

A microscopic view of a blood smear showing numerous red blood cells (erythrocytes) as small, pinkish-red discs and several white blood cells (leukocytes) with large, dark purple nuclei. The background is a light, pale pinkish-purple.

BLOOD and BONE MARROW

Cells and plasma

BLOOD

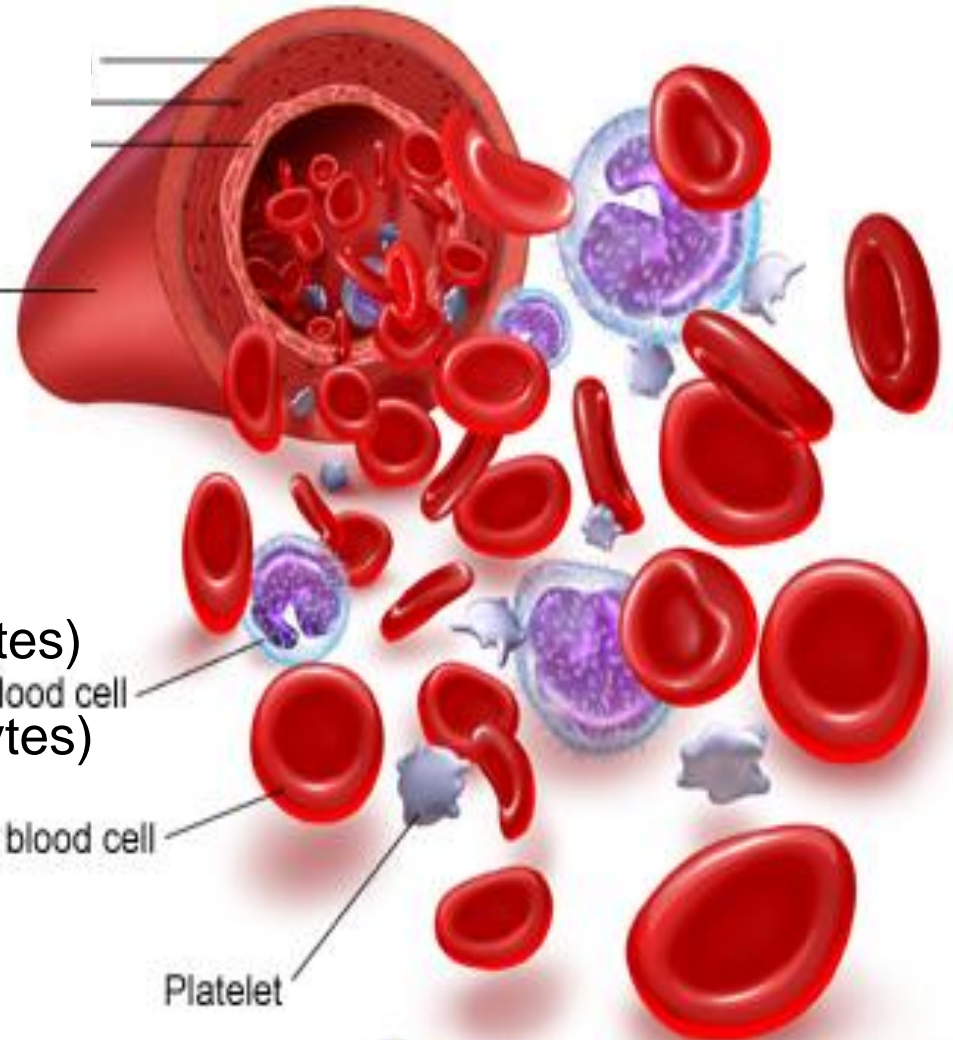
- is a specialized connective tissue (total volume of blood is about 5L)
- is composed of:
 - **formed elements**
 - fluid element
(extracellular matrix – plasma)

Blood vessel

White blood cell

Red blood cell

Platelet



Formed elements of blood:

- **Red blood cells** (RBCs, erythrocytes)
- White blood cells (WBCs, leukocytes)
- **Platelets**

Function

❑ **Transports of materials:**

Dissolved gases namely oxygen, and carbon dioxide, between the lungs
and rest of the body

Waste products of metabolism (e.g. water, urea)

Nutrients from the digestive tract and storage sites of the body
(glucose, amino acids, vitamins, minerals, fatty acids, glycerol)

Hormones from the glands in which they are produced to their target cells

❑ **Protection**

Blood has several roles in inflammation:

- White blood cells, destroy invading microorganisms and cancer cells
- Antibodies and other proteins destroy pathogenic substances
- Platelet factors initiate blood clotting and help minimise blood loss

❑ **Regulation**

Blood helps regulate:

- pH by interacting with acids and bases

The pH of blood must remain in the range 6.8 to 7.4,
otherwise it begins to damage cells

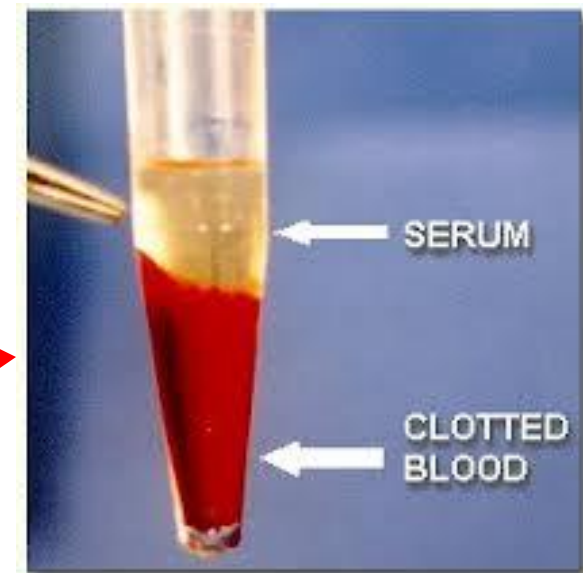
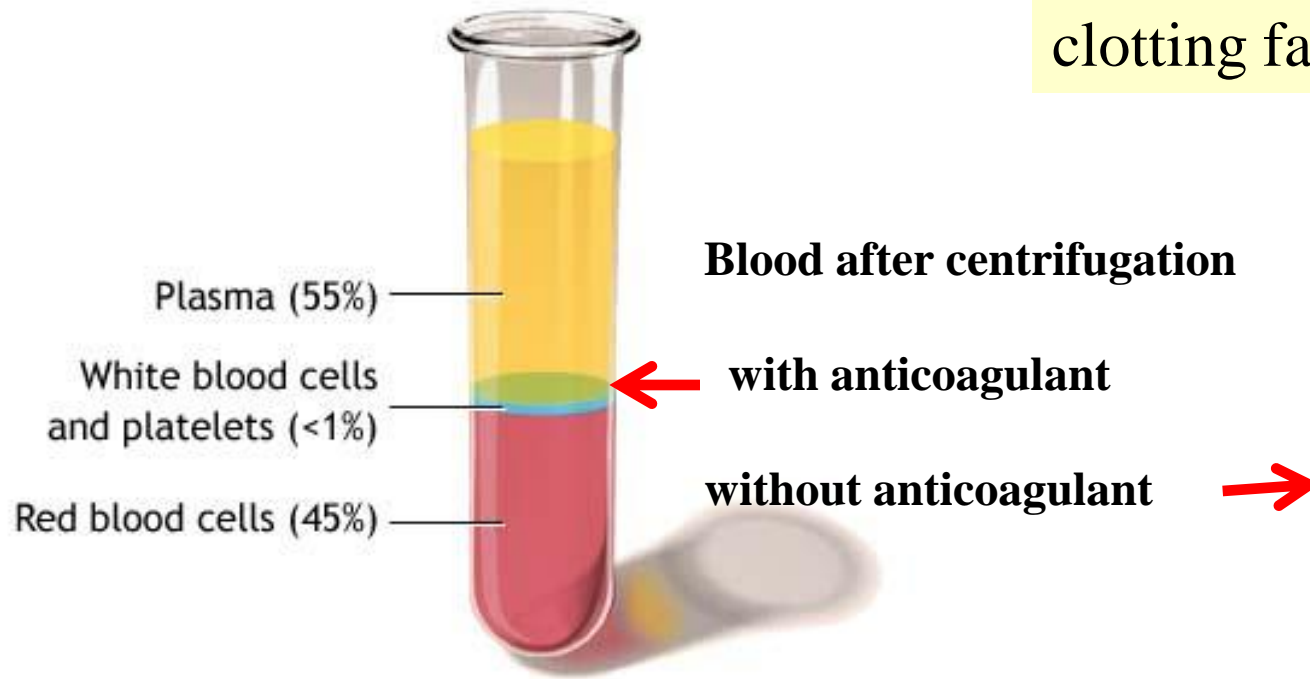
- Water balance by transferring water to and from tissues

Maintains Body Temperature

Blood plasma is the pale-yellow liquid component of blood in which formed elements are suspended.

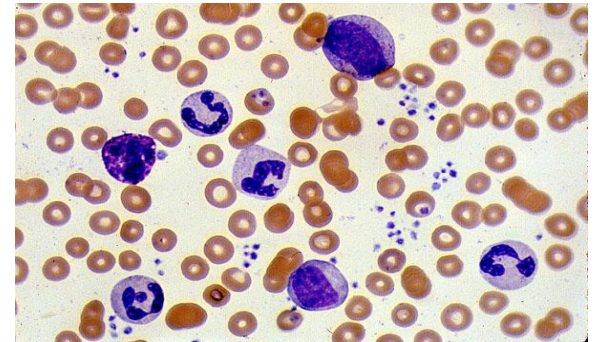
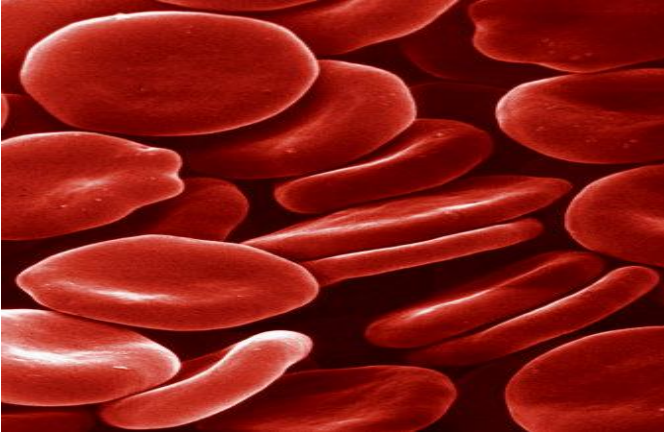
- makes up about 55% of total blood volume
- is mostly water (92% by volume), and contains dissolved proteins (i.e.—albumins, globulins, and fibrinogen), glucose, clotting factors, electrolytes (Na^+ , Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , HCO_3^- Cl^- etc.), hormones and carbon dioxide

Blood serum is blood plasma without fibrinogen and clotting factors



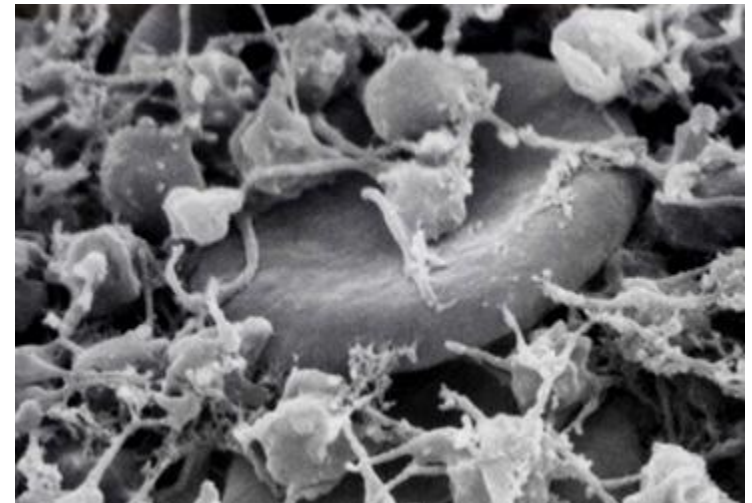
One microliter (μl , mm^3) of blood contains:

**Red blood cells (RBCs) - 4.7 to 6.1 millions (male),
4.2 to 5.4 millions (female)**



White blood cells (WBCs) - 4,000–11,000

Platelets - 200,000–450,000



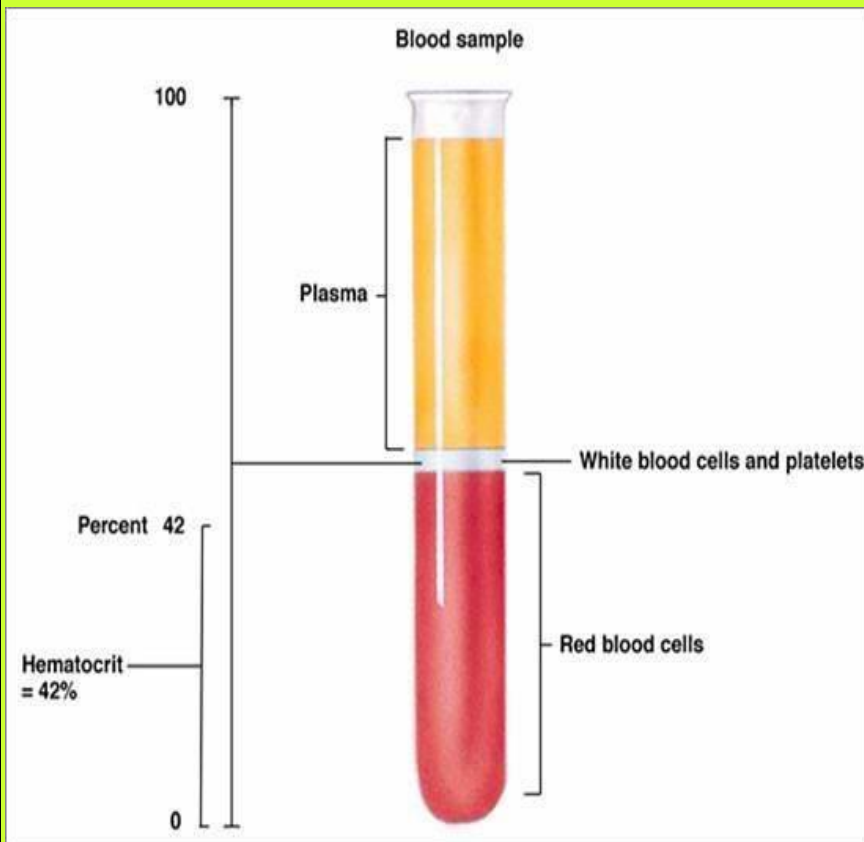
Complete blood count

Hemoglobin 13.5-18.0 g/dl (male); 12.0-16.0 (female)

Hematocrit 45 ± 7 (38–52%) for males

42 ± 5 (37–47%) for females

dl – deciliter = 10^{-1} L



Hematocrit –
The relative volume of cells (erythrocytes) and plasma measured after centrifugation of blood sample with anticoagulant added

White blood cells (leukocytes)

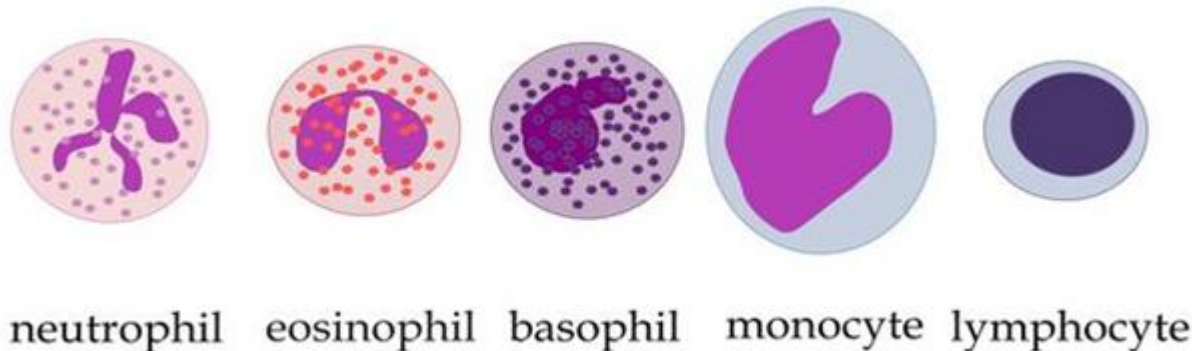
Granulocytes

- Neutrophils
- Eosinophils
- Basophils

Agranulocytes

- Lymphocytes
- Monocytes

Both granulocytes and agranulocytes possess nonspecific (azurophilic) granules



The previous and the next slide must be memorized !

