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PMN adhesion molecules?

B2-integrins

What activates adhesion molecules

LTB4, C5a, IL-8

What effect will catecholamines, Li, and CS have on adhesion molecules?

Inhibits activation, therefore get increase # in peripheral blood

Endothelial cell adhesion molecules?

ICAM, VCAM

What mediates activation of endothelial cell adhesion molecules?

IL-1 and TNF

<p>Infant presents with severe gingivitis, poor wound healing, leukocytosis. What is the defect / disorder / other finding?</p>	<p>LAD - AR disorder due to 1) B2-Integrin disorder (CD11a:CD18)</p> <p>Delayed separation of umbilical cord (>1mo) - PMNs are impt in cord separation</p> <p>2) Selectin (that bind PMN) deficiency</p>
<p>Where is the O₂-dependent MPO system found?</p>	<p>PMNs and monocytes, NOT macrophages</p>
<p>Difference in DZ presentation between infection with Cat⁺ and Cat⁻ organism in GCD?</p>	<p>Cat⁺: NADPH oxidase absent, therefore NO O₂ to Superoxide conversion, therefore NO superoxide to H₂O₂ conversion by SOD. Since cat⁺, the organism will degrade the H₂O₂ before it can be combined with Cl by MPO to make bleach.</p> <p>Cat⁻: Even res burst absent, can still use h₂o₂ in cell + cl = bleach</p>
<p>O₂ independent killing?</p>	<p>Lactoferrin binds iron necessary for bacterial reproduction</p> <p>Major basic protein from eosin that is toxic to helminths</p>

<p>Outline the metabolism of AA?</p>	<p>Cell membrane phospholipids (Phospholipase A2) AA 1.(5-lipoxygenase) LTC4 D4 E4 = vessel permeabil 2. (COX) PGG2 PGH2 PGE2 = pain, fever a. (Thromboxane synthase) TXA2 = Vasoconstriction b. (Prostacyclin synthase) PGI2 = Vasodilation</p>
<p>Role of fever in Hb-dissoc curve?</p>	<p>R shift curve making more O2 available for Resp. burst / MPO killing</p>
<p>Identify plasma cell on slide?</p>	<p>Eccentric nucleus with perinuclear clearing</p>
<p>G1 phase</p>	<p>Mosat variable phase of cell cycle Syn of RNA, protein, organelles, and cyclin D</p>
<p>G2 phase</p>	<p>Syn of tubulin necessary for M phase</p>
<p>Most critical phase in cell cycle?</p>	<p>G1 to S phase Controlled by RB and P53</p>

Mediators of leukocyte margination	Selectins mediate margination. P and E selectins on endothelium bind Sialyl-Lewis on leukocyte; GlyCAM/CD34 on endothelium binds L-selectin on leukocyte
Mediators of leukocyte adhesion	Integrins mediate adhesion. ICAM, VCAM on endothelium bind LFA-1 and VLA on leukocyte
Regulators of leukocyte margination and adhesion	Histamine upregulates P-selectin. IL-1 and TNF induce E-selectin, ICAM and VCAM. Chemotactic agents cause conformational change of LFA-1
Leukocyte adhesion deficiency	Defect of CD18 (beta chain subunit of LFA-1 integrin on leukocytes). Recurrent infections, no pus formation, failure of umbilical cord to detach
Chemotactic factors	N-formyl methionine, leukotriene B4, C5a, IL-8
Opsonins	Fc portion of IgG, c3b, C reactive protein
Chediak-Higashi syndrome	Defect of microtubule polymerization causes defect in chemotaxis and degranulation. Partial albinism, peripheral neuropathy

CGD	NADPH oxidase deficiency. No production of superoxide for respiratory burst. Recurrent catalase+ infections, negative nitroblue tetrazolium test
Arachidonic acid products	AA producedd by phospholipase A2 (inhibited by steroids). Produces leukotrienes, prostaglandins and thromboxane A2
Lypoxigenase pathway	Arachidonic acid is converted to leukotrienes by 5-lypoxigenase. LTB4 --> chemotaxis. LTC4, D4, E4 --> bronchoconstriction
Cycloxigenase pathway	Arachidonic acid is converted to TXA2 and prostaglandins (NSAIDs block). TXA2 --> vasoconstriction, platelet aggregator. PGI2, PGE2, PGF2
Mediators of vasodilation	Histamine , bradikinin, PGI2, PGD2, E2, F2
Mediators of pain	Bradikinin, PGE2
Mediators of increased permeability	Histamine, Bradikinin

Mediators of vasoconstriction	TXA2, LTC4, D4, E4
Mediators of bronchoconstriction	LTC4, D4, E4, bradikinin
Mediators of fever	IL-1, PGD2, E2, F2
Anaphilotoxins	C3a, C5a. Directly stimulate histamine release from basophils, mast cells and platelets
C3b	Opsonin; neutrophils, macrophages and monocytes have C3b receptors
Bradikinin synthesis and actions	Synthesized from activation of prekalikrein by factor XII (Hageman). Kalikrein cleaves HMWK into bradikinin. Vasodilator, increased permeability, bronchoconstrictor, pain
PGE2	Vasodilation in kidneys, increases renal blood flow, increases gastric mucosal blood flow (mucoprotection), activates osteoclasts, fever, pain, maintains ductus arteriosus

Prostacyclin (PGI₂)

Vasodilation and inhibits platelet aggregation

IL-1

Stimulates PGE₂ synthesis in hypothalamus --> fever; B-cell stimulation to synthesize Ig; osteoclast activation (released by osteoblasts under PTH stimulation); lytic bone lesions of multiple myeloma; increases adhesion molecules in endothelium; increases acute phase reactants

Hageman factor

Activates intrinsic coagulation system, kinin cascade and fibrinolytic system

PGF

Uterine muscle contraction (cause of primary amenorrhea)

gamma interferon

Produced by CD4 cells and NK cells. Activates macrophages; antiviral properties; class I and class II antigens; increases IL-2, IL-12 production by CD4 cells

IL-2

Produced by CD4 cells. T cell growth factor. Promotes B cell and NK cell proliferation

IL-6	Synthesis of acute phase reactants
Factors that increase adhesion molecule synthesis	C5a, LTB4, IL-1, TNF
Key cells in acute and chronic inflammation	Acute: neutrophil has IgG and C3b receptors; Chronic: macrophage has receptors for IgG and C3b, process antigen and secrete IL-1, IL-12 and TNF
Chronic granulomatous inflammation	Epithelioid cells and multinucleated giant cells surrounded by a rim of lymphocytes with central caseous necrosis
Type I collagen	skin, bones, tendons and most organs
Type II collagen	Cartilage and vitreous humor
Type III collagen	granulation tissue

