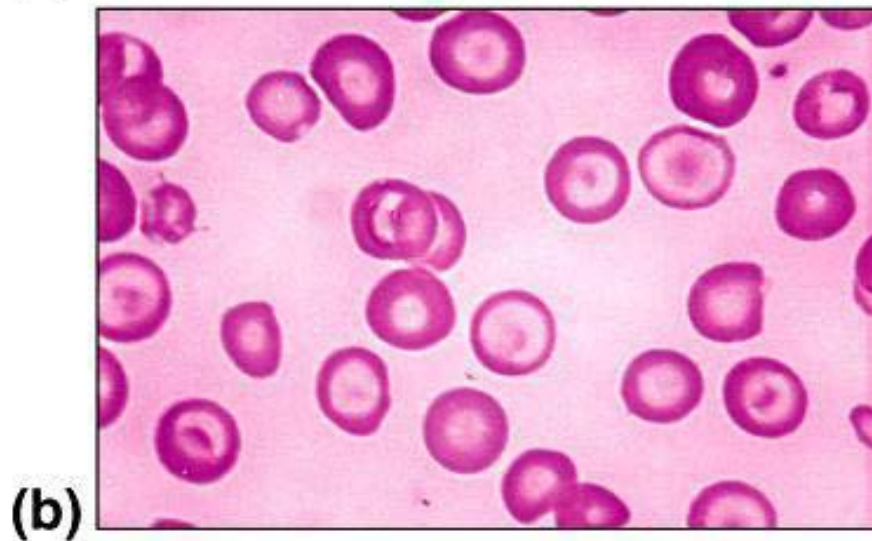
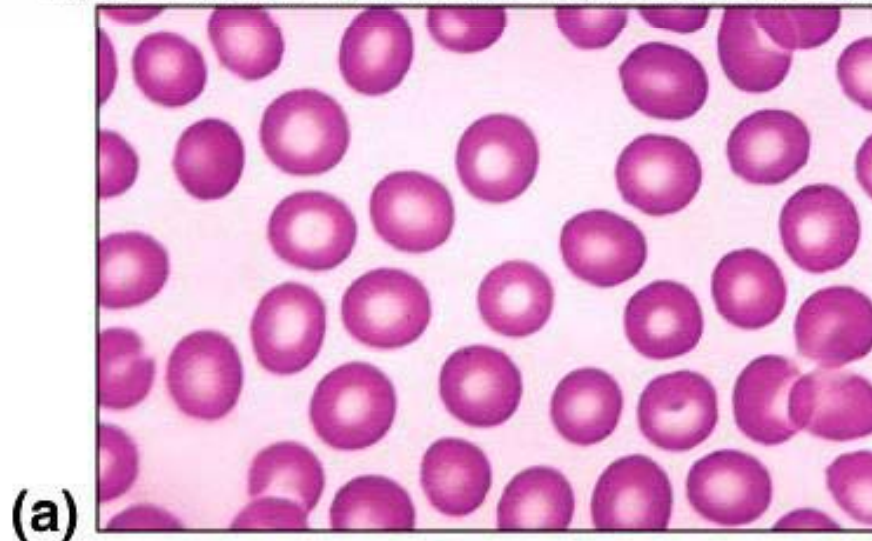
**Transport
hemoglobin**

**280 million
hemoglobin
molecules/cell**



Normal Erythrocytes vs. Hypochromic Anemia

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Anemia

Definition

- Significant reduction in the total body RBC mass
- Measured as a reduction in the RBC count, the hemoglobin, and the hematocrit
- Anemia exists when the hemoglobin is less than 12 g/dL or the hematocrit is less than 37%.
- A deficiency of RBCs, which can be caused by either too rapid loss or slow production

Classification Cytometric schemes

- Microcytic
- Macrocytic
- Normocytic

Classification Erythrokinetic schemes

- Rates of RBC production and destruction

Classification biochemical/molecular schemes

- Etiology of the anemia at the molecular level

Anemia

Blood loss Anemia

- Due to hemorrhage, plasma is replaced in 1-3 days, but, RBC replacement takes longer

Microcytic Hypochromic Anemia

- Low levels of hemoglobin in RBCs due to chronic blood loss resulting in low Fe³⁺ levels in newly produced RBCs