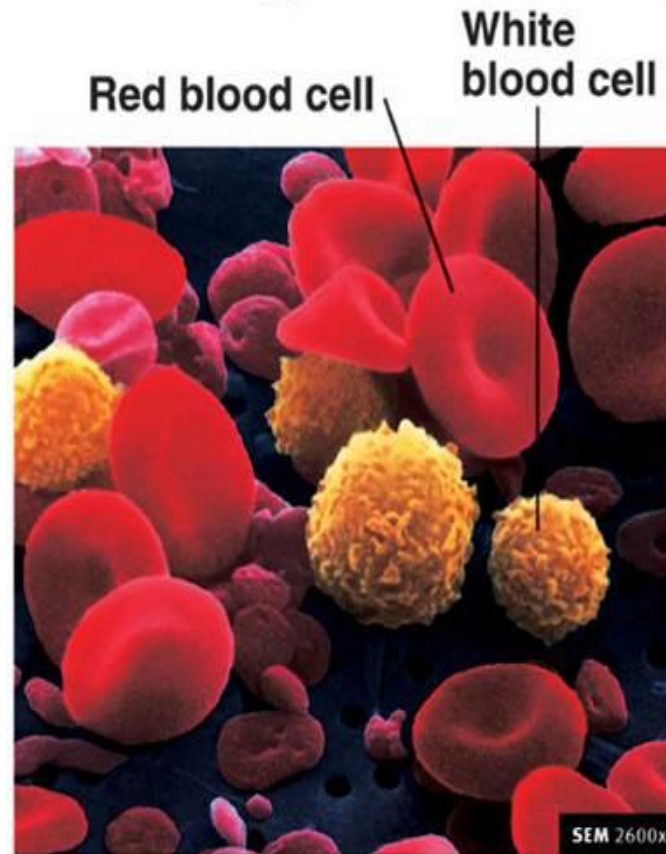
**You must remember it even if you
are awaked from deep sleep!**

The percentage of granulocytes and agranulocytes in white blood cells

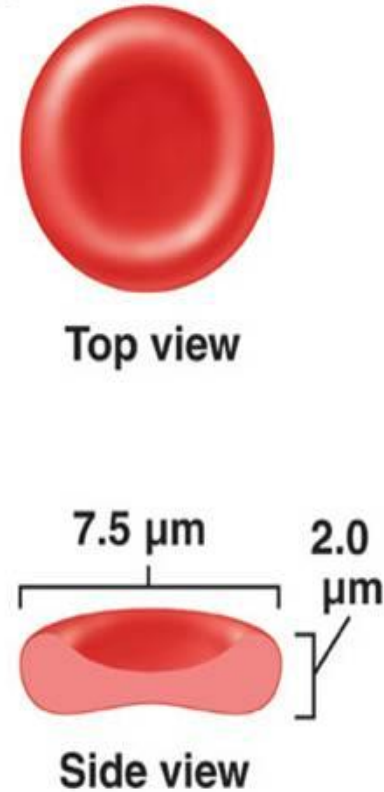
Cell type	Range	Percent
Total WBC	4500-11000/mm ³	
Neutrophils	4100-6500	45-70
Eosinophils	0-700	1-4
Basophils	0-150	0,5-1
Lymphocytes	1500-4000	20-40
Monocytes	200-950	2-8

Red blood cells (erythrocytes)

- the smallest and most numerous cells of blood
- have no nuclei
- are responsible for the transport of oxygen and carbon dioxide to and from the tissues
- have average life span of 120 days



(a)



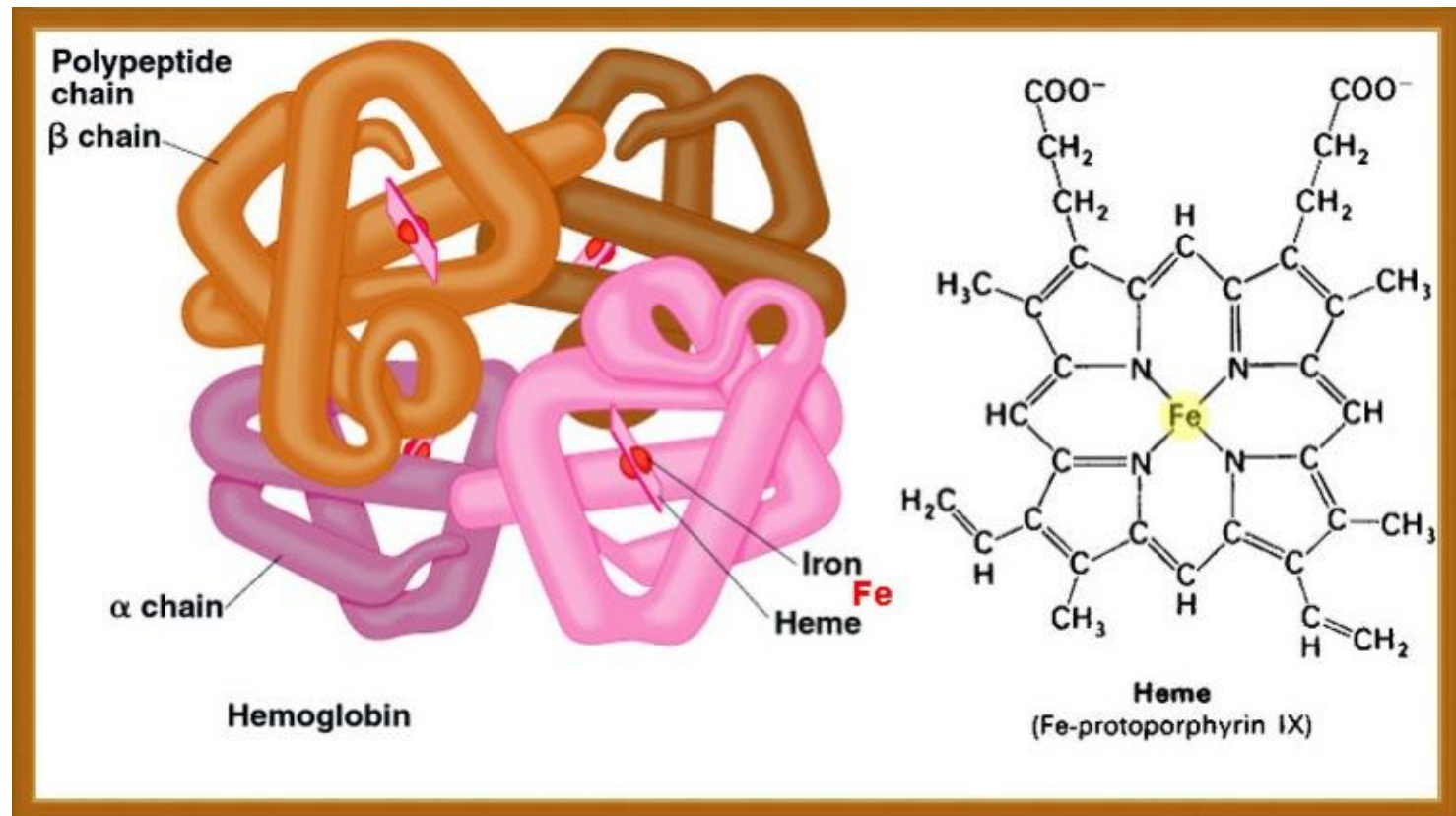
(b)

- Males: 5×10^6 per mm^3
- Females: $4,5 \times 10^6$ per mm^3

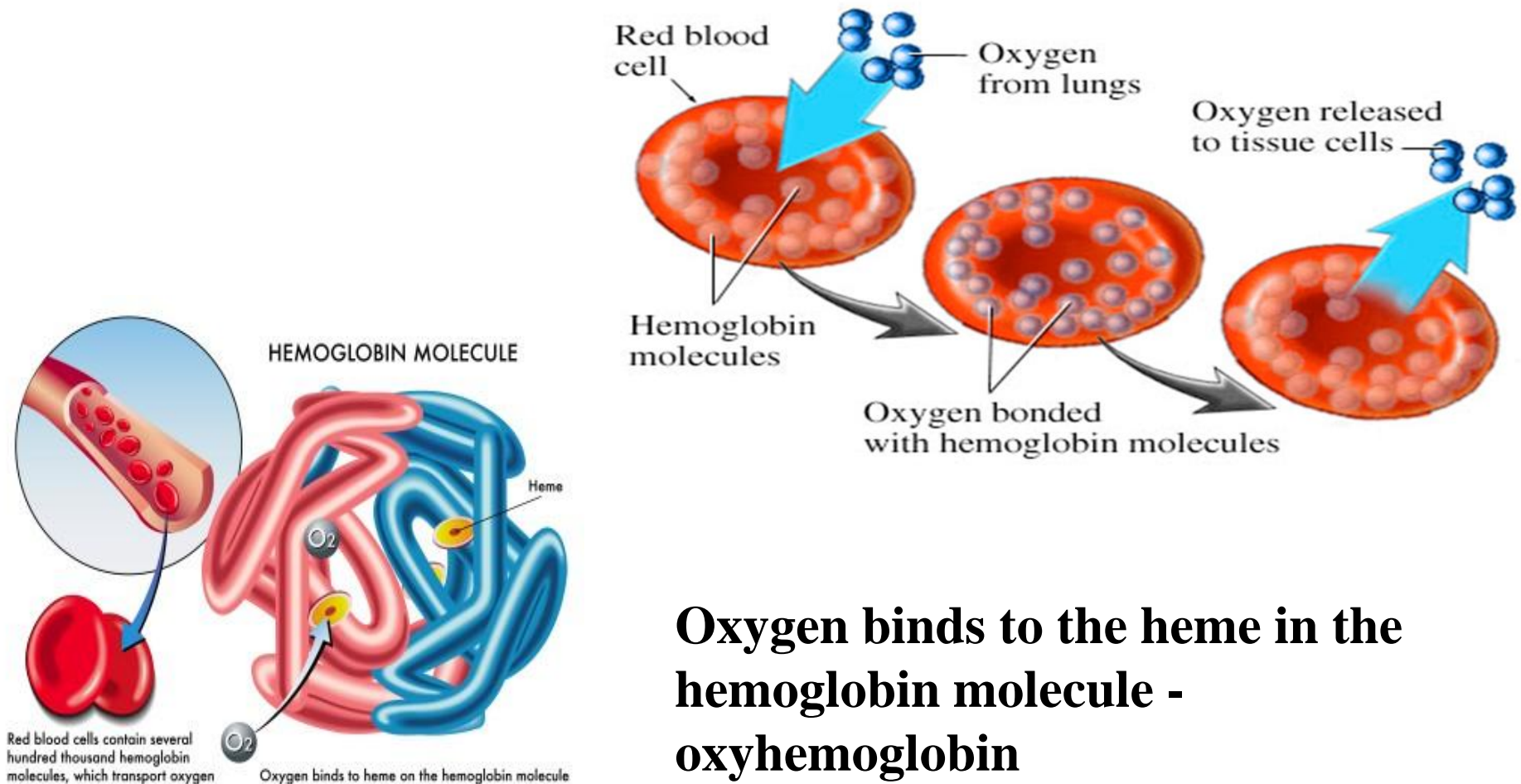
Biconcave-shaped disk - this shape provides the cell with a large surface area relative to its volume, thus enhancing its capability for gaseous exchange

Hemoglobin (HB)

- molecule is an assembly of four globular protein subunits
- each subunit is composed of a protein chain tightly associated with a non-protein heme group
- a heme group consists of an iron (Fe) ion



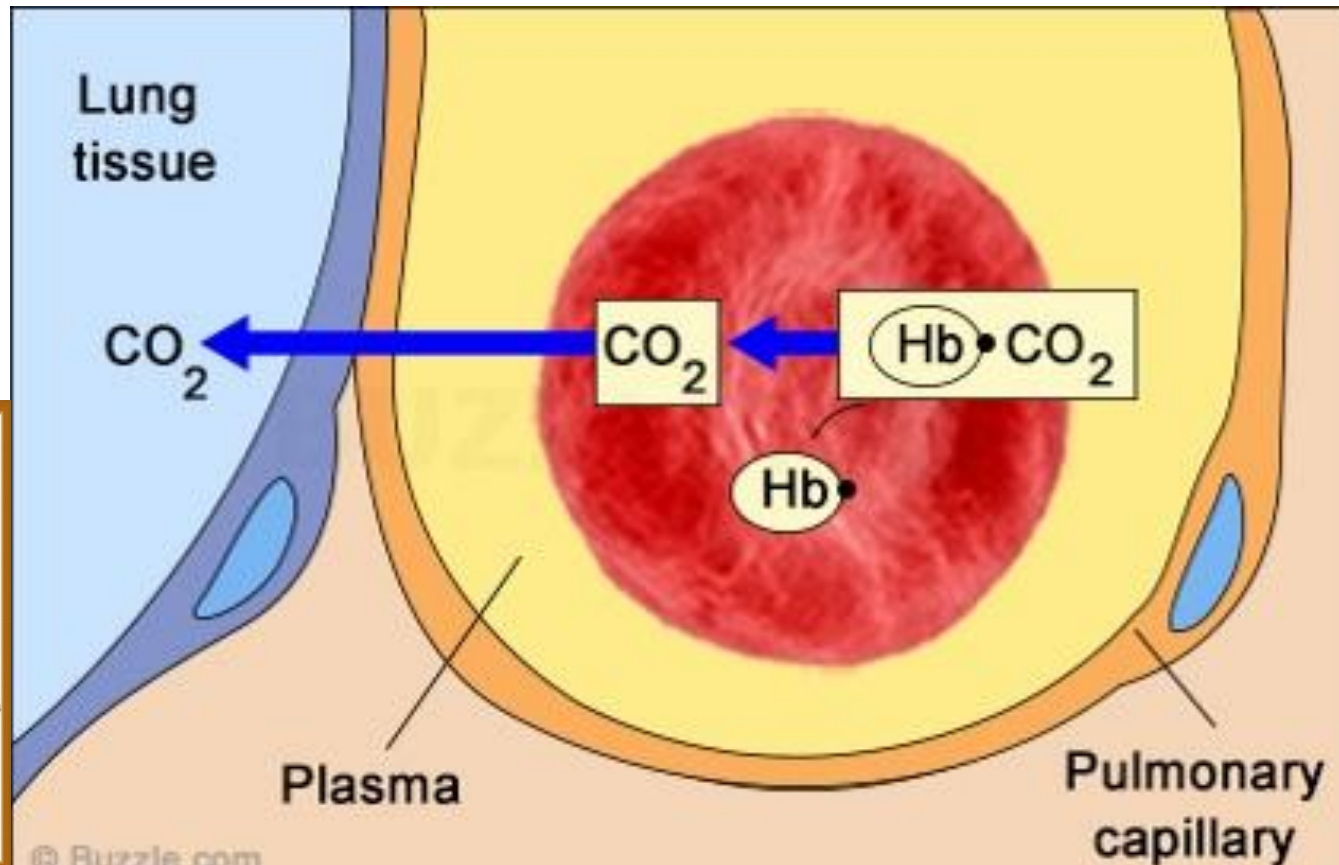
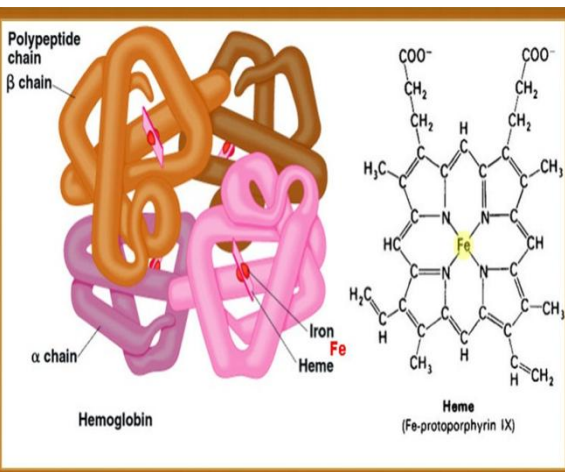
Hemoglobin in the blood carries oxygen from the respiratory organs (lungs) to the rest of the body (i.e. the tissues) where it releases the oxygen to burn nutrients to provide energy to power the functions of the organism



Oxygen binds to the heme in the hemoglobin molecule - oxyhemoglobin

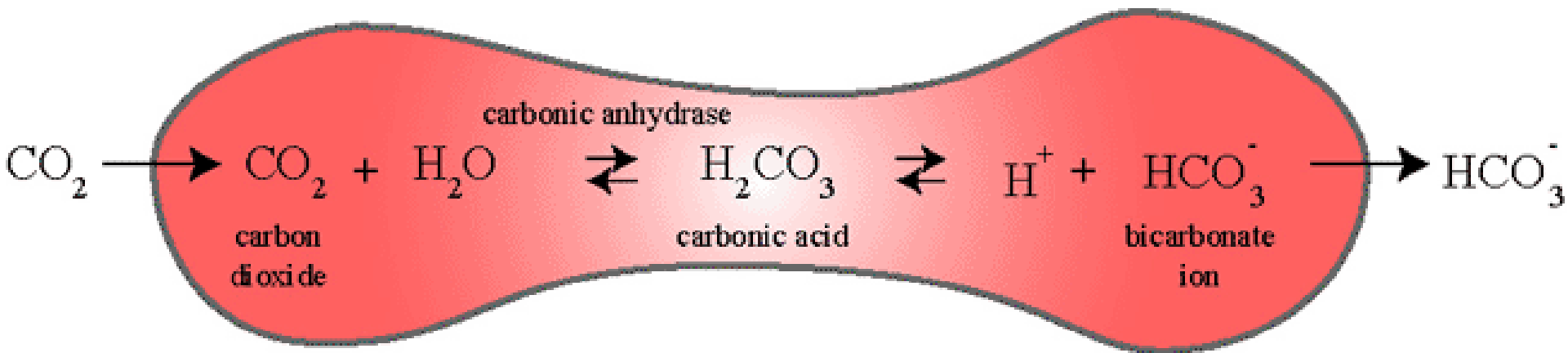
Hemoglobin is involved in the transport of other gases: it carries some of the body's respiratory carbon dioxide (about 10% of the total, 85% carried in blood as bicarbonate 5% carried as free CO_2 , in solution) as **carbaminohemoglobin**, in which CO_2 is bound to the globin protein.