Type IV collagen

basement membranes

Composition of basement membranes

Has negative charge. Collagen type IV, proteoglycans (heparan sulfate), laminin, fibronectin

Fibronectin

Binds collagen, fibrin and integrins; adhesion glycoprotein of extracellular matrix; chemotactic for fibroblasts and endothelial cells

VEGF

vascular endothelial growth factor; important in angiogenesis

FGF

Fibroblast growth factor; important in angiogenesis

PDGF

Stimulates granulation tissue formation; stimulates proliferation of smooth muscle, fibroblasts and endothelium

Laminin

Adhesion protein in basement membranes; binds type IV collagen, integrins and ECM components

<p>Prostaglandins source?</p>	<p>Macrophages, endothelial cells, platelets PGH2: major precursor of PGs and thromboxanes</p>
<p>Prostaglandins function?</p>	<p>PGE2: vasodilation, pain, fever PGI2: vasodilation; inhibition of platelet aggregation</p>
<p>Thromboxane A2 source?</p>	<p>Platelets Converted from PGH2 by thromboxane synthase</p>
<p>Thromboxane A2 function?</p>	<p>Vasoconstriction, platelet aggregation</p>
<p>Leukotrienes (LTs) source?</p>	<p>Leukocytes Converted from arachidonic acid by lipoxygenase-mediated hydroxylation</p>
<p>Leukotrienes (LTs) function?</p>	<p>1) LTB4: chemotaxis and activation of neutrophil adhesion molecules LTC4, LTD4, LTE4: vasoconstriction, increased venular permeability, bronchoconstriction 2) Zileuton inhibits 5-lipoxygenase: ↓ synthesis LTB4, LTC4, LTD4, LTE4 3) Montelukast leukotriene receptor antagonist: ↓ synthesis LTC4, LTD4, LTE4</p>

<p>Bradykinin source?</p>	<p>Product of kinin system activation by activated factor XII</p>
<p>Bradykinin function?</p>	<p>Vasodilation, increased venular permeability, pain</p>
<p>Chemokines Complement source?</p>	<p>Leukocytes, endothelial cells Synthesized in liver (acute phase reactant)</p>
<p>Chemokines Complement function?</p>	<p>Activate neutrophil chemotaxis C3a, C5a (anaphylatoxins): stimulate mast cell release of histamine C3b: opsonization C5a: activation of neutrophil adhesion molecules, chemotaxis C5-C9 (membrane attack complex): cell lysis</p>
<p>Cytokines IL-1, TNF source?</p>	<p>Macrophages (main source), monocytes, dendritic cells, endothelial cells</p>

Cytokines
IL-1, TNF

function?

- 1) Initiate PGE2 synthesis in anterior hypothalamus, leading to production of fever
- 2) Activate endothelial cell adhesion molecules
- 3) Increase liver synthesis of acute-phase reactants, such as ferritin, coagulation factors (e.g., fibrinogen), and C-reactive protein
- 4) Increase release of neutrophils from bone marrow (neutrophil leukocytosis)
- 5) TNF is a promoter of apoptosis

Cytokines
IL-6

source?

Macrophages (main source),
monocytes, dendritic cells,
endothelial cells

Cytokines
IL-6

function?

Increase liver synthesis of acute
phase reactants

Cytokines
IL-8

source?

Macrophages (main source),
monocytes, dendritic cells,
endothelial cells

Cytokines
IL-8

function?

Chemotaxis

Histamine

source?

Mast cells (primary cell), platelets,
enterochromaffin cells

<p>Histamine function?</p>	<p>Vasodilation, increased venular permeability</p>
<p>Nitric oxide (NO) source?</p>	<p>1) Macrophages, endothelial cells 2) Free radical gas released during conversion of arginine to citrulline by NO synthase</p>
<p>Nitric oxide (NO) function?</p>	<p>Vasodilation, bactericidal</p>
<p>Serotonin source?</p>	<p>Platelets</p>
<p>Serotonin function?</p>	<p>Vasodilation, increased venular permeability, increases collagen synthesis</p>
<p>Pathogenesis acute inflammation? chronic inflammation?</p>	<p>acute = Microbial pathogens, trauma, burns chronic = Persistent acute inflammation, foreign bodies (e.g., silicone, glass), autoimmune disease, certain types of infection (e.g., tuberculosis, leprosy)</p>

Primary cells involved
acute inflammation?
chronic inflammation?

acute =
Neutrophils
chronic =
Monocytes/macrophages (key
cells), B and T lymphocytes,
plasma cells, fibroblasts

Primary mediators
acute inflammation?
chronic inflammation?

acute =
Histamine (key mediator),
prostaglandins, leukotrienes
chronic =
Cytokines (e.g., IL-1), growth
factors

Necrosis
acute inflammation?
chronic inflammation?

acute =
Present
chronic =
Less prominent

Scar tissue
acute inflammation?
chronic inflammation?

acute =
Absent
chronic =
Present

Onset
acute inflammation?
chronic inflammation?

acute =
Immediate
chronic =
Delayed

Duration
acute inflammation?
chronic inflammation?

acute =
Few days
chronic =
Weeks, months, years

<p>Outcome acute inflammation? chronic inflammation?</p>	<p>acute = Complete resolution, progression to chronic inflammation, abscess formation chronic = Scar tissue formation, disability, amyloidosis</p>
<p>Main immunoglobulin acute inflammation? chronic inflammation?</p>	<p>acute = IgM chronic = IgG</p>
<p>Serum protein electrophoresis effect acute inflammation? chronic inflammation?</p>	<p>acute = Mild hypoalbuminemia chronic = Polyclonal gammopathy; greater degree of hypoalbuminemia</p>
<p>Peripheral blood leukocyte response acute inflammation? chronic inflammation?</p>	<p>acute = Neutrophilic leukocytosis chronic = Monocytosis</p>
<p>Vascular endothelial cell growth factor (VEGF) Function?</p>	<p>angiogenesis</p>
<p>Basic fibroblast growth factor (BFGF) Function?</p>	<p>angiogenesis</p>
<p>Epidermal growth factor (EGF) Function?</p>	<p>-keratinocyte migration -granulation tissue formation</p>