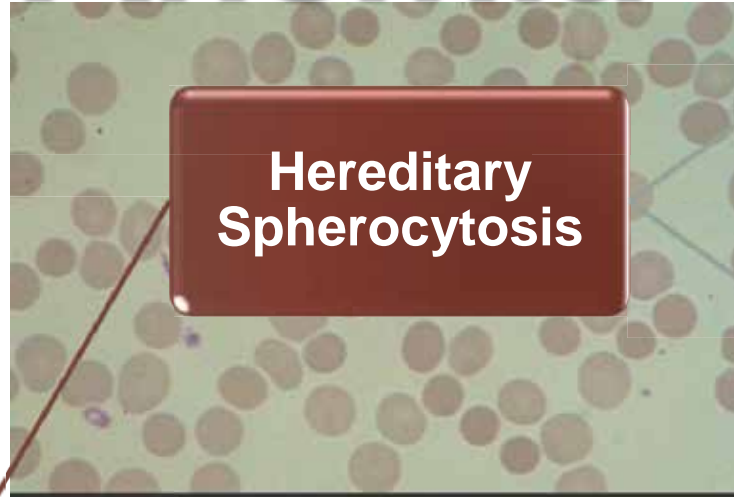
Aplastic Anemia

- Decreased RBC production in bone marrow due to chemical, drug, or radiation exposure

Pernicious Anemia

- Chronic illness caused by impaired absorption of Vitamin B-12 because of a lack of intrinsic factor (IF) in gastric secretions. Vitamin B12, in turn, is necessary for the formation of red blood cells.

Anemia



Hereditary Spherocytosis

RBC develop as small spherical cells rather than being biconcave.

These spherical cells easily rupture by slight compression

Genetic mutation causing abnormal beta chains

When this hemoglobin is exposed to low O₂ concentrations precipitates into long crystals
cause the cells to become sickle-shaped