CO_2 is bound to the globin protein - carbaminohemoglobin



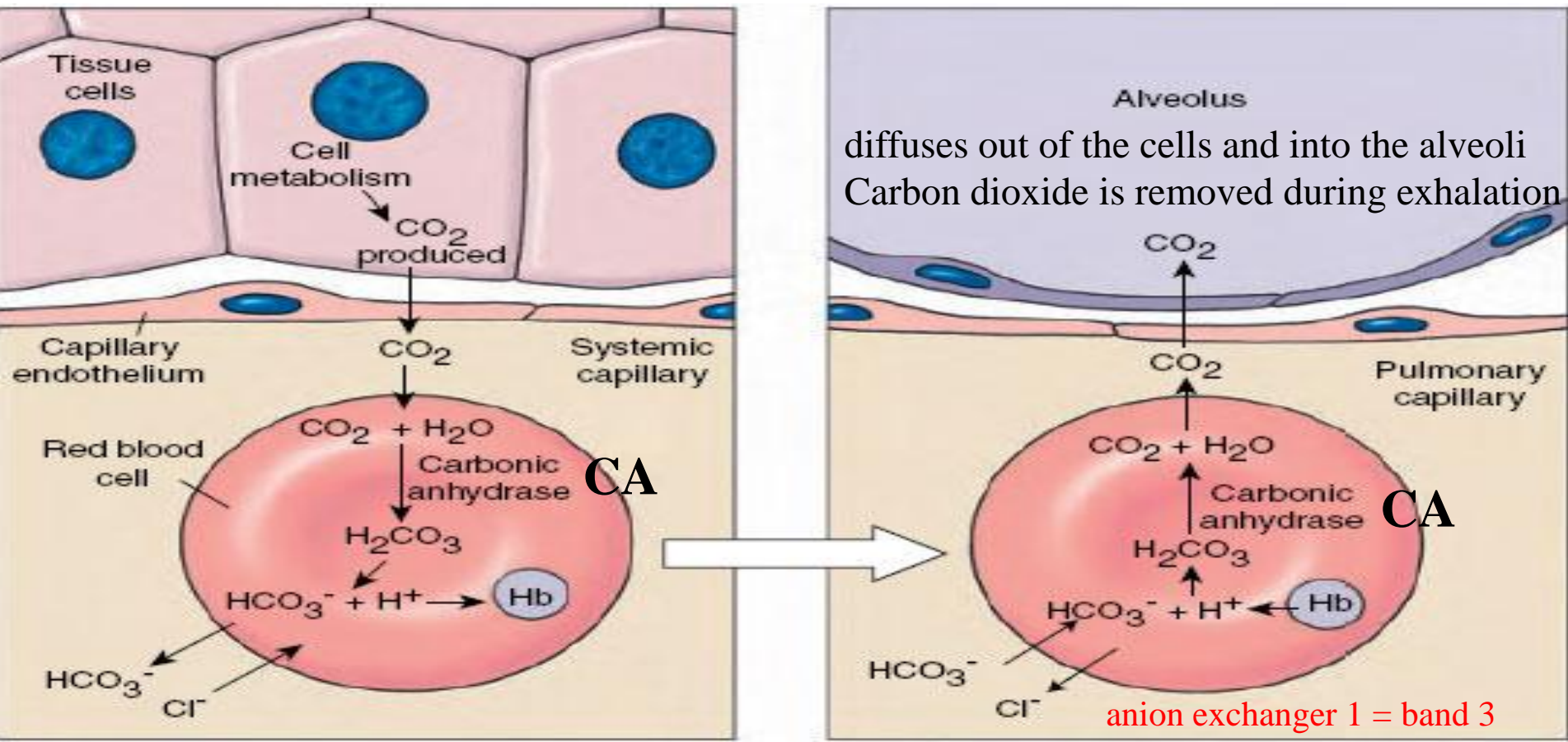
**Carbonic anhydrase – facilitates the formation of carbonic acid from CO₂ and water (and the reverse reaction).
This acid dissociates to form bicarbonate and hydrogen.**

- maintaining acid-base balance in blood and other tissues
- transport carbon dioxide out of tissues.

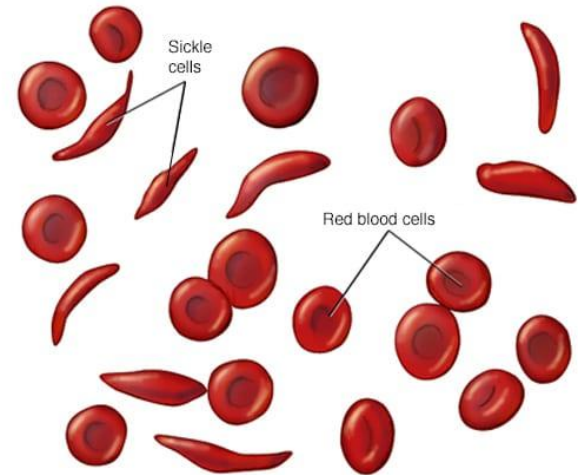
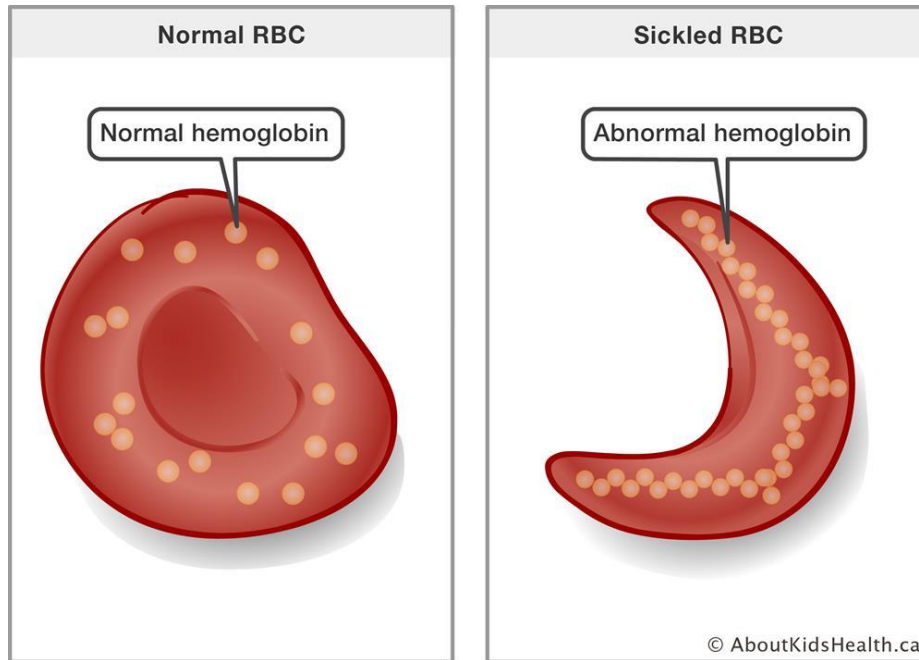


Carbon dioxide is transported mainly in the form of bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻)

- carbon dioxide enters red blood cells in the tissue capillaries
- carbon dioxide and water form carbonic acid (CA)
- carbonic acid dissociates to bicarbonate and hydrogen ions
- bicarbonate ions diffuse out of the cell into the plasma
- in lungs bicarbonate ions enter the red blood cells and form carbonic acid with hydrogen ions
- carbonic acid is decomposed into carbon dioxide and water



sickle cell anemia

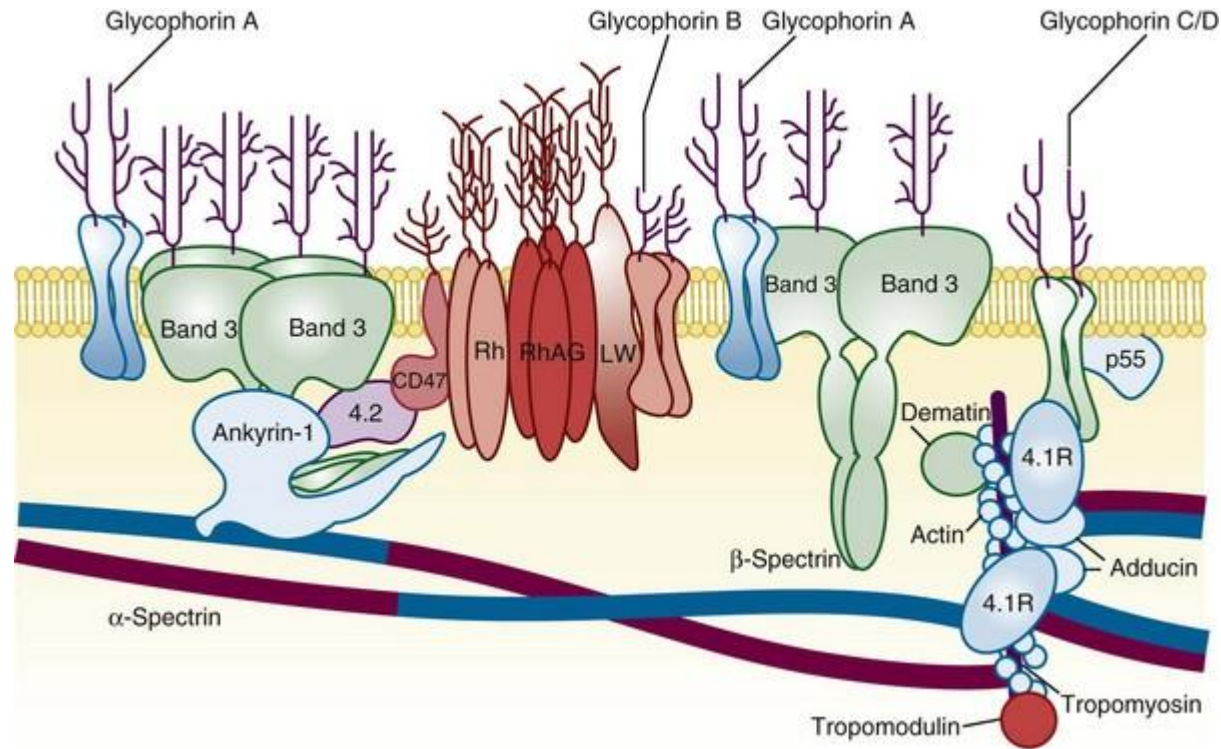


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Healthy red blood cells are flexible so that they can move through the smallest blood vessels. In sickle cell disease, the hemoglobin is abnormal, causing the red blood cells to be rigid and shaped like a "C" or sickle, the shape from which the disease takes its name. Sickle cells can get stuck and block blood flow, causing pain and infections. Complications of sickle cell disease occur because the sickled cells block blood flow to specific organs. The worst complications include stroke, acute chest syndrome (a condition that lowers the level of oxygen in the blood), organ damage, other disabilities, and in some cases premature death.

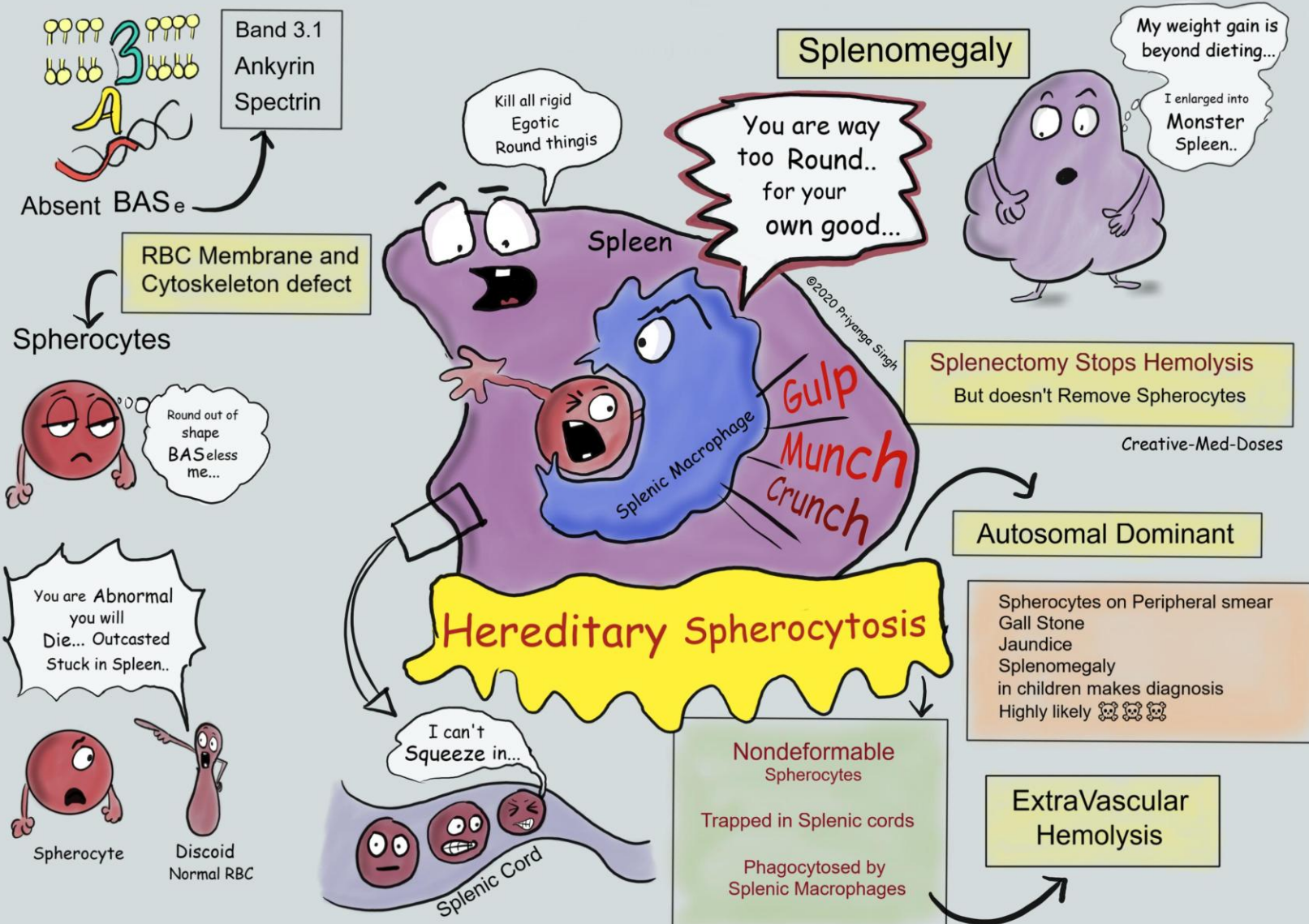
ERYTHROCYTE CELL MEMBRANE

anion transporter (bicarbonate ion crosses cell membrane through Band 3)



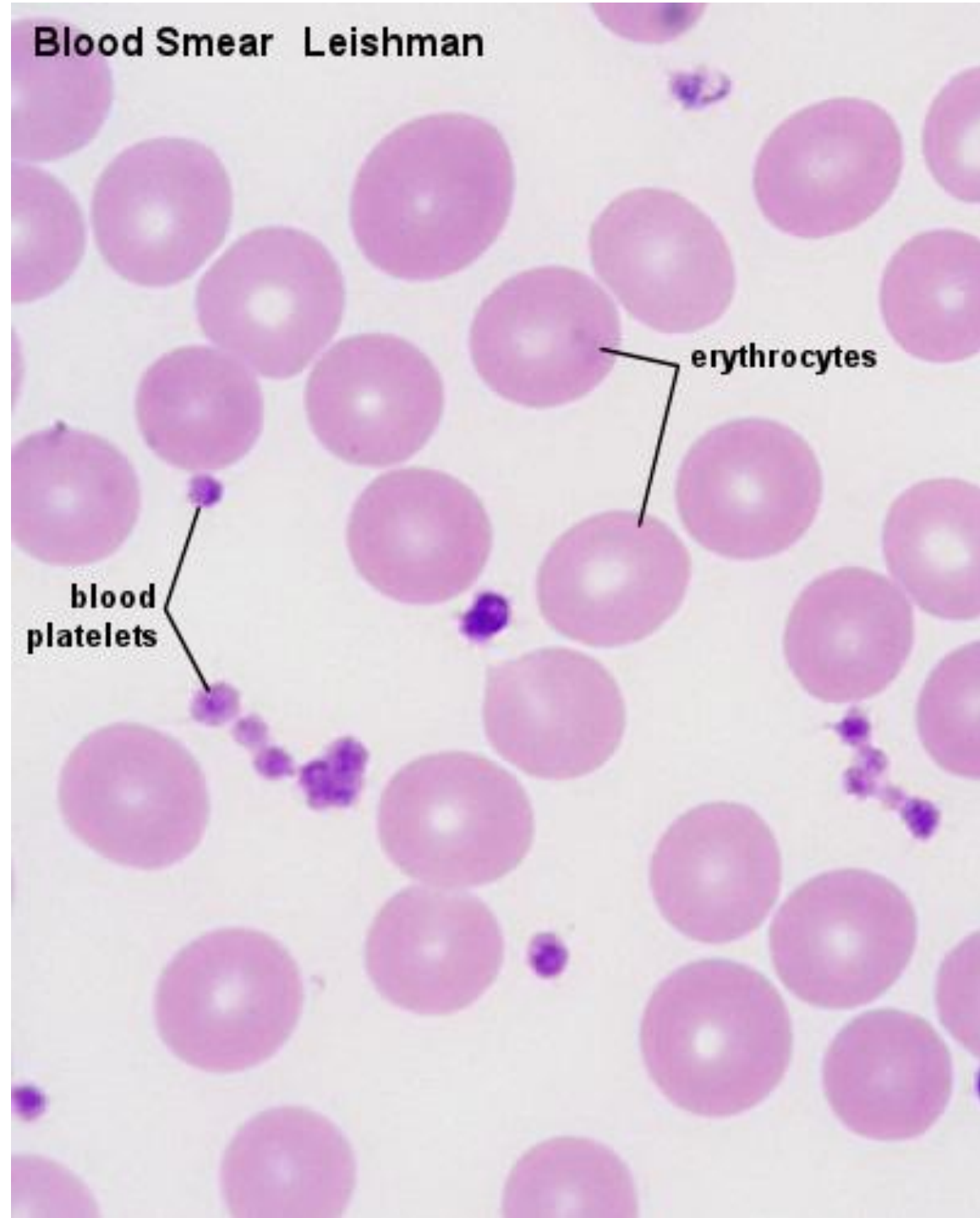
A peripheral proteins: **spectrin** and **ankyrin** are anchored to the cell membrane by **band 3 protein**, and **glycophorin A**.