<p>Platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF)</p> <p>Function?</p>	<p>proliferation of smooth muscle, fibroblasts, endothelial cells</p>
<p>Transforming growth factor-β (TGF-β)</p> <p>Function?</p>	<p>Chemotactic for macrophages, lymphocytes, fibroblasts</p>
<p>Insulin growth factor-1 (IGF-1)</p> <p>Function?</p>	<p>-Stimulates synthesis of collagen -Promotes keratinocyte migration</p>
<p>(Interleukins) IL-1</p> <p>Function?</p>	<p>-Chemotactic for neutrophils -Stimulates synthesis of metalloproteinases (i.e., trace metal containing enzymes) -Stimulates synthesis and release of acute phase reactants from the liver</p>
<p>Why do kids w/ kwashiorkor get protuberant abdomens</p>	<p>dec. protein decreases - decrease in oncotic pressure...ascites</p> <p>Fatty liver because they don't make apoproteins to package the VLDL into (solubilize them) so they get stuck in the liver (VS alcohol where there is increases in synthesis of VLDL)</p>
<p>TOC for any iron related disease?</p>	<p>Ferretin (soluble form of hemosiderin)</p> <p>Stains w/ prussian blue</p>

<p>Metastatic Vs dystrophic calcification?</p>	<p>Metastatic - calcification of normal tissues</p> <p>Dystrophic - calcification of damaged tissue</p>
<p>VHY</p> <p>What is the most common cause of aortic stenosis</p>	<p>Dystrophic calcification on a bicuspid heart valve</p>
<p>Most common cause of hypercalcemia in a healthy person</p> <p>most common cause of hypercalcemia in hospitalized patient</p>	<p>Hyperparathyroidism</p> <p>Medullary carcinoma</p>
<p>VHY</p> <p>RBC lacks central area pallor, DX</p> <p>What is the cell membrane defect?</p>	<p>Spherocytosis</p> <p>Spectrin</p>
<p>What marks intermediate filaments for death?</p>	<p>ubiquitin</p>
<p>Mallory bodies are a sign of?</p>	<p>Alcoholic hepatitis - they are an example of ubiquitinated keratin (intermediate filament)</p>
<p>Neurofibrillary tangles are seen in what two diseases</p> <p>What protein in these patients has been ubiquitinated?</p>	<p>Prominent in - Alzheimers</p> <p>Also seen in - mad cow disease (Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease)</p> <p>Tau protein</p>

<p>VHY</p> <p>Lewy bodies are seen in (red inclusion in a cell) what disease, they are an example of what?</p>	<p>parkinsons disease</p> <p>Obiquinated neurofilament</p> <p>Remember dopamine is deficient in these patients</p>
<p>What are the three types of cells in the body (based on ability to divide)</p>	<p>Stable cells (e.g. fibroblasts, usually resting in Go, and need something needs to stimulate them) - can replicate</p> <p>Labile cells (stem cells, tendency to be in the cell cycle a lot (e.g. skin, base of the crypts, bone marrow))</p> <p>Permantent cells - cannot replicate (cardiac and striated muscle, neurons)</p>
<p>Based on what you know about the labile cells how does it help you predict what will happen to a patient taking chemo drugs that are cell cycle specific or non-specific.</p>	<p>Get rashes, Diarrhea, bone marrow suppression (these are the cells that are dividing frequently)</p>
<p>VHY</p> <p>What is the most variable phase in the cell cycle?</p>	<p>G1</p>
<p>Only muscle that is not a permanent cells?</p> <p>Can it undergo hypertrophy or hyperplasia?</p>	<p>Smooth muscle cells</p> <p>Yes both (other types of muscle can only hypertrophy)</p>

<p>What is hypertrophy and hyperplasia</p>	<p>increase in cell size increase in cell number</p>
<p>If cancer cells has a longer/shorter phase of the cell cycle, what would be responsible for that?</p>	<p>G1 phase</p>
<p>What is the most critical phase in the cell cycle? Why?</p>	<p>G1 to S phase - is something that is mutated gets into this then it will be duplicated and passed on.</p>
<p>What are the 3 different cell types based on potential to divide?</p>	<p>Permanent - don't divide (cardiac, skeletal and neurons) Labile - divide frequently Stable cells - (Go phase, smooth muscle, have to be stimulated to get into growth)</p>
<p>What three areas of the body are usually effected by chemodrugs, why</p>	<p>Skin, bone marrow and GI tract (base of the crypts) That's where stem cells are found and they are rapidly dividing. (common ADR of chemo drugs are no surprise then: skin problems, diarrhea/N/V, bone marrow suppression)</p>
<p>VHY What is the only muscle that is not permanent, why is this important?</p>	<p>Smooth muscle it can undergo hypertrophy and hyperplasia (other types of muscle only hypertrophy)</p>

<p>What happens in each of the phases of the cell cycle: G0, G1, S, G2, M phase</p>	<p>G0 - resting phase, most parenchymal cells</p> <p>G1 - synthesis of RNA, protein, organelles and cyclin D (master mind)</p> <p>S - synthesis RNA and DNA (everything doubled, 4N)</p> <p>G2 - synthesis of tubulin (for mitotic spindle)</p> <p>M- two daughter cells produced</p>
<p>VHY</p> <p>What is the most critical phase in the cell cycle?</p>	<p>G1 to S phase (after this can't repair any defects, and cell will go on to divide)</p>
<p>VHY*****</p> <p>Describe the regulation of the G1 checkpoint</p>	<p>Cyclin D binds to Cyclin-dependent kinase 4 (Cdk4)(activating it) and causes the cell to go into S phase</p> <p>RB (retinoblastoma)supperesor gene stops the cell in the G1 phase. CDK4 phosphoylates RB causing the cell to enter the S phase</p> <p>TP53 - inhibits CDK4 allowing the cell to repair DNA in the cell</p>
<p>VHY*****</p> <p>what genes stop the G1 from going to the S phase?</p>	<p>RB and TP53</p>

<p>VHY If DNA damage is really bad what does TP53 do?</p>	<p>activates BAX gene resulting in apoptosis</p>
<p>What is the number one gene for human cancer</p>	<p>RB suppressor gene</p>
<p>HPV inactivates what two genes to cause cancer</p>	<p>E6 gene product - P53 E7 gene product - RB suppressor gene</p>
<p>Retinoblastoma, osteogenic sarcoma (codmans triangle) are example of cancers caused by?</p>	<p>loss of RB suppressor gene</p>
<p>What stage of the cell cycle do vinka alkaloids, paclitaxel, etoposide, methotrexate</p>	<p>V - mitotic spindle P - M phase E - G2 Colchizine Methotrexate - S phase</p>
<p>Patient has moring stiffness and presents w/ a macrocytic anemia what is the drug responsible and what phase does it work at</p>	<p>Methotrexate blockinng dihydrofolate reductase Acts at the S phase</p>