Sickle-cell Anemia

Hemolytic Anemia

Different abnormalities of RBCs that make RBCs fragile and rupture easily

Types of Hemolysis of Erythrocytes

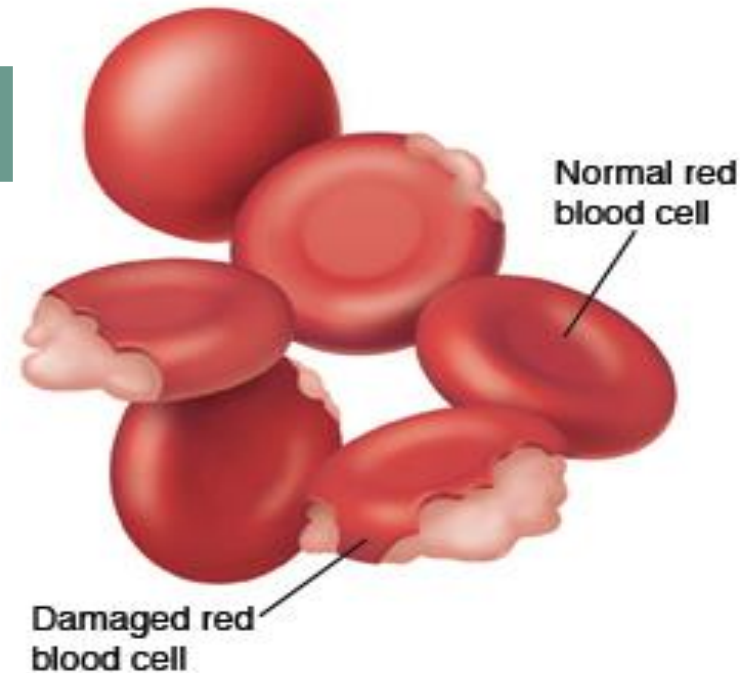
Osmotic

Mechanical

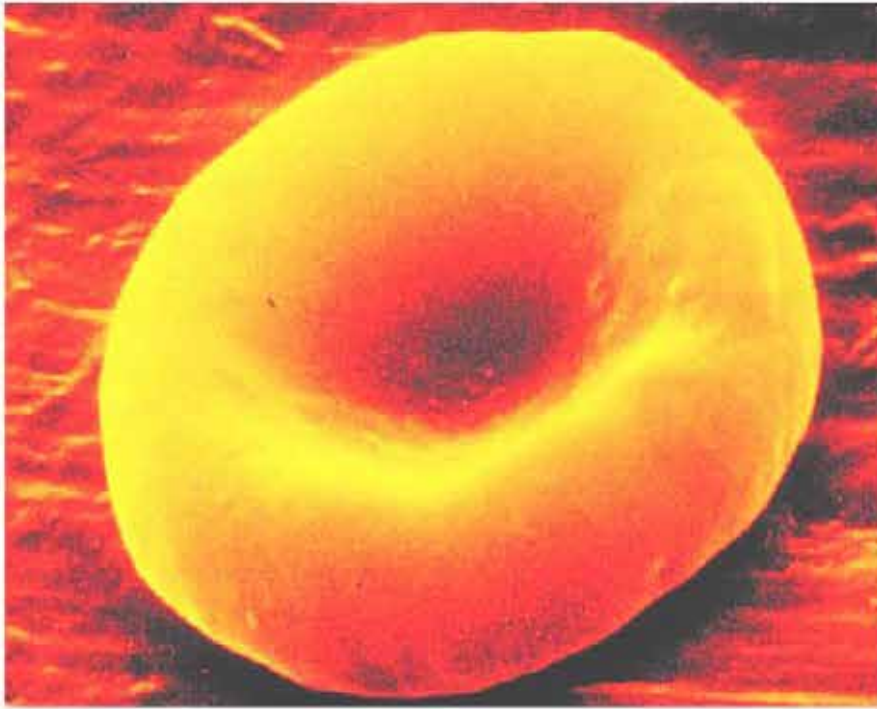
Thermal

Biological

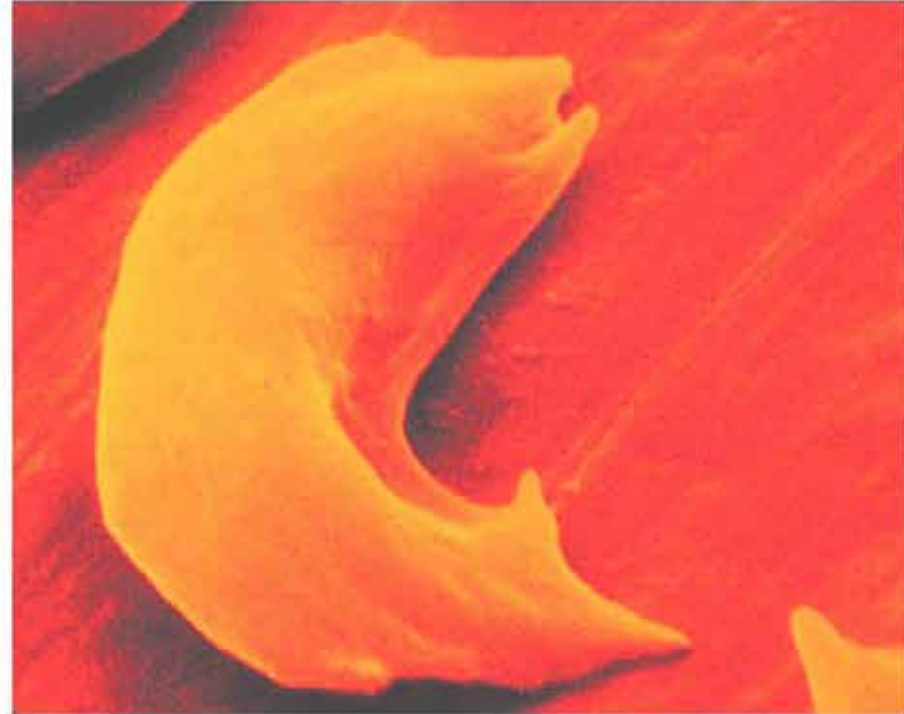
Chemical



Normal versus sickled erythrocyte



(a)



(b)

Some Types of Anemia

Type	Cause	Defect
Aplastic anemia	Toxic chemicals, radiation	Damaged bone marrow
Hemolytic anemia	Toxic chemicals	Red blood cells destroyed
Iron deficiency anemia	Dietary lack of iron	Hemoglobin deficient
Pernicious anemia	Inability to absorb vitamin B ₁₂	Excess of large, fragile cells
Sickle cell disease	Defective gene	Red blood cells abnormally shaped
Thalassemia	Defective gene	Hemoglobin deficient; red blood cells short-lived

Haemoglobin: the key to successful gas carriage

α chains : chromosome 16(4 α genes)

Non- α genes: chromosome 11

Defects in globin chain synthesis(deletions or mutations) = Thalassaemia

α thalassaemia: deletion of one to four of the α genes

Deletion of all four α genes is fatal

Non- α thalassaemias : gene deletion or transcription failures.

Outcome: Reduction in oxygen-carrying capacity of the haemoglobin