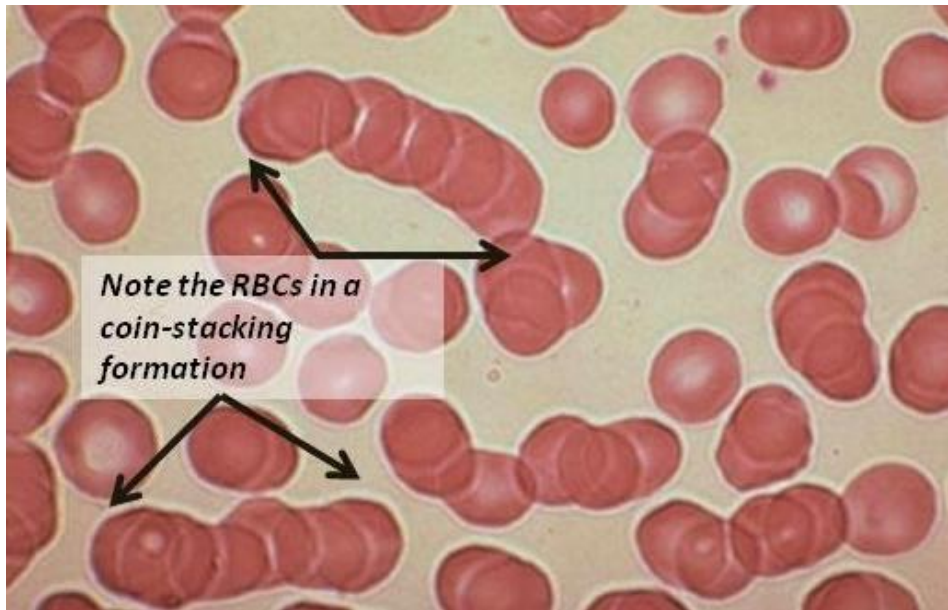
Subplasmalemmal cytoskeleton helps to maintain the biconcave disk shape
Spectrin forms the meshwork that provides red blood cells their shape



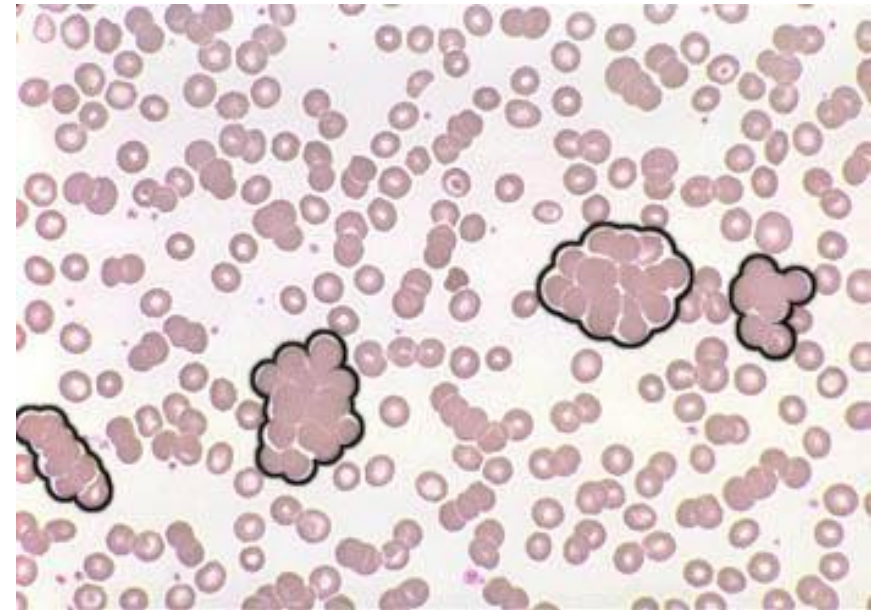
Erythrocytes in the blood smear

their centers look
lighter than their
periphery
(due to the bicocave
shapes)



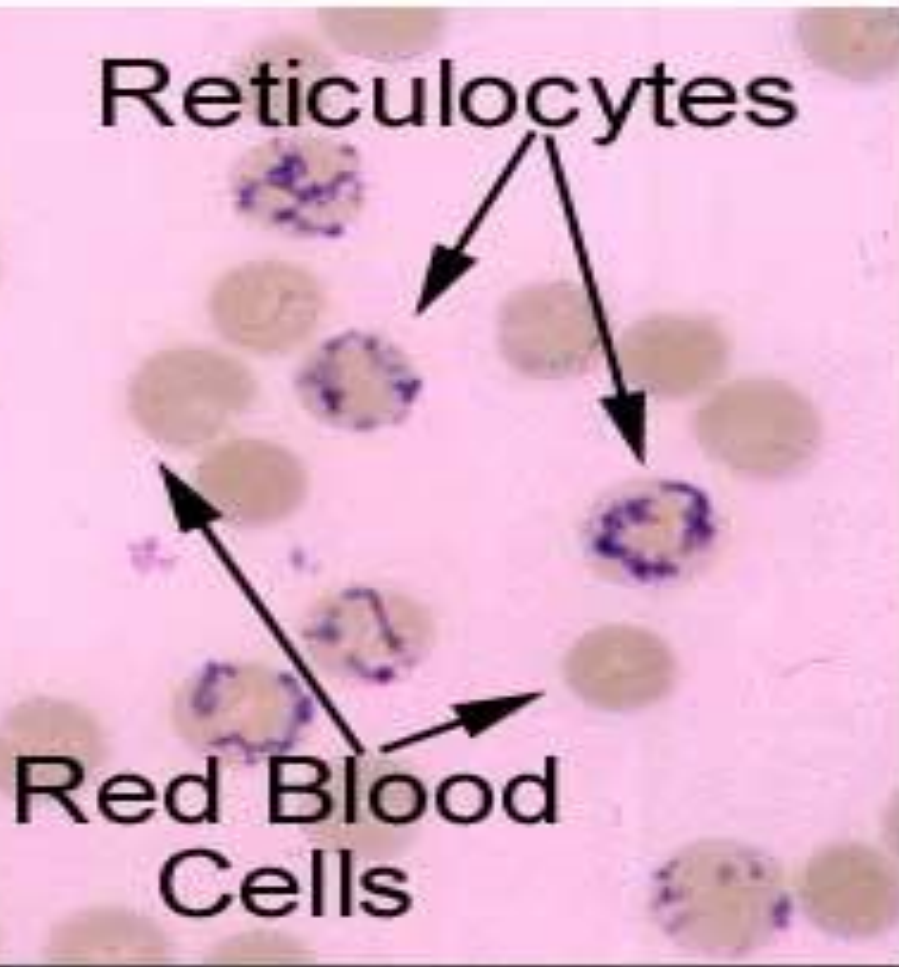


Rouleaux are clumps of red blood cells that look like stacked plates. They usually form as a result of abnormal quantities of certain proteins (immunoglobulin, fibrinogen) in the blood. Rouleaux are a non-specific indication of the presence of a pathology.



Red cell autoagglutination is the process whereby red cells clump together forming aggregates. This is seen in Waldenström's macroglobulinemia, cold agglutinin disease and Infection with *Mycoplasma Pneumonia* or Infectious mononucleosis.

Reticulocytes



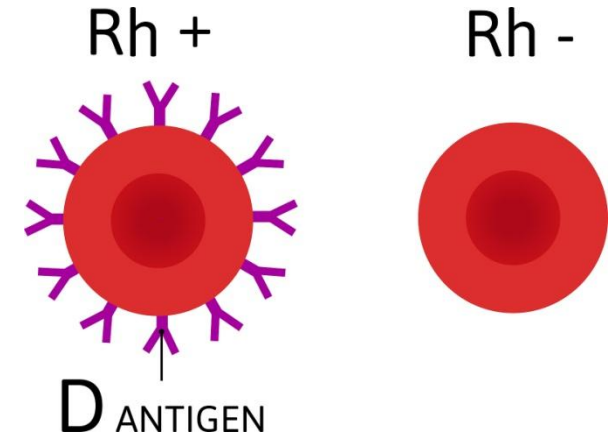
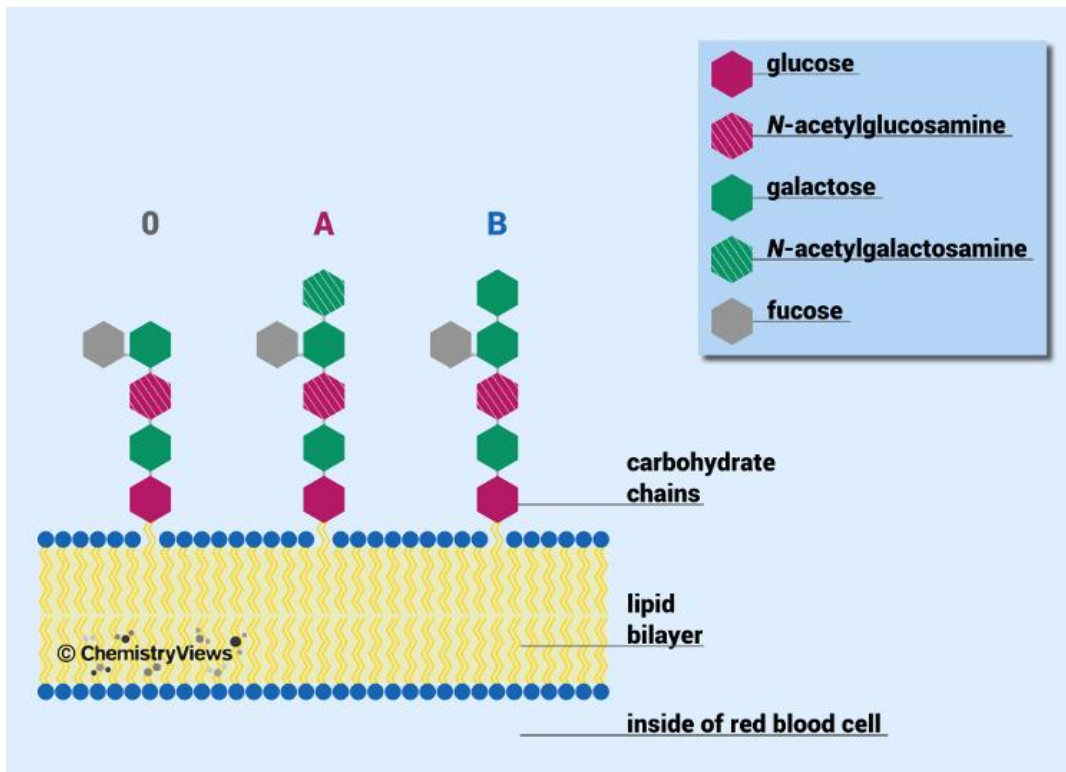
Reticulocytes –

- immature red blood cells
- develop and mature in the red bone Marrow and then circulate for about a day in the blood stream before developing into mature red blood cells.
- like mature red blood cells, reticulocytes do not have a cell nucleus. They are called reticulocytes because of a remnants of RER, ribosomes and mitochondria.

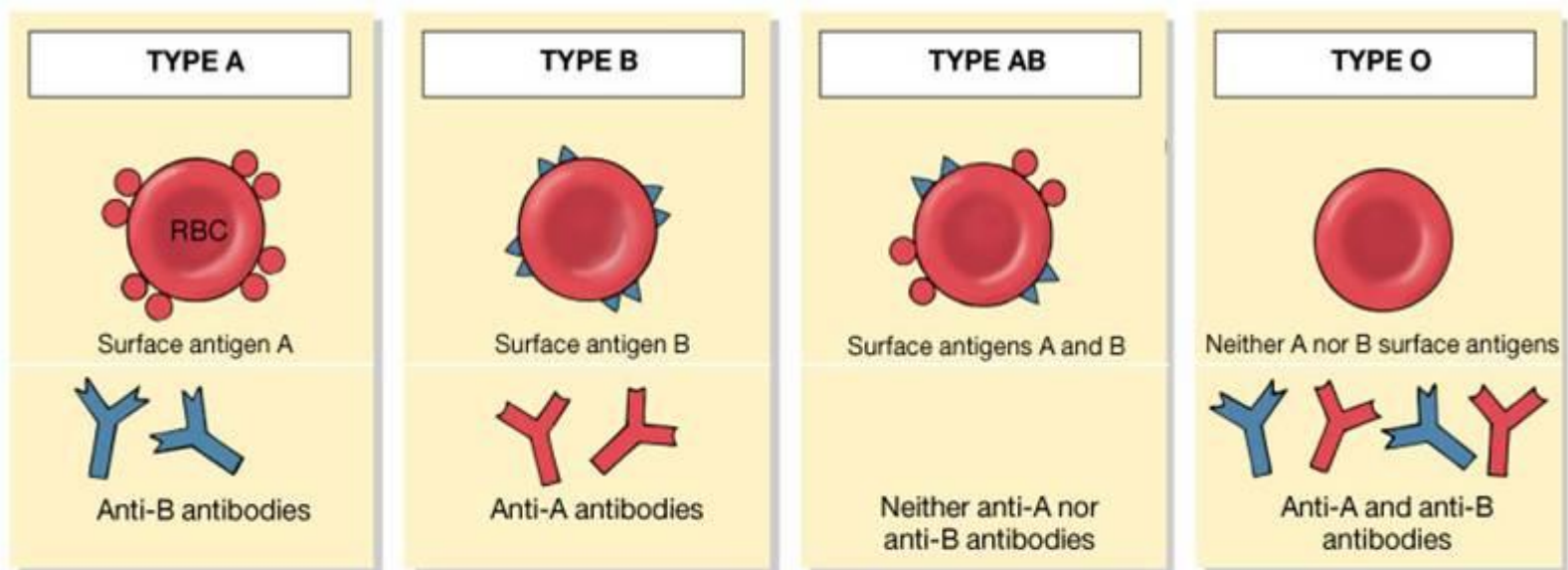
Reticulocytes constitute 1-2% of red blood cells. Their number in peripheral blood increases after bleeding or at high altitude.

Specific inherited carbohydrate chains act as antigens and determine the **blood group** of an individual.

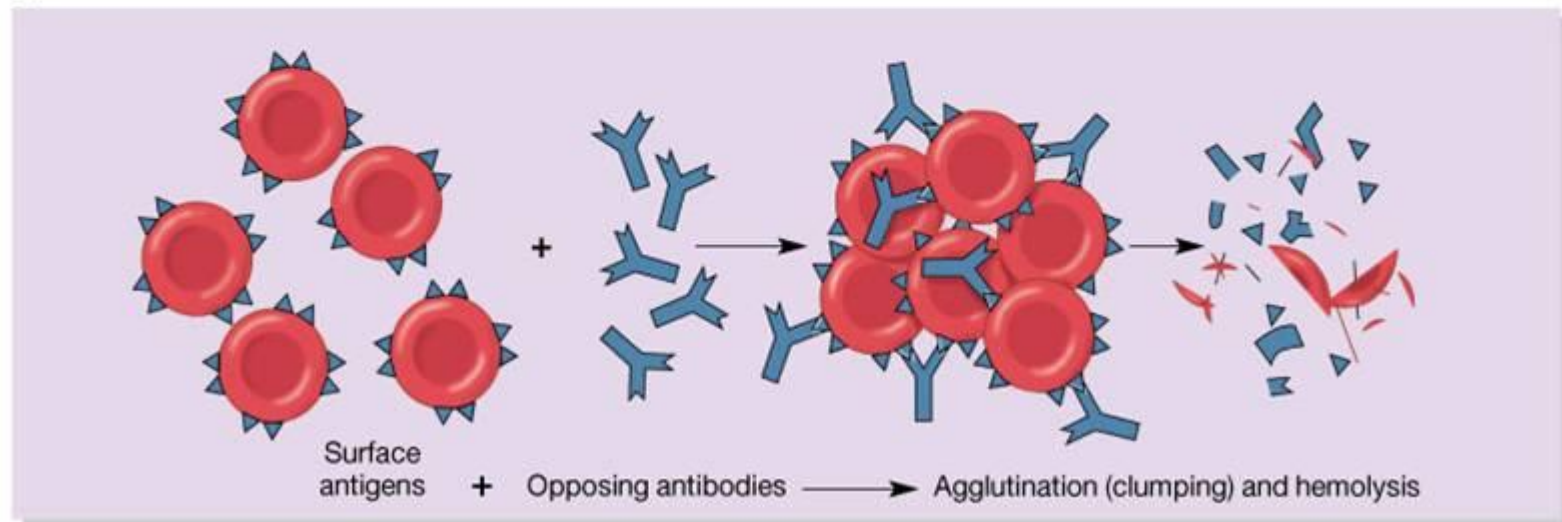
- Antigens **A** and **B** determine four primary blood groups **A**, **B**, **AB** and **O**



Rh antigens (first identified in rhesus monkeys) determine the Rh-positive (Rh⁺) group. Individuals lacking these antigens are Rh-negative (Rh⁻)



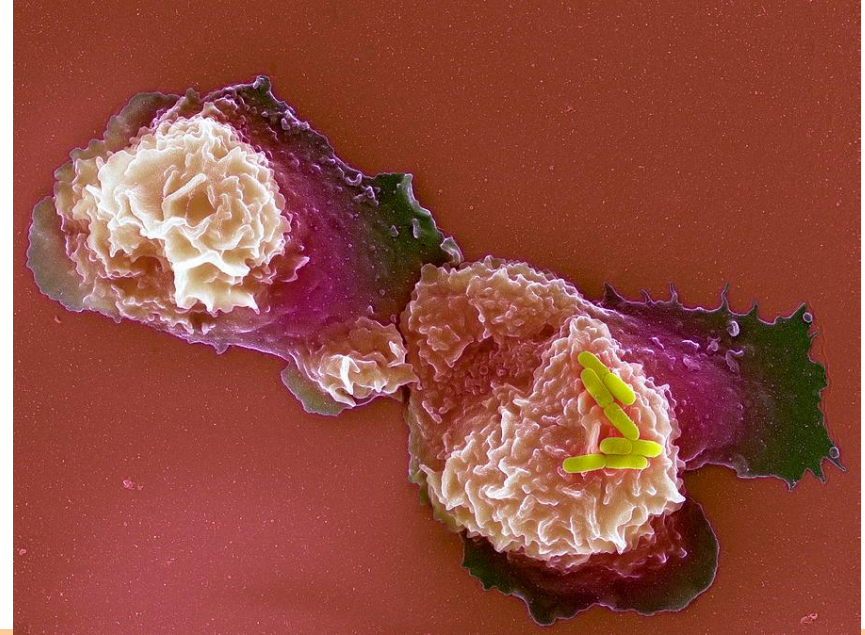
(a)