<p>this drug Used to be used in the tx of gouty arthritis, what phase of the cell cycle does it act at?</p>	<p>colchicine, M -phase</p>
<p>Drug is made from a yew tree and is chemotherapy agent what is the drug</p>	<p>paclitaxol</p>
<p>Vinka alkaloids are derived from?</p>	<p>periwinkle plants</p>
<p>VHY What is atrophy</p>	<p>decrease in the size of tissue or organ</p>
<p>What is the MCC of hydronephrosis, what morphologic change occurs to the kidney (i.e. growth alteration)</p>	<p>stone in the ureter compression atrophy of cortex and medulla</p>
<p>Two common causes of atrophied brain</p>	<p>Atherosclerosis (from dec. blood flow) Alzhiemers (killed neurons in layers 3, 5 and 6 related to beta amyloid protien)</p>
<p>VHY** Pituitary hypopituitarism causes what growth alteration of the adrenal gland</p>	<p>atrophy of the zona fasciculata (cortisol) and reticularis (17 ketosteroids) but not glomerulosa, ACTH stimulates the later two and is absent.</p>

<p>VHY** What is the growth alteration to the pancreas in a kid w/ cystic fibrosis, why?</p>	<p>atrophy ducts are blocked and the exocrine glands get back pressure from the blockage and atrophy results (similar to what happens to the kidney in hydronephrosis from back up of urine)</p>
<p>VHY patient has Atrophy of one kidney resulting from renal vascular HTN (atherosclerosis of the aorta) what will the renin levels be at this kidney? What happens to the other kidney?</p>	<p>high Renin hypertrophy it will have low renin levels</p>
<p>what causes the atrophy of cells</p>	<p>increased catabolism of cell organelles and reduction in cytosol</p>
<p>What is brown atrophy</p>	<p>tissue discoloration that results from lysosomal accumulation of lipofuscin</p>
<p>VHY Hypertrophy Vs hyperplasia</p>	<p>size of the cell, hyperplasia is an increase in cell number</p>
<p>VHY Hyperplasia left unchecked leads to?</p>	<p>CANCER Estrogen causes hyperplasia and progesterone undoes it (causes sloughing of the lining)</p>

<p>When does hyperplasia not lead to cancer?</p>	<p>BPH - from being overstimulated by dihydrotestosterone</p>
<p>Gravid uterus (uterus after delivery) is an example of what type of growth alteration</p>	<p>50 % hypertrophy and 50% hyperplasia</p>
<p>See a bone marrow aspirate full of RBC's (normally 3x as many wbc compared to RBC), in a patient w/ COPD why?</p>	<p>COPD - hypoxemia causes endothelial cells of the peritubular capillaries to release erythropoietin</p>
<p>Psoriasis is an example of what type of growth alteration</p>	<p>hyperplasia</p>
<p>why does methotrexate work in patients w/ Psoriasis</p>	<p>works on the cell w/ unregulated w/ hyperplasia</p>
<p>What growth alteration is seen in BPH to the prostate and the bladder</p>	<p>P - hyperplasia (hormone stimulation always causes hyperplasia) Bladder - hypertrophy from increased load, urine backs up</p>
<p>Hypocalcemia causes what type of tissue growth alteration of the parathyroid gland?</p>	<p>hyperplasia</p>

<p>Growth alterations occur in response to what?</p>	<p>adaptation to cell injury</p>
<p>What is metaplasia?</p>	<p>once cell type replaced by another</p>
<p>The distal esophagus shows an increase in goblet cells and mucous secreting glands from Reflux, what type of growth alteration is this?</p> <p>What is the Dx</p>	<p>metaplasia (normally it is non-keratinized Str. squ.)</p> <p>Barrets esophagus - precursor for adenocarcinoma</p>
<p>Patient has schistosoma hematobium infection of the bladder, what cell growth alteration could occur, what could this lead to?</p>	<p>Transitional epithelium undergoes squamous metaplasia... can lead to squamous cell carcinoma</p>
<p>H. pylori can cause what type of cell growth alteration?</p>	<p>metaplasia - more glandular type from chronic atrophic gastritis</p>
<p>VHY</p> <p>What is metaplasia?</p>	<p>replacement of one cell type for another, these cells are less sensitive to a particular stress</p>
<p>Increased Goblets cells (from smoking) in the main stem bronchus and in the terminal bronchus is an example of what type of cellular adaptation?</p>	<p>Main stem bronchus - hyperplasia</p> <p>Terminal bronchus - metaplasia</p>

<p>Is it normal to have goblet cells in the stomach?</p> <p>What type of cellular adaptation is this</p>	<p>no - example of metaplasia</p>
<p>Most common cause of adenocarcinoma of the stomach?</p>	<p>H. Pylori - induced chronic atrophic gastritis resulting in metaplasia</p>
<p>Hypersecretion of trophic hormones, chronic irritation, and hypocalcemia are all examples of?</p>	<p>hyperplasia</p>
<p>What does unopposed estrogen do to the endometrial lining, what can this lead to?</p>	<p>Hyperplasia- increased risk of progression to endometrial carcinoma</p>
<p>What is dysplasia, what are the risk factors for this?</p>	<p>disordered cell growth</p> <p>Risk factors - Hyperplasia and metaplasia</p>
<p>The distal esophagus shows increase in goblet cells and mucus secreting cells in response to acid reflux, this is an example of what type of cellular adaptation?</p>	<p>Metaplasia - called barrets esophagus</p>
<p>The mainstem bronchus epithelium develops squamous cells in response to cigarette smoke.this is an example of what type of cellular adaptation?</p>	<p>Metaplasia - which may progress to SCC</p>

<p>Why does metaplasia occur</p>	<p>to help protect us from whatever is irritating</p>
<p>Shistosomiasis hematobium causes what type of cellular adaptation in the bladder?</p>	<p>transitional cell epithelium-squamous metaplasia-squamous dysplaisa to SCC</p>
<p>The endocervical epithelium responds to the acid pH in the vagina by what type of cellular adaptation?</p>	<p>Squamous metaplasia</p>
<p>Dysplasia is actually atypical hyperplasia</p>	<p>can see that it lacks orientation</p>
<p>Dysplasia is a precursor for?</p>	<p>cancer</p>
<p>Farmer presents w/ a lesion in a sun exposed area that he scrapped off and it grew back, DX?</p>	<p>actinic keratosis - precursor for SCC of the skin</p>

Define the cardinal features of inflammation and list what causes each: Rubor, Tumor and Dolor?

redness - Histamine causes Vasodilation of arterioles

Swelling - Histamine causes contraction of endothelial cells creating gaps between venules (arterioles are thicker).

Pain- Prostaglandins sensitizes the nerve endings to the effects of bradykinin

Whenever the intrinsic pathway is activated so is bradykinin by Hagermans factor, what degrades bradykinin?

Angiotensin converting enzyme

How does angioedema result from inhibiting angiotensin converting enzyme?

Don't inhibit bradykinin which can cause vessel permeability

What is the primary leukocyte involved in acute inflammation?

Neutrophil

Describe the important sequence of cellular events of neutrophils that occur in acute inflammation

margination - neutrophils line up at the periphery of blood vessels

Rolling - loosely bind on the surface of endothelial cells

Adhesion - firmly bind to endothelial cells

Transmission - diapedesis (transmigration)

Chemotaxis - neutrophils follow a chemical gradient

phagocytosis - kill the bugs

WHY

what is responsible for the rolling that the neutrophils do?

Selectins

WHY

what is responsible for neutrophil adhesion?

B2-integrin

WHY

What type of collagenase do neutrophils have?

TYPE IV - to drill hole through the BM

Cancer cells also have this to get into tissue

What are the things involved in neutrophil chemotaxis

C5a and LTB4

VHY**

If there is delayed separation of the umbilical cord (greater than 1 month) then what is the problem most likely?

Baby will also have gingivitis, poor wound healing and peripheral blood neutrophilic leukocytosis

Leukocyte adhesion deficiency (LAD) selectin or CD11a:CD18 deficiency specifically

VHY

What enhances neutrophil recognition and phagocytosis, what molecules are involved?

opsonization

IgG and C3b

VHY

What is a disease where there is an opsonization defect, these kids usually die from infection?

Bruton's agammaglobulinemia

VHY****

Can't phosphorylate mannose residues in the Golgi apparatus so enzymes are not marked w/ phosphors and can't be packaged into the lysosomes and are empty, Disease?

I-cell disease

Macrophages do not have this type of bug killing system?

Myeloperoxidase system

VHY***

Where is most NADPH made?

pentose phosphate pathway

<p>In this disease you cannot form a phagolysosomes so lysosomes don't fuse w/ phagosomes and dump in there hydrolytic enzymes?</p>	<p>chediak-Higashi syndrome, defect in membrane fusion</p>
<p>VHY***** (know this pathway) Oxygen dependent myeloperoxidase (MPO) - only monocytes and neutrophils have it</p>	<p>IT IS THE MOST POTENT MICROBICIDAL SYSTEM</p>
<p>What bug can get out of a phagolysosome?</p>	<p>chlamydia</p>
<p>VHY*** What two cells have the oxygen dependent myeloperoxidase (MPO) system?</p>	<p>monocytes and neutrophils (macrophages lose this system)</p>
<p>VHY**** Describe the steps to the MPO system?</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. NADPH oxidase convert oxygen to superoxide free radical (O₂ w/ unpaired electron,) respirator burst 2. superoxide dismutase then convert superoxide free radical to H₂O₂ 3. Myeloperoxidase combines H₂O₂ w/ chloride to form bleach (hypochlorous free radicals HOCL w/ unpaired electron)...this kills bacteria
<p>VHY*** what is the end product of MPO system?</p>	<p>BLEACH</p>

<p>VHY*** where does the NADPH come from that NADPH oxidase of the MPO system uses?</p>	<p>Pentose phosphate pathway (HMP shunt)</p>
<p>VHY*** What are the steps of the pentose phosphate pathway?</p>	<p>I think it is easier to understand going backwards and starting from the purpose</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Reduced glutathione is used to make H₂O₂ into 2 H₂O molecules 2. Oxidized glutathione is then then reduced again by glutathione reductase by the cofactor NADPH 3. NADPH is generated by glucose-6-phosphage dehydrogenase the rate limiting enzyme/step of the this pathway;
<p>VHY*** This disease is characterized by a deficient NADPH oxidase in the cell membrane of neutrophils, DX?</p>	<p>Chronic granulomatis disease - absent NADPH oxidase which is responsible for producing the respiratory burst.</p>
<p>VHY*** What infections are patients w/ chronic granulomatous disease particularly sensitive to, why?</p>	<p>Catalase positive organims (STAPH) that produce H₂O₂ are ingested but not killed because catalase can degrade H₂O₂. remember they have MPO but HOCL is not formed becaue of the abscence of H₂O₂</p>
<p>VHY*** What bugs can a patient w/ chronic granulomatous disease kill?</p>	<p>Catalase negative (streptococcus) - H₂O₂ (made by all living organisms)and MPO can then use it to make bleach and kill the organism.</p>

<p>What is the classic screening test for CGD (chronic granulomatous disease)?</p>	<p>Nitroblue tetrazolium test (NBT) dye turns blue if the respiratory burst is intact.</p>
<p>IN MPO deficiency what happens during the NBT TEST?</p>	<p>shows a respiratory burst but they can't form bleach.</p>
<p>what are the red azurophilic granules</p>	<p>lysosomes</p>
<p>VHY*** What are the reservoir cells for AIDS in the brain and outside the brain?</p>	<p>microglial cells - reservoir cells in the CNS dendritic cells - in the lymph nodes</p>
<p>Why is infection the most common precipitating factor of hemolysis in patients who are G6PD deficient?</p>	<p>NO NADPH - functioning MPO system so sets off hemolysis of RBC</p>
<p>What is the inheritance of CGD of childhood?</p>	<p>X-linked recessive?</p>
<p>VHY CGD and MPO deficiency are microbiocidal defect diseases, what is the main mechanism difference between these two diseases?</p>	<p>NO RESPIRATORY BURST IS PRODUCED IN CGD NO BLEACH CAN BE MADE IN MPO deficiency disease.</p>

VHY****

What is the defect or problem when the umbilical cord does not fall off and you see an absence of neutrophils/inflammatory cells in the blood vessels of the umbilical cord

adhesion molecule defect, the neutrophils can't ADHERE and produce an inflammatory RXN

WHAT is the precursor AA for serotonin? what is the source of serotonin?

Tryptophan

MAST cells and platelets - causes vasodilation and increased vessel permeability

VHY***

Where are the complement molecules synthesized?