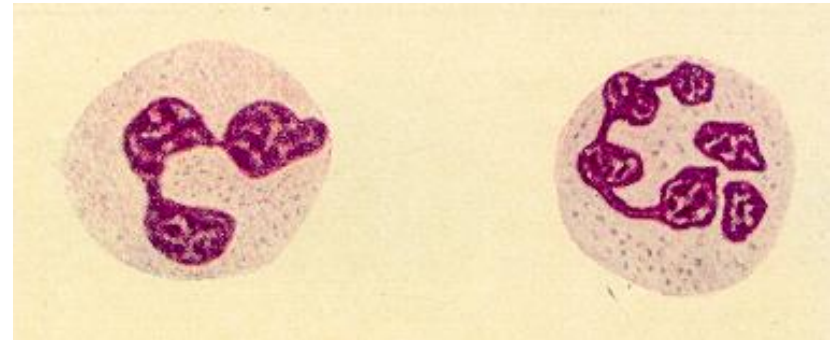
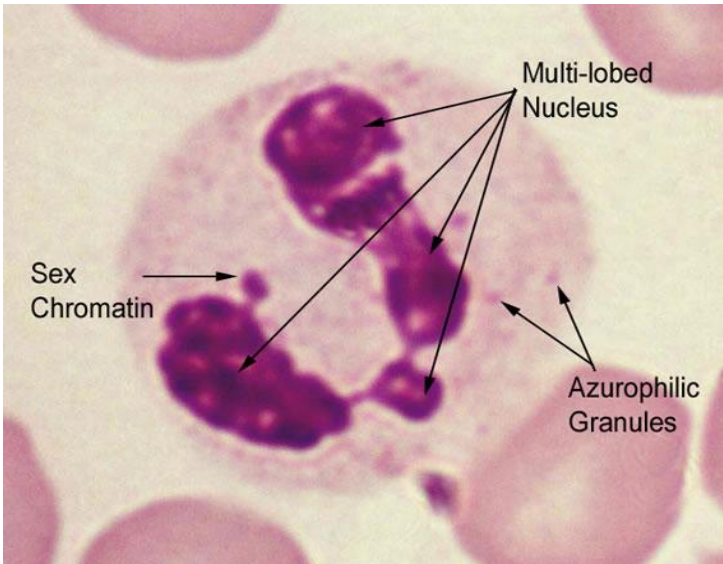
(b)

Neutrophils (polymorphonuclear leukocytes)

- the most numerous of the white blood cells
- have a multilobed nuclei (lobes are connected to each other by slender chromatin threads)
- in females the nucleus presents a small appendage, the „drumstick” which contains inactive X chromosome

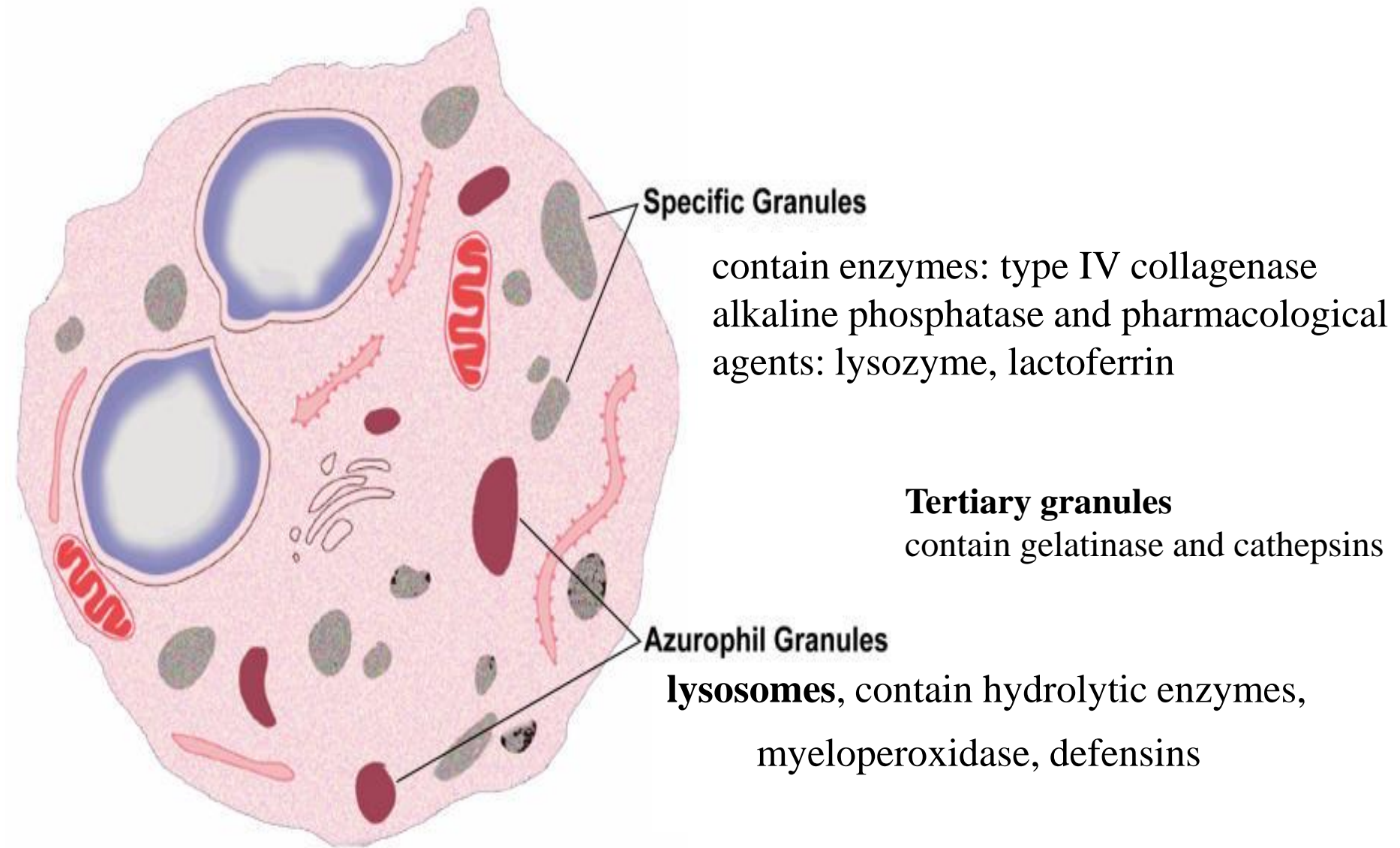


Phagocytose and destroy
invading bacteria



45-70% of leukocytes

Neutrophils (polymorphonuclear leukocytes)



Components of granules are necessary for destroying of microorganisms

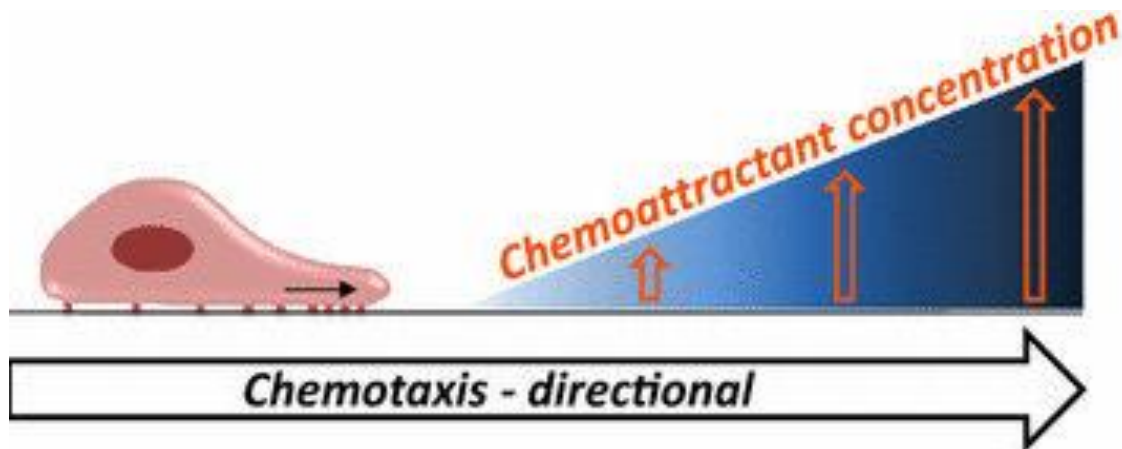
Function of neutrophils (microphages)

- are responsible for the phagocytosis and destroying of bacteria

1. Neutrophils undergo a process called chemotaxis, which allows them to migrate toward sites of infection or inflammation.

Cell surface receptors allow neutrophils to detect chemical gradients of molecules which these cells use to direct the path of their migration

2. Chemotactic agents facilitate the release of the contents of tertiary granules into the extracellular matrix (gelatinase degrades the basal lamina, facilitating neutrophil migration)

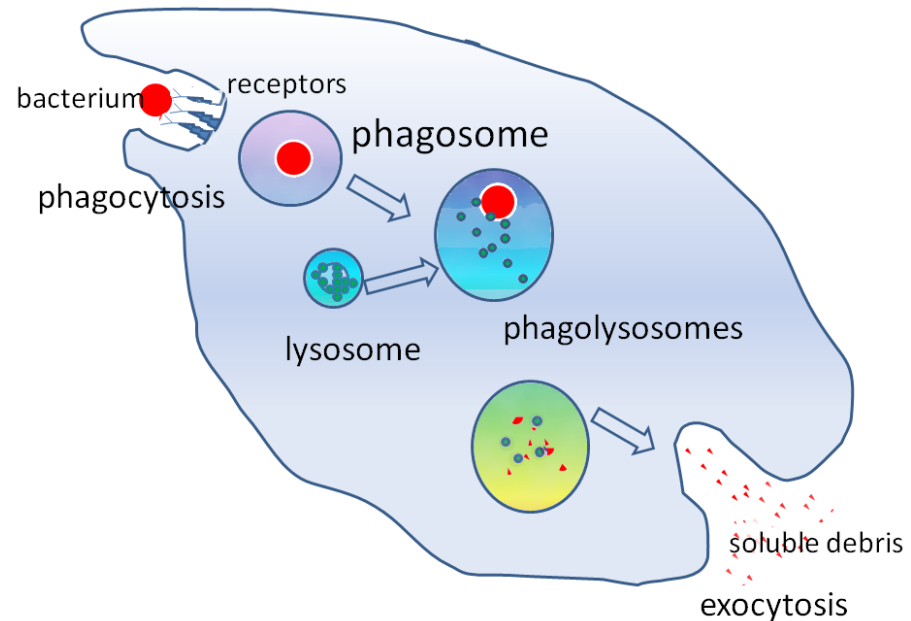
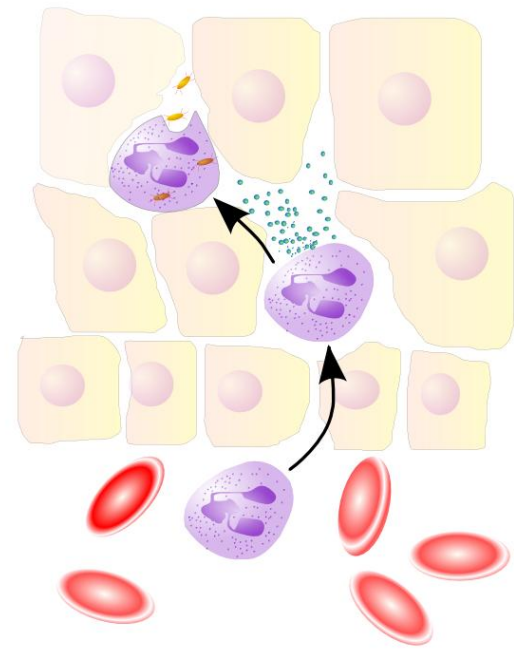


Phagocytosis

3. The content of specific granules is released into the extracellular matrix (they attack the microorganisms and aid neutrophil migration)

4. Microorganisms, phagocytosed by neutrophils, become enclosed in phagosomes (which fused with lysosomes)

5. Enzymes and pharmacological agents of the azurophilic granules (lysosomes) destroy the ingested microorganisms

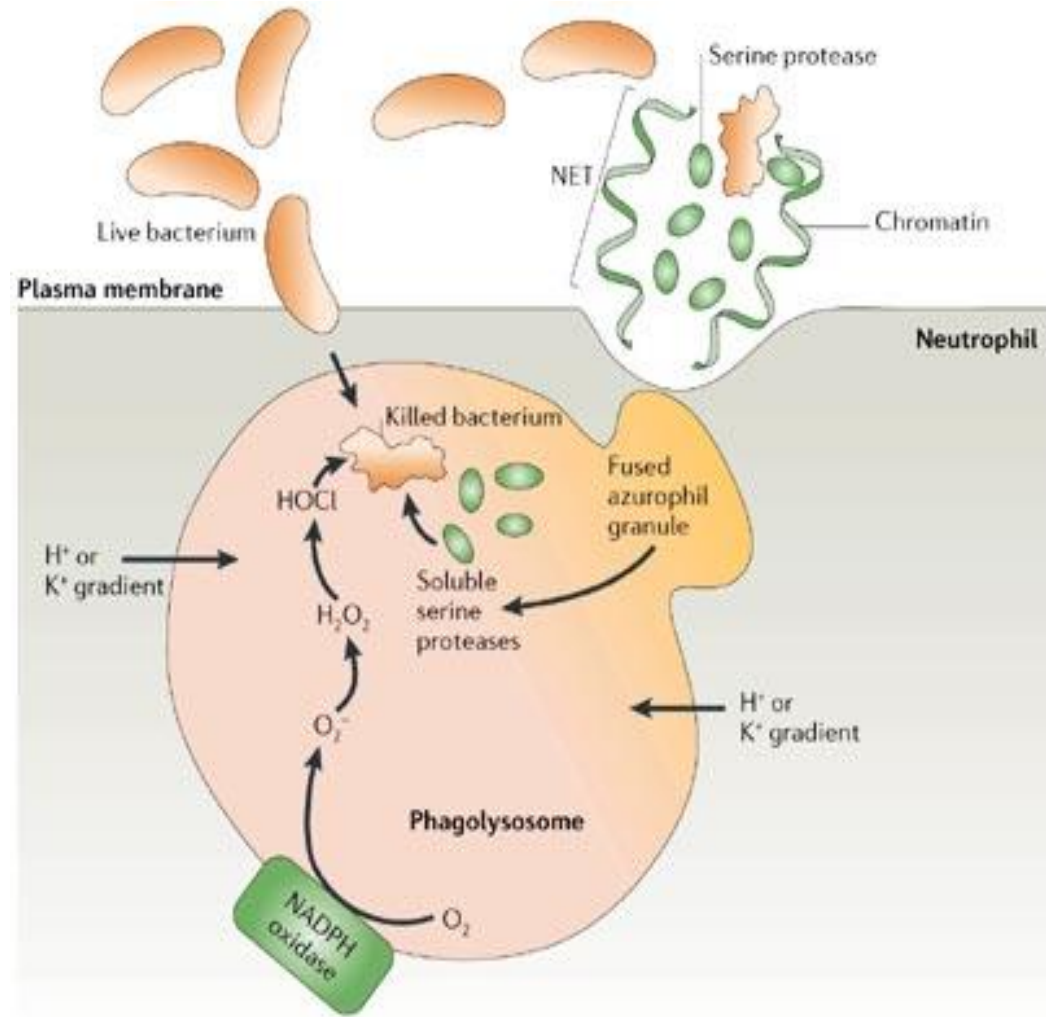


In neutrophils microorganisms are killed also by the formation of reactive oxygen compounds within the phagosomes:

Superoxide (O_2^-)

Hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2)

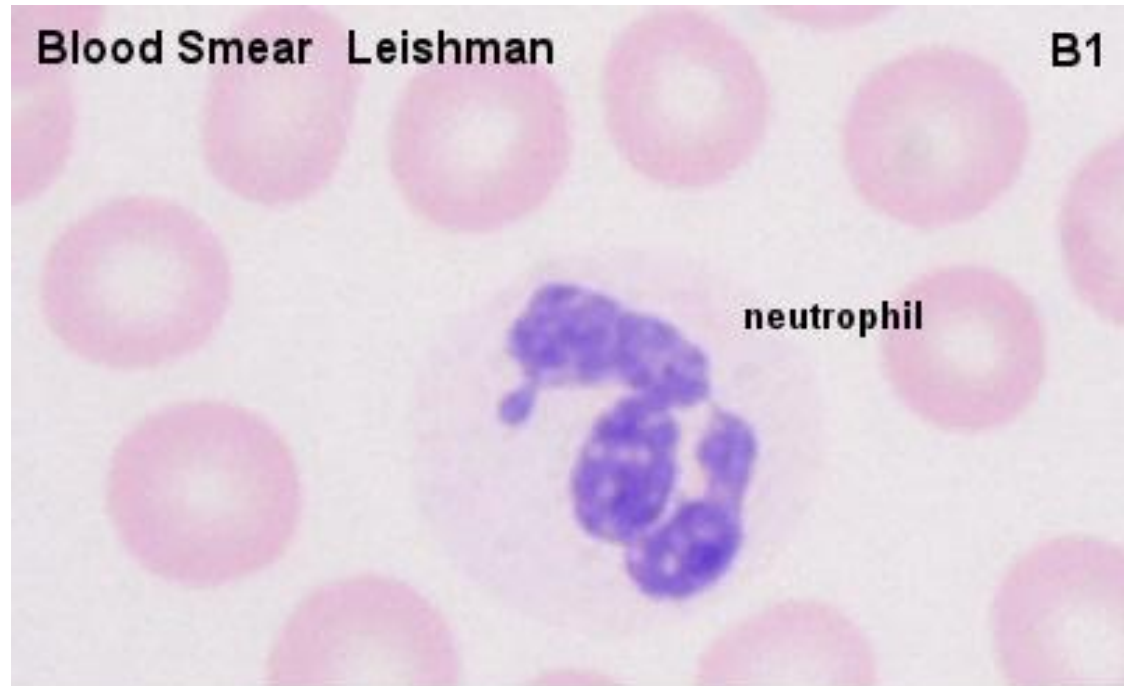
Hypochlorous acid ($HOCl$)



Nucleus of
The neutrophil is
divided into 3-5
lobes which are
connected by
thin strands of
chromatin