MADE IN THE LIVER

Which ones are the anaphylatoxins, how do they cause anaphylaxis?

C3a and C5a (anaphylatoxins) - stimulate mast cells to release histamine (VASODILATION AND VESSEL PERMEABILITY; i.e. redness and swelling)

VHY

What activates the kinin system?

activated Factor XII so if the the coagulation cascade is activated then you will activate bradykinin causing vasodilation

VHY***

How does IL-1 cause fever?

causes production of prostaglandins in the hypothalamus resulting in fever

VHY***

Where is NO primarily made and what does it cause?

endothelial cells...causes vasodilation

<p>WHY*** which molecule of the complement system is responsible for opsonization?</p>	<p>C3b</p>
<p>What do corticosteroids inhibit?</p>	<p>Phospholipase A2...don't release arachidonic acid no leukotrienes or prostaglandins are blocked</p>
<p>OMEGA 6 fatty acids results in the production</p>	<p>Linoleic acid - inhibits</p>
<p>What is the source of Leukotrienes and which one is involved in chemotaxis and neutrophil adhesion? blocked by Zileuton</p>	<p>LTB4 leukotrienes are converted from arachidonic acid by lipoxygenase-mediated hydroxylation</p>
<p>Which of the leukotrienes is involved in vasoconstriction and bronchoconstriction***, What drug inhibits these molecules?</p>	<p>LTC4, LTD4 and LTE4 Zileuton (asthma drug) - Blocks 5-lipoxygenase inhibiting production of leukotrienes</p>
<p>VHY** What are the arachidonic acid metabolites</p>	<p>Prostaglandins, thromboxane A2 and leukotrienes</p>
<p>What does thromboxane A2 do?</p>	<p>From platelets and is converted from pGH2 by thromboxane synthase to thromboxane A2 Causes vasoconstriction and platelet aggregation</p>

<p>What does aspirin inhibit?</p>	<p>cyclooxygenase - irreversible, stops production of arachidonic acid metabolites (NSAIDs and ibuprofen also inhibit COX)</p>
<p>What is the major precursor of PGs and thromboxanes?</p>	<p>PGH₂</p>
<p>VHY*** what does PGE₂ do?</p>	<p>vasodilation, pain and fever, keeps patent ductus open, vasodilates arteries of the kidney, and stimulates the mucous barrier for the stomach, causes uterine dysmenorrhea, uterine contraction...</p>
<p>What does PGI₂ (prostacyclin synthase) do? Made in the endothelial cells</p>	<p>Vasodilation, inhibition of platelet aggregation (opposite of Thromboxane A₂)</p>
<p>what inhibits thromboxane synthase. Used in doing stress test on coronary arteries w/o out doing the treadmill thing</p>	<p>Dipyridamol</p>
<p>VHY*** functions of Corticosteroids or cortisol.</p>	<p>phospholipase A₂ inhibitor (anti-inflammatory), dec. adhesion molecule synthesis through epinephrine increase (increases the neutrophil count), destroys B and T cells (apoptosis-caspases signaling), dec. eosinophils</p>

What happens in Addison's disease to the neutrophil count and the eosinophil count?	Neutrophil count dec. and eosinophil increases
Why do people who have an MI have an elevated neutrophil count?	epinephrine increases and it decreases adhesion molecule synthesis causing the neutrophil count to go up.
WHY What is the most important mediator of acute inflammation?	Histamine
What neutralizes Oxidized LDL?	Vitamin E
WHAT DOES THE ROUGH ER MAKE	PROTEIN
Plasma cells derive from what cell and area?	From the germinal follicle B cells
What are Charcot-Leyden crystals?	Degenerated eosinophils, ONLY INFLAMMATORY CELLS w/ crystals in its granules causing this appearance. seen in asthma

<p>How are helminths destroyed? what type of hypersensitivity is this?</p>	<p>Histamine attaches to IgE antibodies and releases its chemicals one being Major basic protein which can put holes in the worm</p> <p>Type II hypersensitivity</p>
<p>What is the effector cell of Type I vs II hypersensitivity?</p>	<p>Type I - mast cells - eosinophils are involved but they are invited</p> <p>TYPE II is the eosinophil</p>
<p>This type of Hypersensitivity is IgE mediated activation of mast cells and produces an inflammatory reaction</p>	<p>TYPE I</p>
<p>This type of hypersensitivity is antibody-dependent cytotoxic reactions?</p>	<p>TYPE II</p>
<p>Epstein barr virus hooks into what receptor on B cells?</p>	<p>CD21</p>
<p>What does fever do to the oxygen dissociation curve, why is this important?</p>	<p>shifts it to the right - so that more oxygen can get to tissue so for oxygen dependent killing of bugs</p>
<p>VHY Postpartum women has pus coming out of lactiferous duct, BUG?</p>	<p>Staph aureus</p>

<p>VHY</p> <p>bone pain in a child that had sepsis, in metaphysis of bone there is a yellow area that was an abscess, DX and bug?</p> <p>What if the patient has sickle cell disease?</p>	<p>Osteomyelitis - staph.</p> <p>Salmonella</p>
<p>Why does osteomyelitis occur in the metaphysis of bone?</p>	<p>that's where the blood supply is, that means it gets there hematogenously</p>
<p>Hot, red area of the face, Dx and bug?</p>	<p>Cellulitis, most common cause is strep Pyogenes</p>
<p>What two bugs produce pseudomembranous inflammation?</p>	<p>C. difficile (in the colon) and Corynebacterium diphtheriae (produces a pseudomembrane in the pharynx and trachea, EF2 is involved)</p>
<p>What does fibrinous inflammation result from?</p>	<p>Increased vessel permeability, w/ deposition of a fibrin rich exudate (example is fibrinous pericarditis, bread and butter appearance)</p>
<p>Most common bug producing infection in 3rd degree burn patient?</p>	<p>Pseudomonas aureginosa - green color pus by the pigment pyocyanin</p>

<p>VHY** Most common cause of skin abscess is?</p>	<p>staph aureus</p>
<p>VHY** How does Staph produce an abscess?</p>	<p>Contains COAGULASE, which cleaves fibrinogen into fibrin and traps bacteria and neutrophils.</p>
<p>THE KEY SIGN FOR HEALING OF A WOUND IS</p>	<p>Granulation tissue</p>
<p>Most common heart lesion in SLE, this lesion is also seen in the first week after an MI, and produced by Coxsackie virus*****, DX what do you here on physical diagnosis?</p>	<p>Bread and butter lesion resulting from fibrinous pericarditis, there is a friction rub on auscultation</p>
<p>What is the pseudomembrane produced by C. difficile and C. diphtheriae?</p>	<p>Yellowish colored exudate and necrosis</p>
<p>What is the most common cause of chronic inflammation?</p>	<p>infection</p>
<p>VHY what are the primary leukocytes seen in chronic inflammation?</p>	<p>Monocytes and macrophages will also see lymphocytes and plasma cells and eosinophil.</p>

<p>VHY*** What is granulation tissue? What is it converted into?</p>	<p>Highly vascular tissue full of newly formed blood vessels and activated fibroblasts...is essential for normal wound healing and is converted into scar tissue</p> <p>that's what bleed</p>
<p>VHY*** What molecule is essential for granulation tissue to form?</p>	<p>FIBRONECTIN (binds collagen type III**)-key adhesion glycoprotein in ECM (extracellular matrix)...is a chemotactic factor that attracts fibroblasts (collagen synth.) and endothelial cells (angiogenesis)</p>
<p>Describe where the following types of collagen are found: TYPE I TYPE II TYPE III TYPE IV</p>	<p>I - bone, skin, tendons, strong tensile strength II III - wound healing IV - basement membrane</p>
<p>NO GRANULATION then no?</p>	<p>wound healing</p>
<p>What are the two general processes of tissue repair?</p>	<p>Parenchymal cell regeneration Repair by CT (fibrosis)</p>
<p>What does the BAX gene do and what activates it?</p>	<p>activated TP53 and initiates apoptosis</p>

<p>Restoration to normal of tissue requires preservation of the basement membrane, what is the key adhesion protein in the BM?</p>	<p>Laminin</p>
<p>VHY*** A lack of zinc results in poor wound healing, WHY?</p>	<p>Zinc is a co-factor of the collagenase that converts type III collagen to Type I. Type III is the initial collagen seen in wound healing and it is later (about 3 weeks) converted to type I and this rxn requires zinc</p>
<p>MCC of poor wound healing?</p>	<p>infection, usually staph A.</p>
<p>Patient presents w/ poor wound healing, hypermobile joints, and ecchymoses, DX? What is the cause? What is the MCC of death in these patients?</p>	<p>Ehlers-Danlos syndrome (EDS) defects in type I and III collagen usually die of an aortic dissection.</p>
<p>When does tissue repair by primarily fibrosis occur?</p>	<p>Sever or persistent injury Example is tissue in a third-degree burn cannot be restored to normal</p>

<p>VHY</p> <p>What are the steps in tissue repair?</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Neutrophils - liquify injured tissue and Macrophages remove debris 2. Granulation tissue forms (blood vessels and fibrosis) 3. Production of collagen (type III) 4. scar tissue from granulation tissue is remodeled (increases tensile strength by metalloproteinase (collagenase) replaces type III collagen for type I
<p>VHY**</p> <p>What co-factor does the metalloproteninase need to convert type III collagen to type I?</p>	<p>ZINC</p>
<p>VHY**</p> <p>When type III collagen is layed down it is cross-linked to increase tensile strength, what enzyme does this and what co-factor is required?</p>	<p>Lysl oxidase: cross-links alpha chains; copper a cofactor</p>
<p>VHY***</p> <p>Patient has poor wound helaing, hemarthroses, bleeding of the gums, DX?</p> <p>Explain the problem</p>	<p>SCURVY - lack of vitamin C, leads to decreased cross-linking of proline and lysine residues of collagen.***</p> <p>collagen has weak tensile strength because you can't form cross bridges***</p>
<p>How do glucocorticoids effet wound healing?</p>	<p>prevent formation and dec. tensile strength resulting in scar fomration</p>

<p>Scar tissue in third degree burns can result in what cancer?</p>	<p>SCC</p>
<p>Chronically draining sinus track, antibiotics didn't work, DX?</p>	<p>cancer, usually SCC</p>
<p>VHY Pateint has a raised scar that kind of looks like a tumor, DX? what caused it?</p>	<p>Keloid, form excessive Type III collagen sythesis and deposition</p>
<p>VHY*** What are the two primary cell types found in a granuloma?</p>	<p>Epithelioid cells (activated marcrophages), multinucleated cells form by the fusion of epitheloid cells.</p> <p>Other big cell type is CD4 helper T cells</p>
<p>VHY*** What are epitheloid cells, what activates them?</p>	<p>Macrophages activated by gamma-interferon from CD4 TH helper cells</p>
<p>VHY Main immunoglobulin of acute and chronic inflammation?</p>	<p>IgM</p> <p>IgG - chronic</p>
<p>Labratory findings associated w/ inflammation</p>	<p>Leukocytes, erythrocyte sedimentation rate, and C-reactive protein</p>

<p>What is a left shift of leukocytes?</p>	<p>greater than 10% band neutrophils or the presence of earlier precursors</p>
<p>How does a plasma cell switch and start making IgG after it has been making IgM</p>	<p>Isotype switching (mu heavy chain is replaced by gamma heavy chain occurs around day 12 to 14)</p>
<p>VHY*** What is the effect of corticosteroids in blood on WBC?</p>	<p>increase in neutrophils (inhibits activation of adhesion molecules) and decrease in lymphocytes and eosinophils (signals sequestration of both in lymph nodes and apoptosis of lymphocytes)</p>
<p>What is the ESR, when is it increased?</p>	<p>Erythrocyte sedimentation rate, rate (mm/hour) of settling of RBCs in a vertical tube Increased in acute and chronic inflammation</p>
<p>VHY*** Things that promote rouleaux (stacking) formation of RBCs increase the ESR, when does this happen?</p>	<p>Increase in fibrinogen (acute-phase reactant) in plasma dec. neg. charge of RBCs leading to... Anemia also causes this (abnormally shaped RBCs do not produce Rouleaux).</p>
<p>VHY What is C-reactive protein (CRP)? what does it indicate?</p>	<p>Acute phase reactant proteins indicator of necrosis associated w/ inflammation and disease activity (e.g. RA)</p>