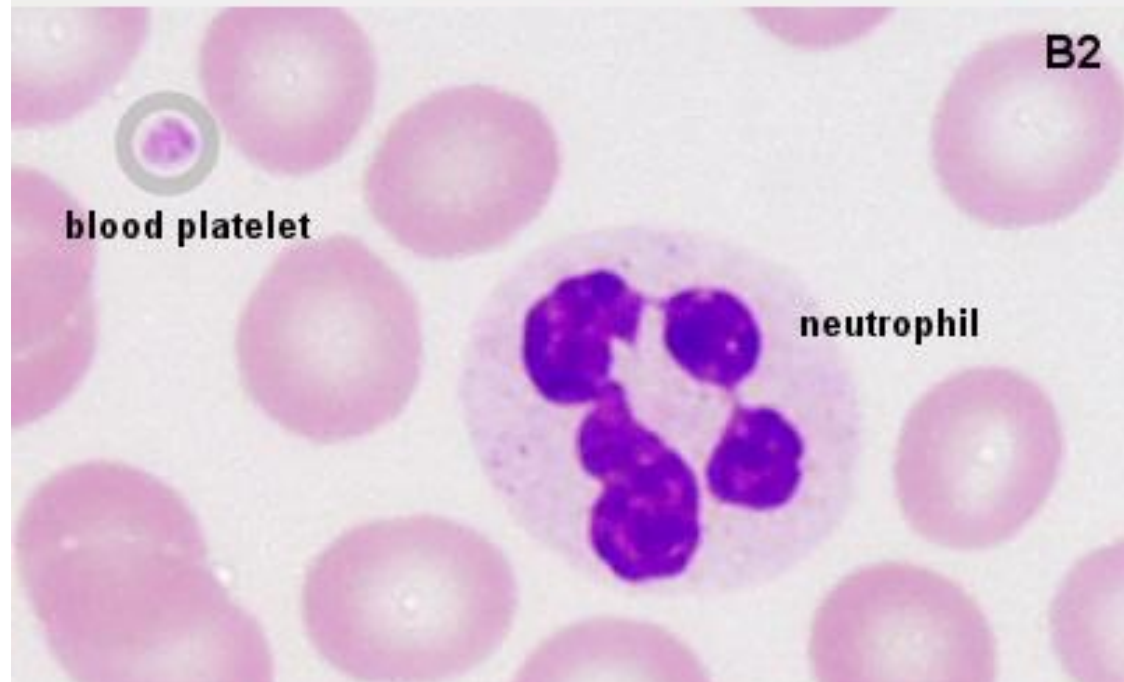
Blood Smear Leishman

B1



neutrophil

B2



blood platelet

neutrophil

Eosinophils

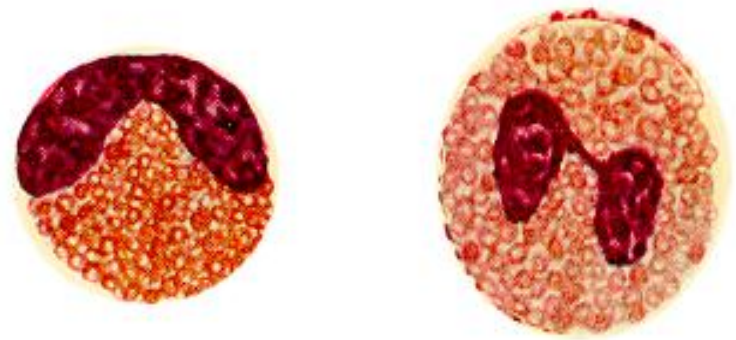
- constitute less than 4% of the total white blood cell
- have bilobed nucleus (lobes are connected by thin chromatin strand)
- contain pink specific granules and nonspecific granules (lysosomes)

specific granules

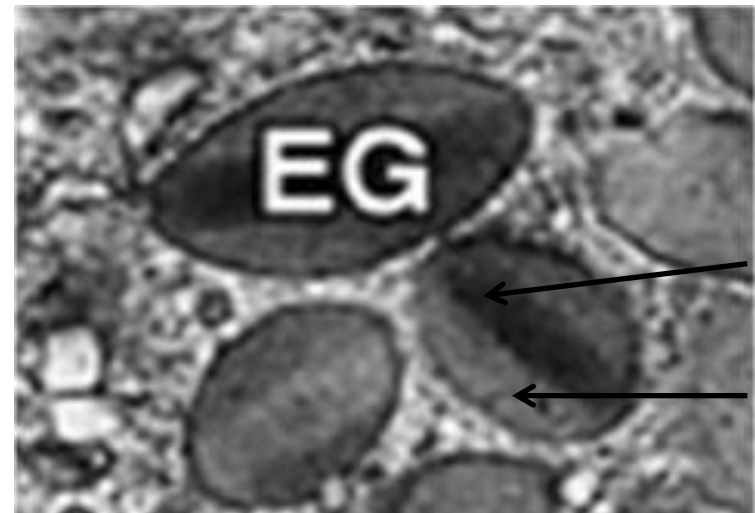
- have the **internum** (a crystal-like, electron-dense center) surrounded by a less electron-dense **externum**

Internum – contains **major basic protein**, eosinophilic cationic protein and eosinophil-derived neurotoxin (agents responsible for the combating parasites)

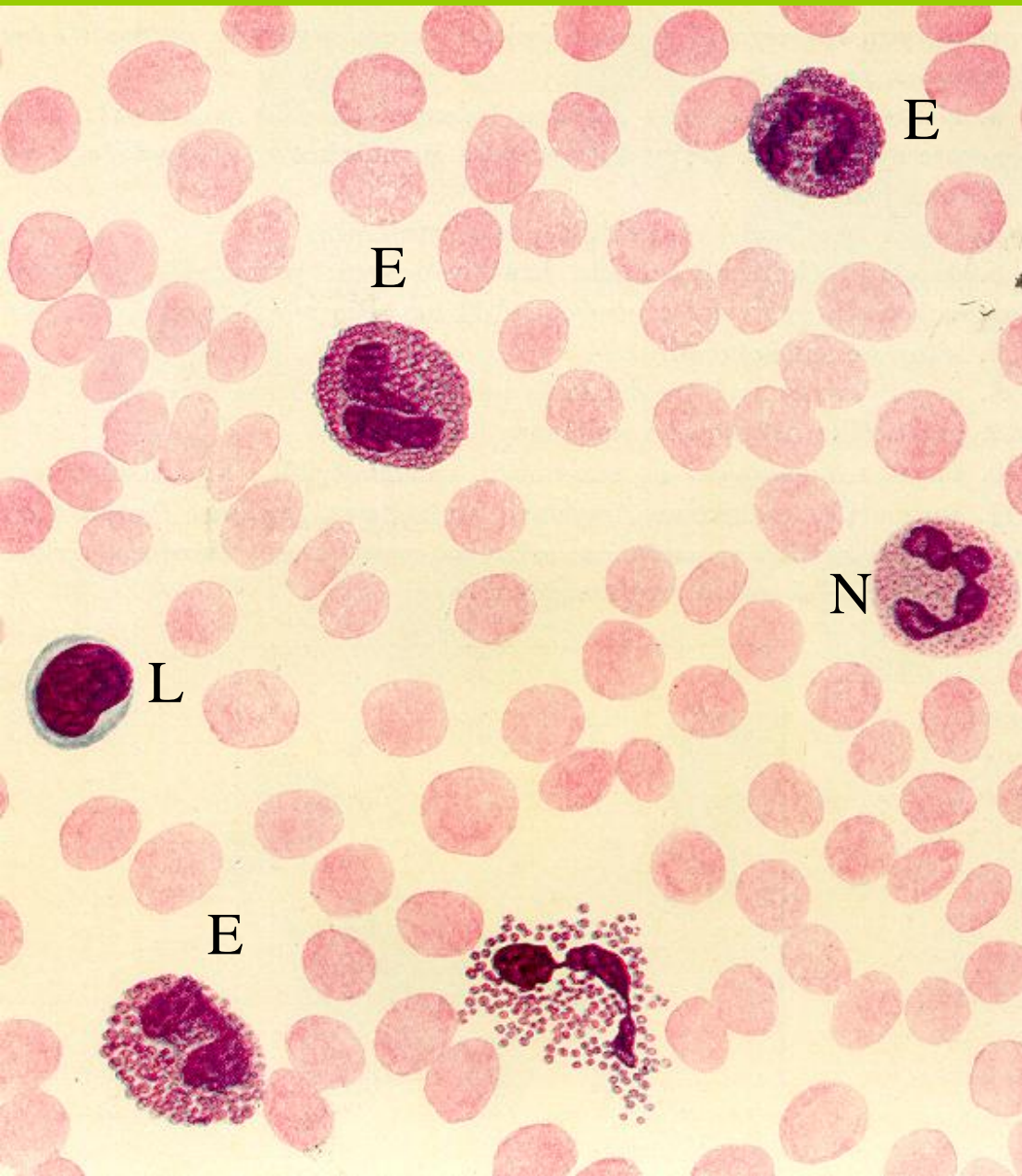
Destroy larger parasites and modulate allergic inflammatory responses



1-3% of leukocytes



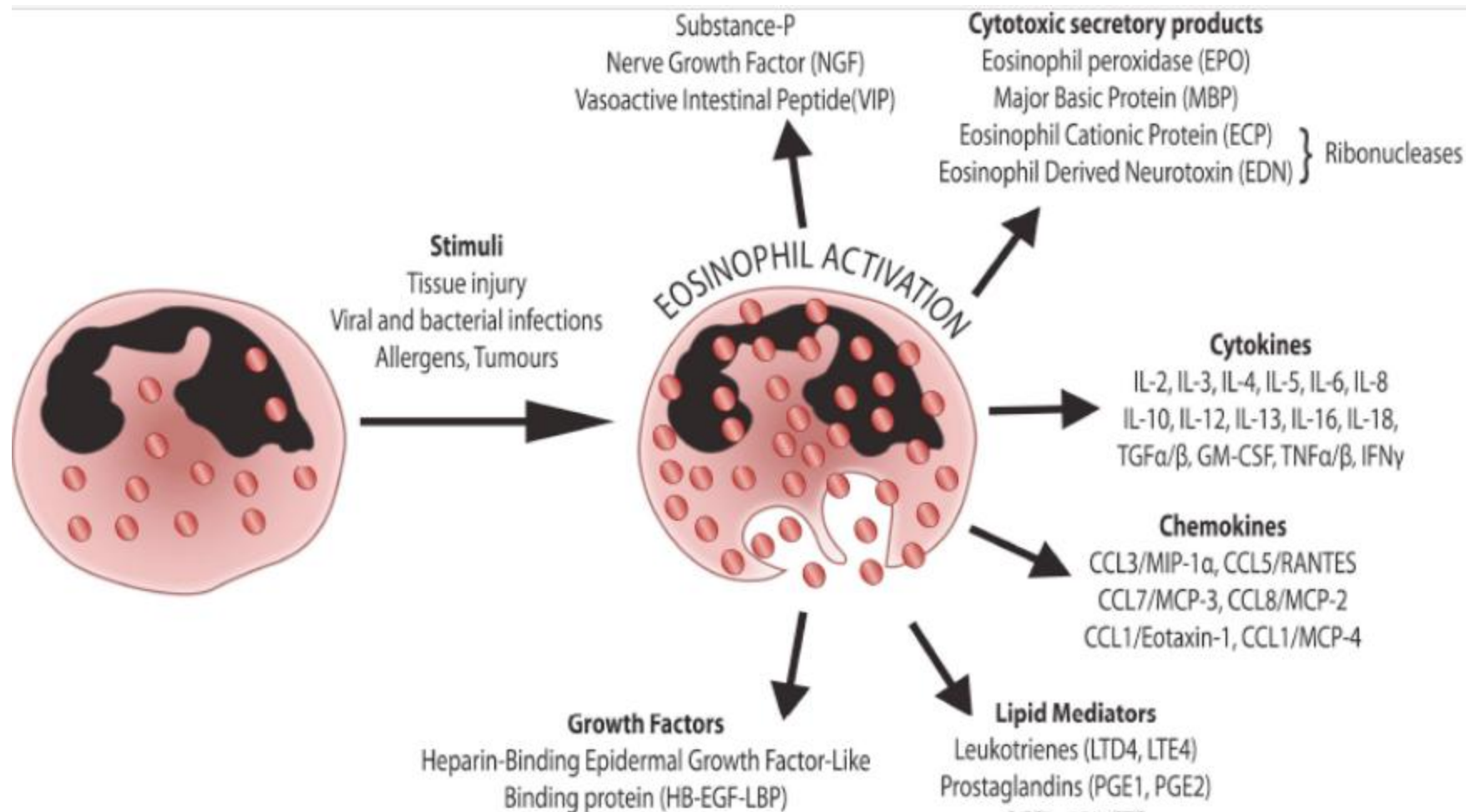
Eosinophilia in blood



Eosinophilia - eosinophil count in the peripheral blood exceeds the norm.

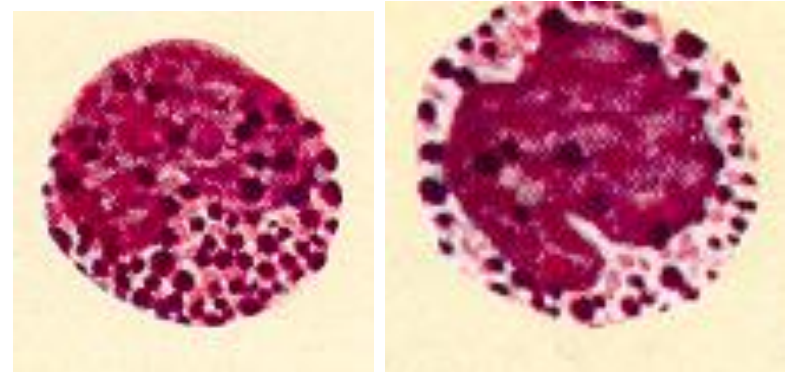
It is associated with allergic reactions and parasitic infections.

Degranulation of granules – formation of pores in parasites, killing by superoxides and hydrogen peroxide.

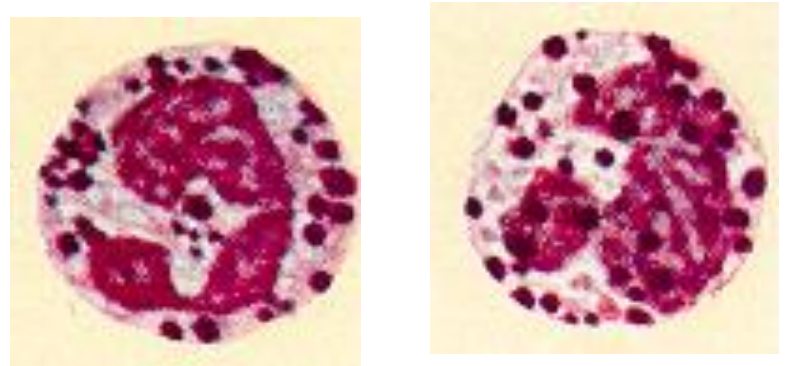
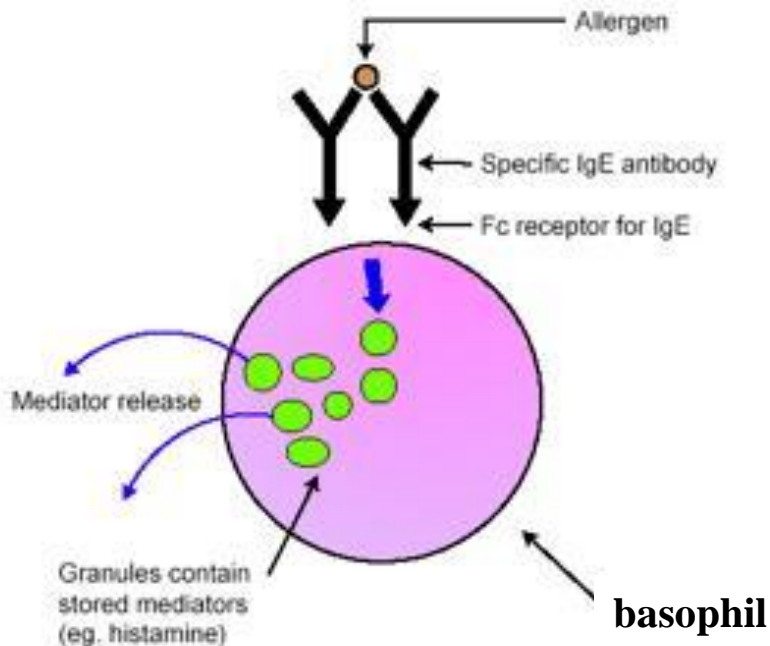


Basophils

- constitute less than 1% of total leukocyte population
- have S-shaped nucleus, masked by dark-blue specific granules



Similar to mast cells, have receptors for **IgE**. Release histamine (and in some species serotonin) produce leukotrienes and prostaglandins



0 –1 % of leukocytes

After stimulation, cells release the contents of its specific granule

**Heparin – anticoagulant –
prevents the formation of clots**

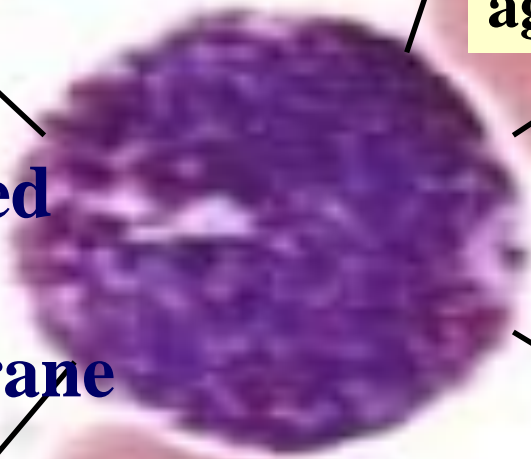
**Histamine – causes vasodilation,
smooth muscle contraction in
the bronchial tree and leakiness of
blood vessels**