<p>VHY</p> <p>What is the primary inflammatory cell you see in the following acute situations:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. inflammation (classic type) 2. allergic reaction 3. Viral 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Neutrophil 2. eosinophils (mast cells are in tissue) 3. lymphocytes
<p>VHY</p> <p>Chronic inflammation, what is the primary WBC?</p> <p>Do you see pus?</p>	<p>lymphocytes, monocytes, macrophages, plasma cells</p> <p>NO pus or exudate (cell rich fluid), produces tumor of acute inflammation</p>
<p>What happens to albumin during inflammation?</p>	<p>Decreases, more in chronic than acute inflammation</p>
<p>Polyclonal gammopathy is a sign of ?</p>	<p>Chronic inflammation and see an increase of IgG</p>
<p>Is a granuloma seen in acute or chronic situations</p>	<p>Chronic</p>
<p>They show you a picture of a granuloma, what type of hypersensitivity is this?</p>	<p>TYPE IV hypersensitivity, no antibody is involved, delayed RXN</p>

<p>VHY*</p> <p>Poison ivy (i.e. contact dermatitis), cytotoxic T-cells killing of neoplastic cells or viral infected cells are all examples of what type of hypersensitivity rxn?</p>	<p>Type IV</p>
<p>VHY**</p> <p>The key actors in the formation of a granuloma in TB, a TYPE IV hypersensitivity reaction?</p>	<p>macrophages (process antigen), present antigen to helper T cells (gamma interferon, macrophage inhibitory factor, involved in granuloma formation)</p>
<p>VHY</p> <p>What does gamma interferon do in a TB infection?</p> <p>Why is a caseating granuloma formed?</p>	<p>activates macrophages to kill things (can't do it before this)</p> <p>All of the lipid in the cell wall</p>
<p>Epithelioid cells are activated macrophages, what happens when they die?</p>	<p>They fuse together and form multinucleated macrophages</p>
<p>What type of hypersensitivity is cellular immunity?</p>	<p>TYPE IV</p>
<p>What cell and interleukin are involved in memory of being exposed to TB?</p>	<p>TH1 cells - activated by macrophages when they release IL-12</p>

<p>VHY***</p> <p>Describe how a positive PPD (purified protein derivative) works?</p>	<p>A histocyte (cluster designation 1 and positive for birbeck granules) process PPD and present it to the memory TH1 cells in association w/ MHC II, which causes the T cell to release cytokines and inflammation ensues.</p>
<p>How does an elderly patient or aids patient respond to PPD?</p>	<p>Very minimal rxn if any because they have low CD4 or helper T cell counts.</p> <p>If an AIDS patient Helper T cell count is low enough they wont form a granuloma.</p>
<p>VHY***</p> <p>Describe how a granuloma forms?</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Macrophages take up TB 2. Macrophage presents antigen to CD4 T cells in association w/ MHC II 3. Macrophages release IL-12 (stim. formation of TH1 class cells) and IL-1 for a fever 4. TH1 cells release IL-12 (proliferation of TH1 cells) and gamma interferon (activated Macrophages to kill TB, form epithelioid cells) and migration inhibitor factor (causing MO to accumulate) 5. Lipids from killed TB result in caseus necrosis 6. Activated macrophages fuse and become multinucleated giant cells
<p>How does the heart respond to injury?</p>	<p>forms scar tissue which cannot contract</p>

<p>How does the kidney respond to injury?, which part is most susceptible to ischemia?</p>	<p>Scar tissue</p> <p>Medulla, in the nephron it is the straight portion of the proximal tubule, 2nd is the thick ascending limb of the loop of henle that is in the medulla.</p>
<p>Repair cell of the lung?</p>	<p>type II pneumocytes and synthesizes surfactant</p>
<p>Repair of the CNS?</p>	<p>PROLIFERATION OF ASTROCYTES AND MICROGLIAL CELLS</p> <p>Astrocyte - gliosis - increase in number and appendages, don't actually make a fibrous like scar.(almost analogous to fibroblast rxn)</p> <p>microglial cells remove debris</p>

VHY****
CUT A Peripheral NERVE IN
HALF (transected), WHAT
HAPPENS?

- Called Wallerian degeneration
1. Macrophages and schwann cells phagocytose axonal/myelin debris
 2. Muscle atrophies
 3. Nerve cell body undergoes central chromatolysis
 4. Schwann cell proliferate in the distal stump
 5. Axonal sprouts develop in the proximal stump and extend distally using schwann cells for guidance
 6. Grows 2-3mm/day
 7. Axon becomes remyelinated and muscle is reinnervated

SCHWANN CELL IS THE KEY
CELL IN REINERVIATION.

VHY***
What cell is analogous to the
schwann cell in the CNS?

What is a tumor of this cell type
called, what if it involves the 8th
nerve?

oligodendrocytes

Schwannoma - 8th nerve - acoustic
neuroma (neurofibromatosis is
associated w/ this)

How does the liver repair itself?

Regenerative nodules and fibrosis

VHY***
For example when you go out in
the cold and your fingers, nose
and ears turn blue what causes
this, what if you have hepatitis C?

IgM-cold agglutination
cryoglobulins also cause this.

<p>What hepatitis is associated w/ cryoglobulins?</p>	<p>Hepatitis C</p> <p>NOTE: both have a C in them.</p>
<p>What immune molecules cause an elevation in the SED rate, why?</p>	<p>IgM and IgG - both cause RBC's to stick together.</p>
<p>What causes RBC's to stick together and clump, not Rouleaux formation?</p>	<p>IgM (it is so big that it offsets - charge that repels them), it sticks in cold weather and falls of RBC's in warm weather and anemia</p>
<p>How would the clumping of RBC's (which elevates the SED rate) differ in multiple myeloma compared to Waldsteins macroglobulinemia?</p>	<p>Multiple myeloma- usually makes IgG - Get rouleaux formation</p> <p>Macroglobulinemia get IgM produced so agglutination is more likley (both start w/ M)</p>
<p>If a patient had acute Appendicitis what do you expect to see (inflammatory rxn), why do you see each?</p>	<p>absolute neutrophilic count, more neutrophils to go after inflammation.</p> <p>toxic granulation (azurophilic granules, MPO is in these granules which are lysosomes)</p> <p>Left shift (immature neutrophils in the blood)</p>
<p>After an organ transplant a patient experiences, jaundice (bile duct necrosis), bloody diarrhea and dermatitis, what is happening?</p>	<p>Graft-verses-host (GVH) reaction</p>

What drug is MCC seen in drug-induced lupus?	Procainamide
What type of antibodies would you see?	Antihistone antibodies
What test do you use to confirm SLE?	anti-double stranded DNA test and anti-Sm antibodies
MC cardiac finding in SLE?	Fibrous pericarditis w/ effusions
What is the most common initial sign see in systemic sclerosis?	Raynauds phenomenon, excess collagen deposition
Anti-topoisomerase antibodies, dx?	Systemic sclerosis