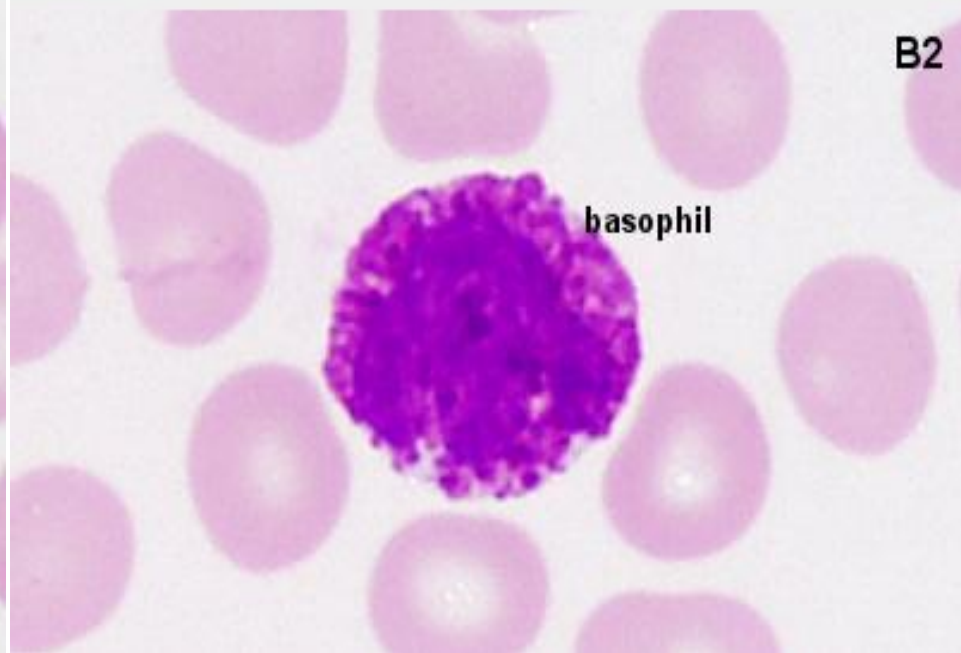
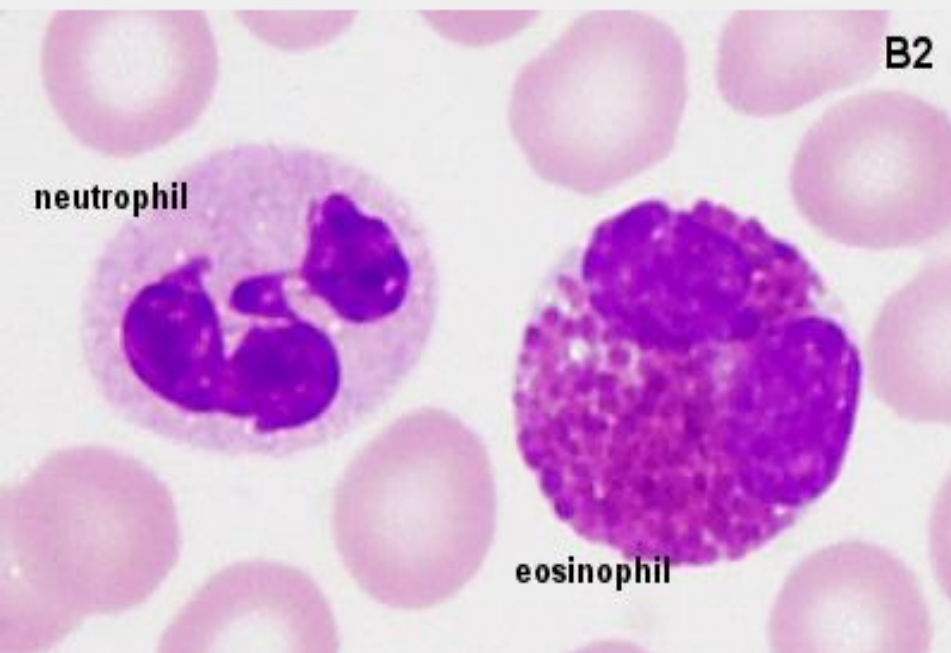
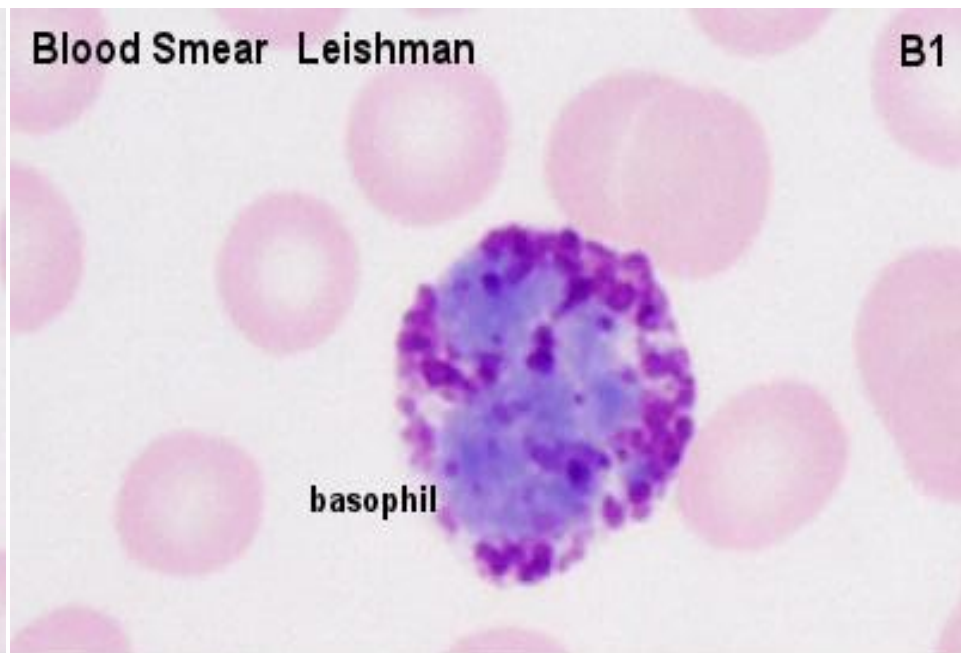
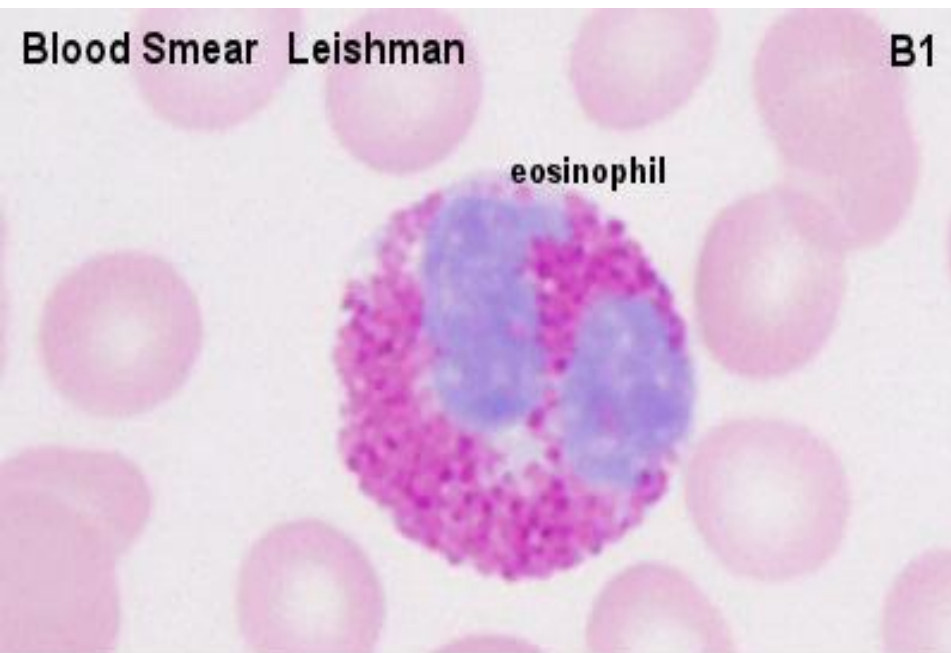
**Tromboxane – causes platelet
aggregation**

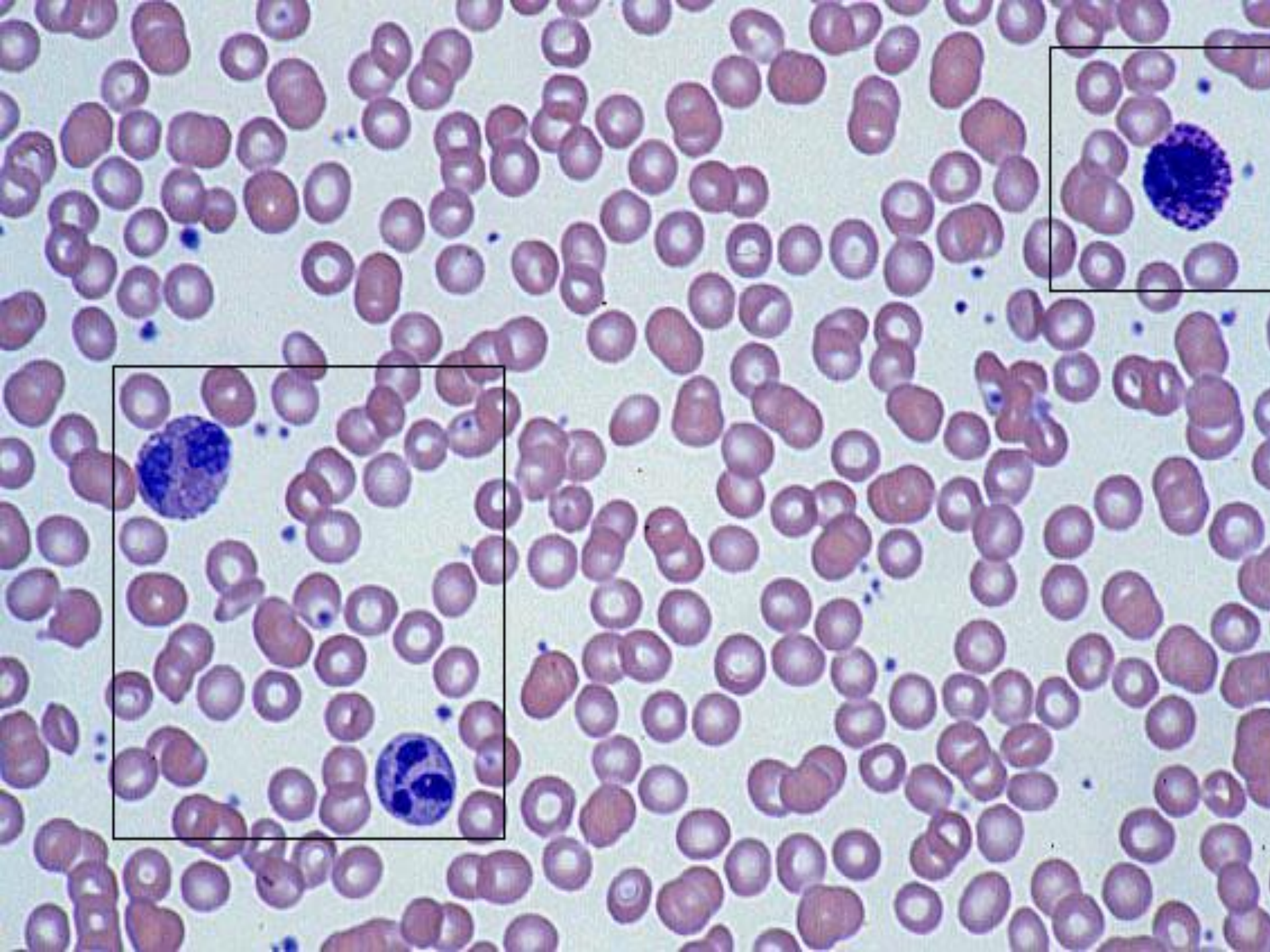
**mediators produced
from arachidonic
acid of cell membrane**

**Leukotrienes – effects similar
to histamine (action is slower)**

**Prostaglandin D₂ – contraction
of bronchial smooth muscle,
vasoconstriction**



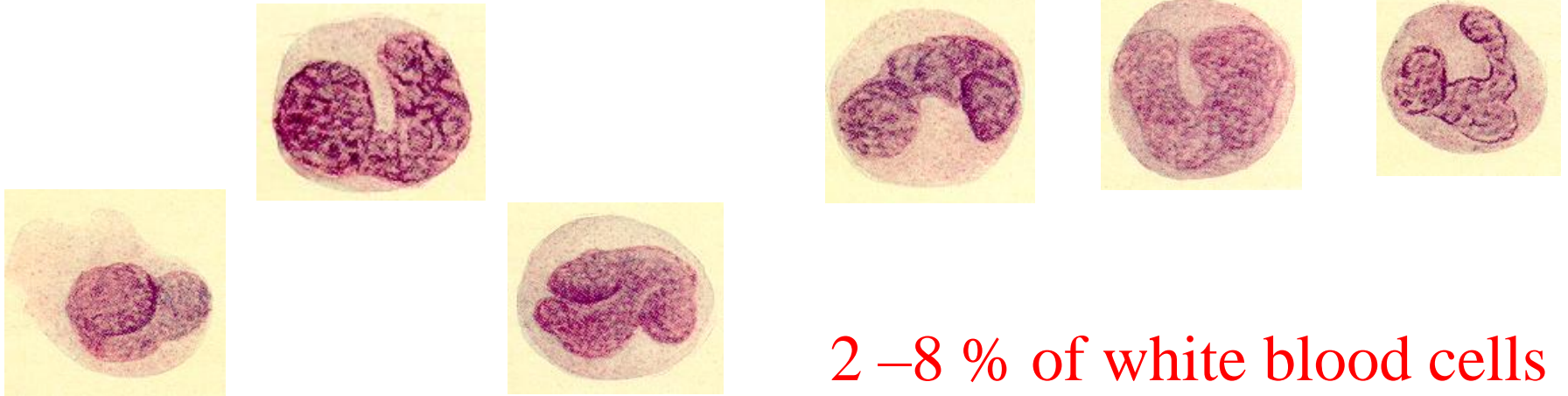




Monocytes

- the largest of the circulating blood cells
- constitute 2 – 8% of the leukocyte
- have a large kidney-shaped nucleus, lobe-like extensions of the nucleus seem to overlap one another
- have numerous azurophilic granules (lysosomes) but no specific granules

Monocytes become tissue macrophages, which phagocytose and digest invading microorganisms and foreign bodies as well as damaged senescent cells. Members of mononuclear phagocyte system.



2 – 8 % of white blood cells

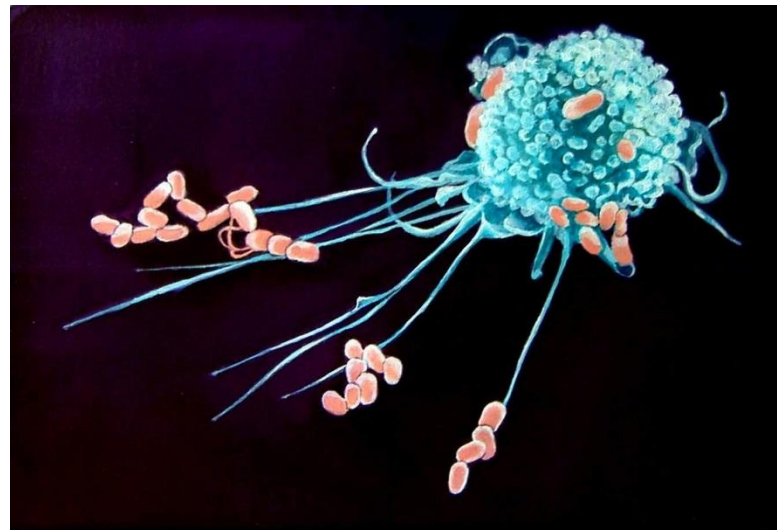
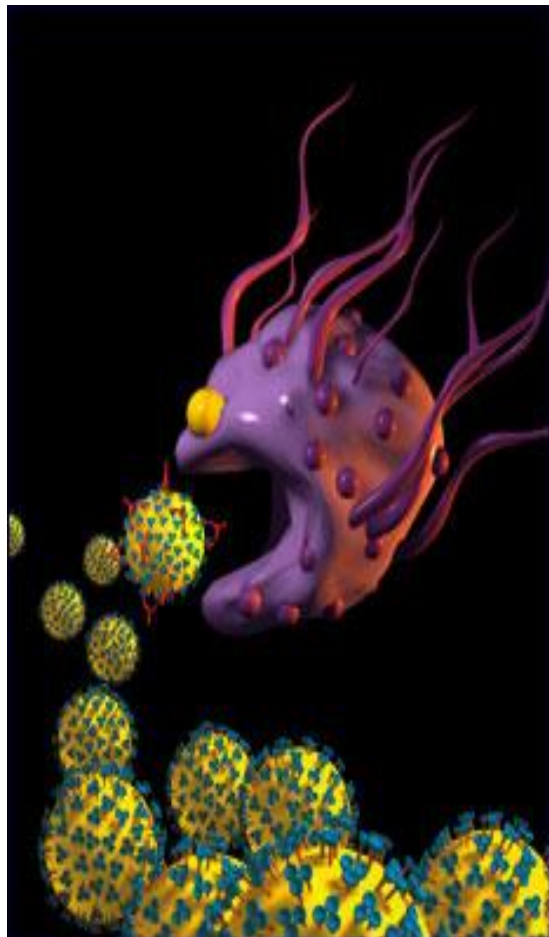
MONOCYTES

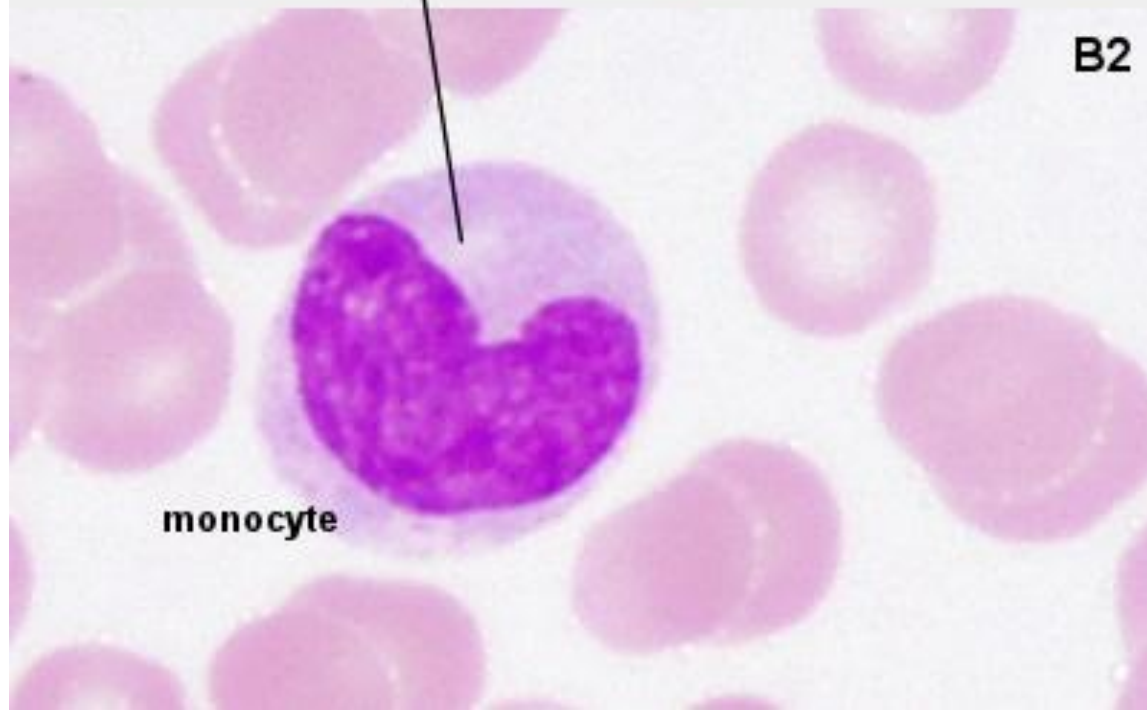
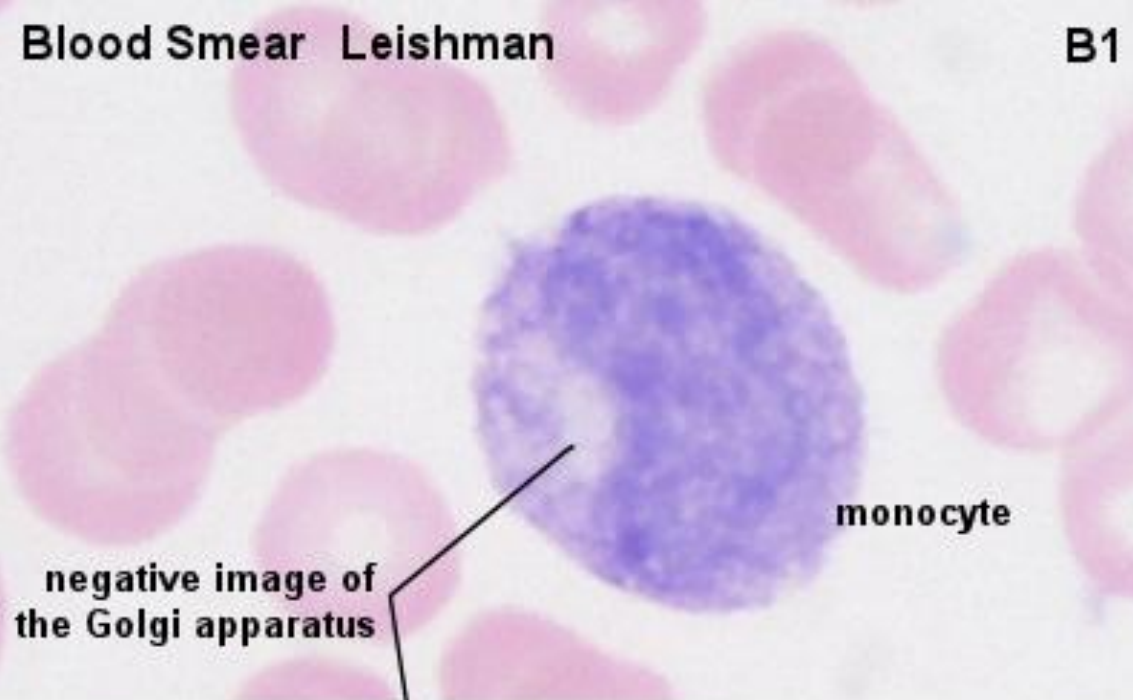
- stay in blood vessels for only a few days
- migrate through the endothelium of venules and capillaries into the connective tissue – differentiate into **macrophages**

Macrophages – are phagocytes (members of the mononuclear phagocyte system), phagocytose:

- antigens and foreign particles (bacteria)
- dead and defunct cells (senescent erythrocytes)

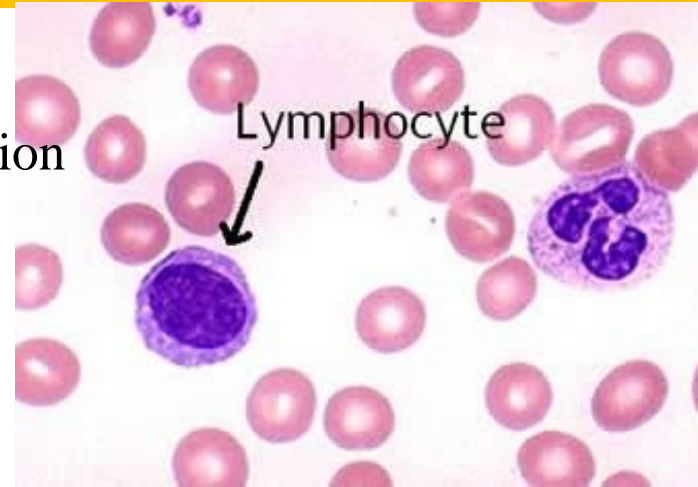
Macrophages are involved
in the immune response





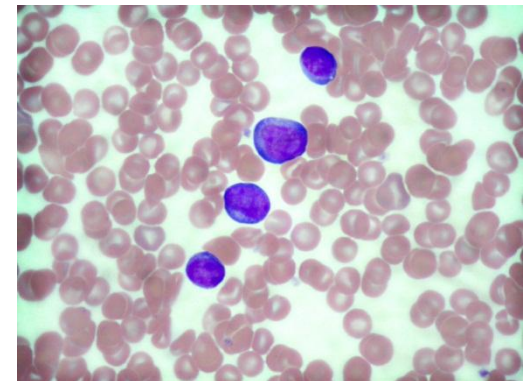
Lymphocytes

- constitute 22% to 44% of the total leukocyte population
- have round nucleus that occupies most of the cell
- contain a few azurophilic but no specific granules



Lymphocytes are subdivided into three functional groups:

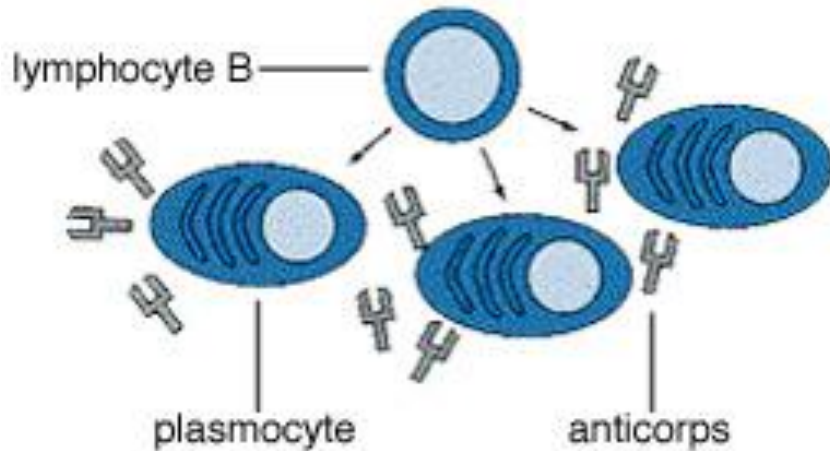
- B lymphocytes (15% of the circulating lymphocytes)
- T lymphocytes (80% of the circulating lymphocytes)
- Null cells (NK cells) (5% of the circulating lymphocytes)



Morphologically are indistinguishable

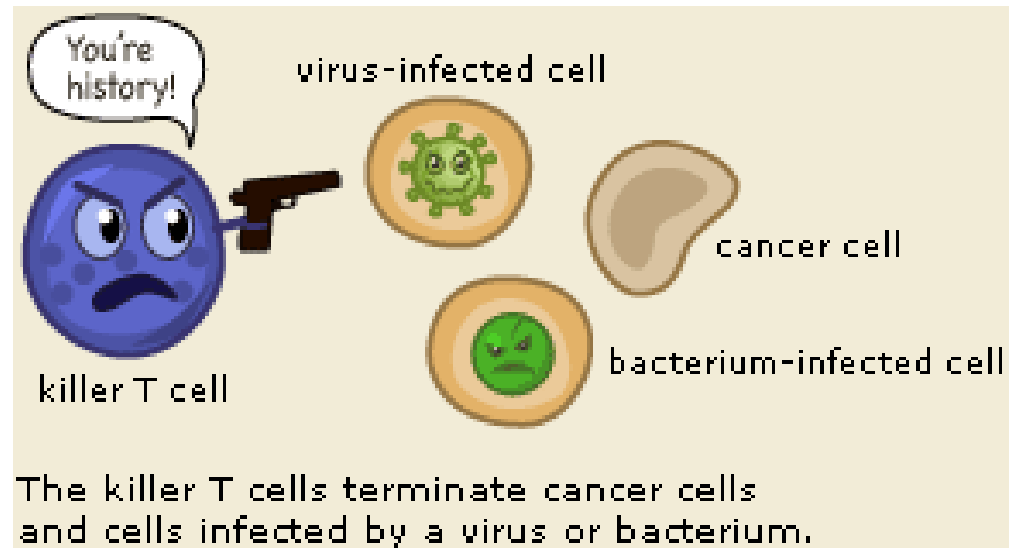
LYMPHOCYTES - function

B cells – responsible for the humoral immune response



1. Contact with antigens
2. Differentiate into plasmacytes
3. Produce antibodies against antigens

T cells – responsible for the cellular immune response

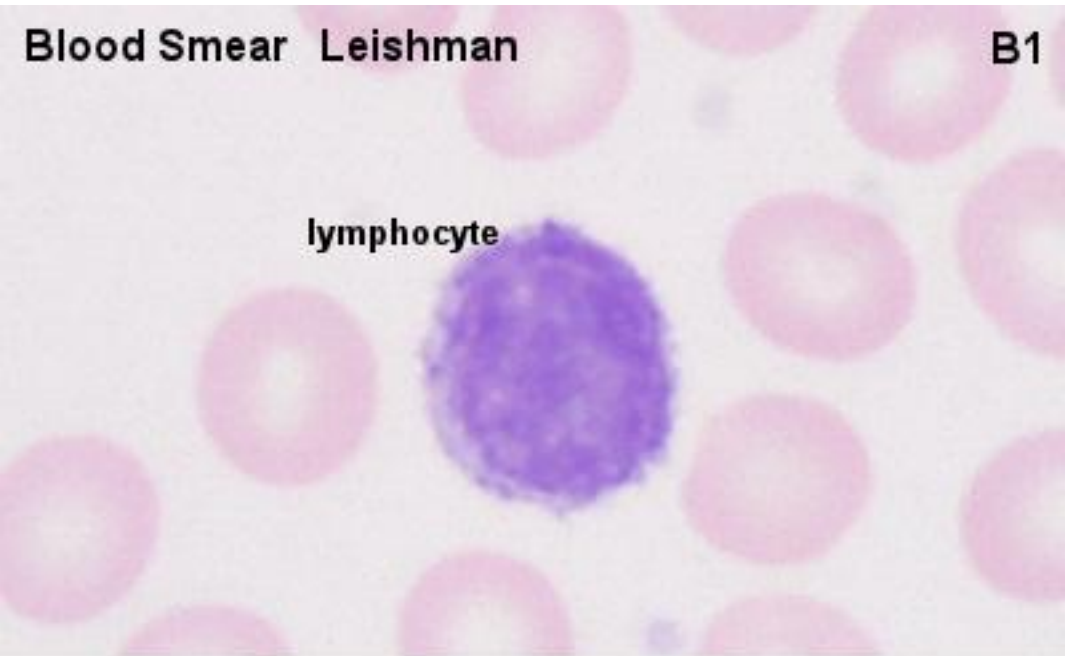


1. Some T cells differentiate into cytotoxic T cells (T killer cells)
2. Some of them differentiate into T helper cells and produce cytokines (signaling molecules)

Blood Smear Leishman

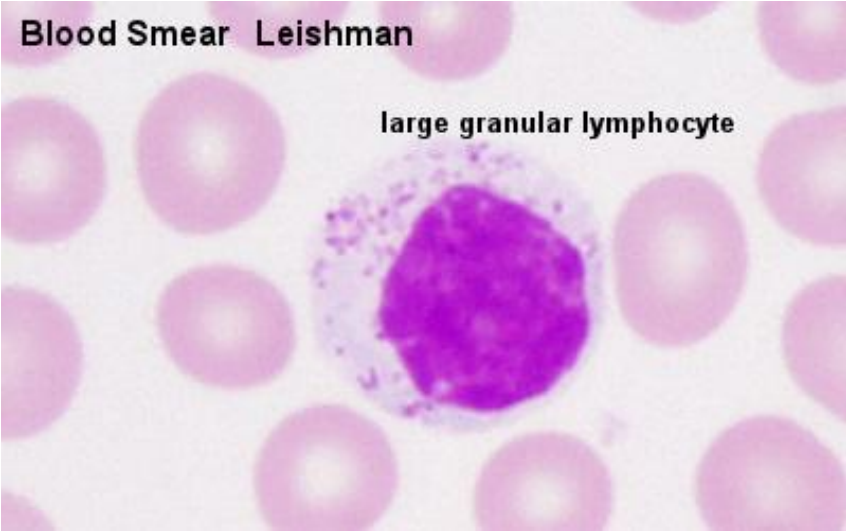
B1

lymphocyte



Blood Smear Leishman

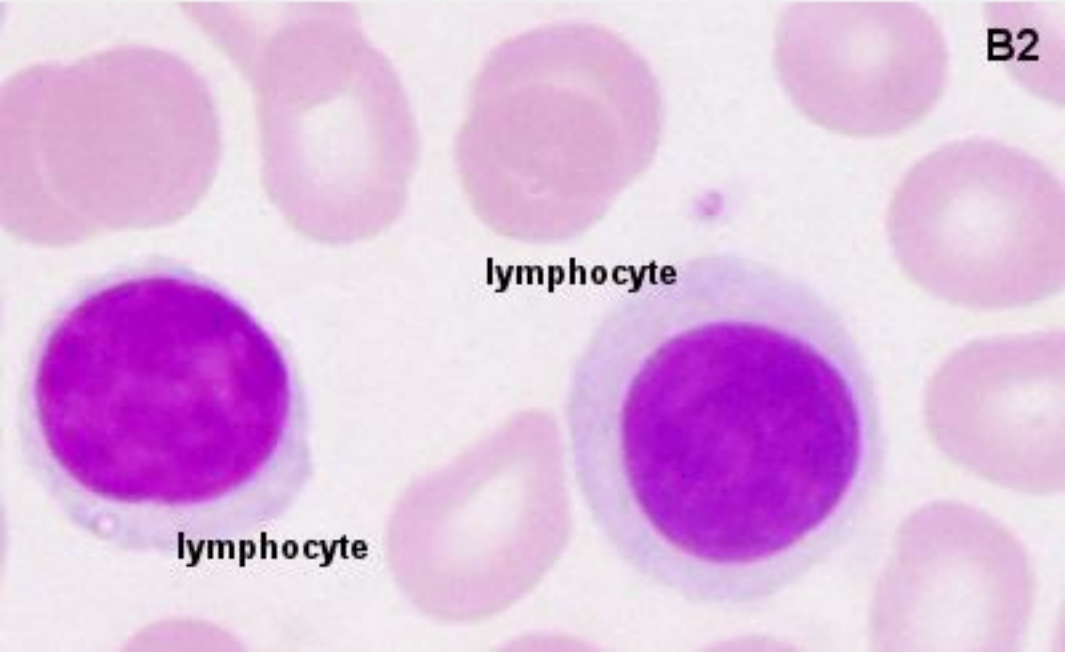
large granular lymphocyte



B2

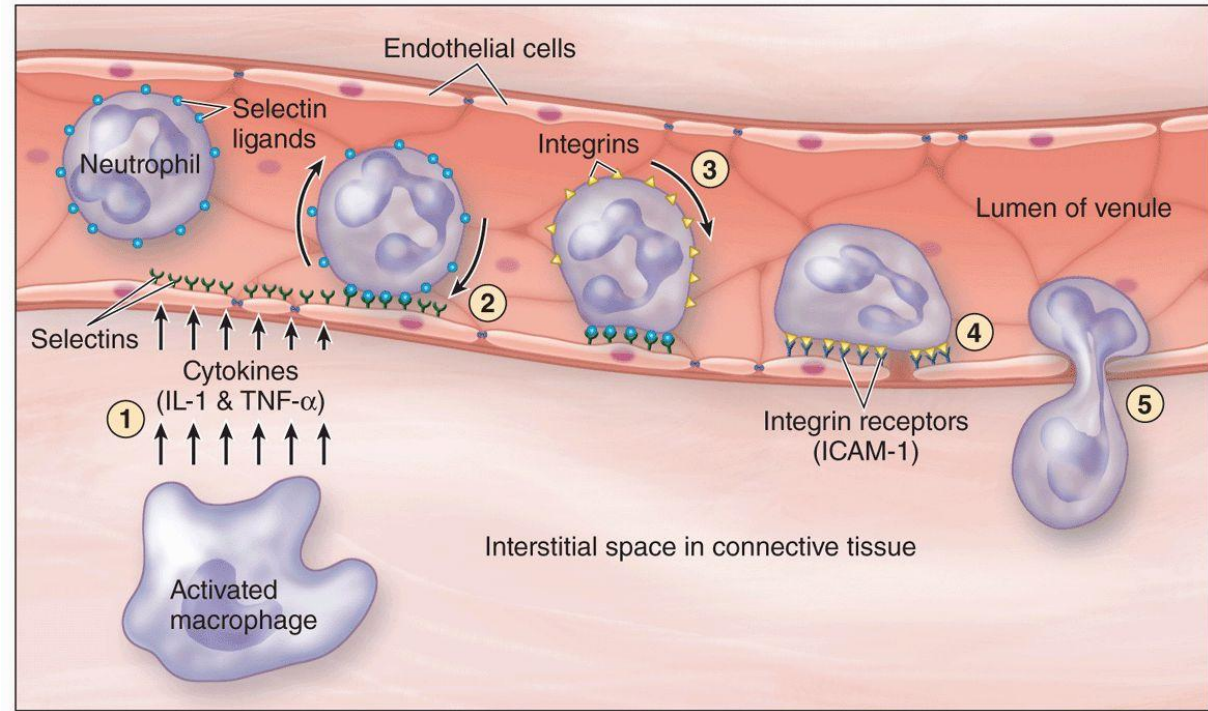
lymphocyte

lymphocyte



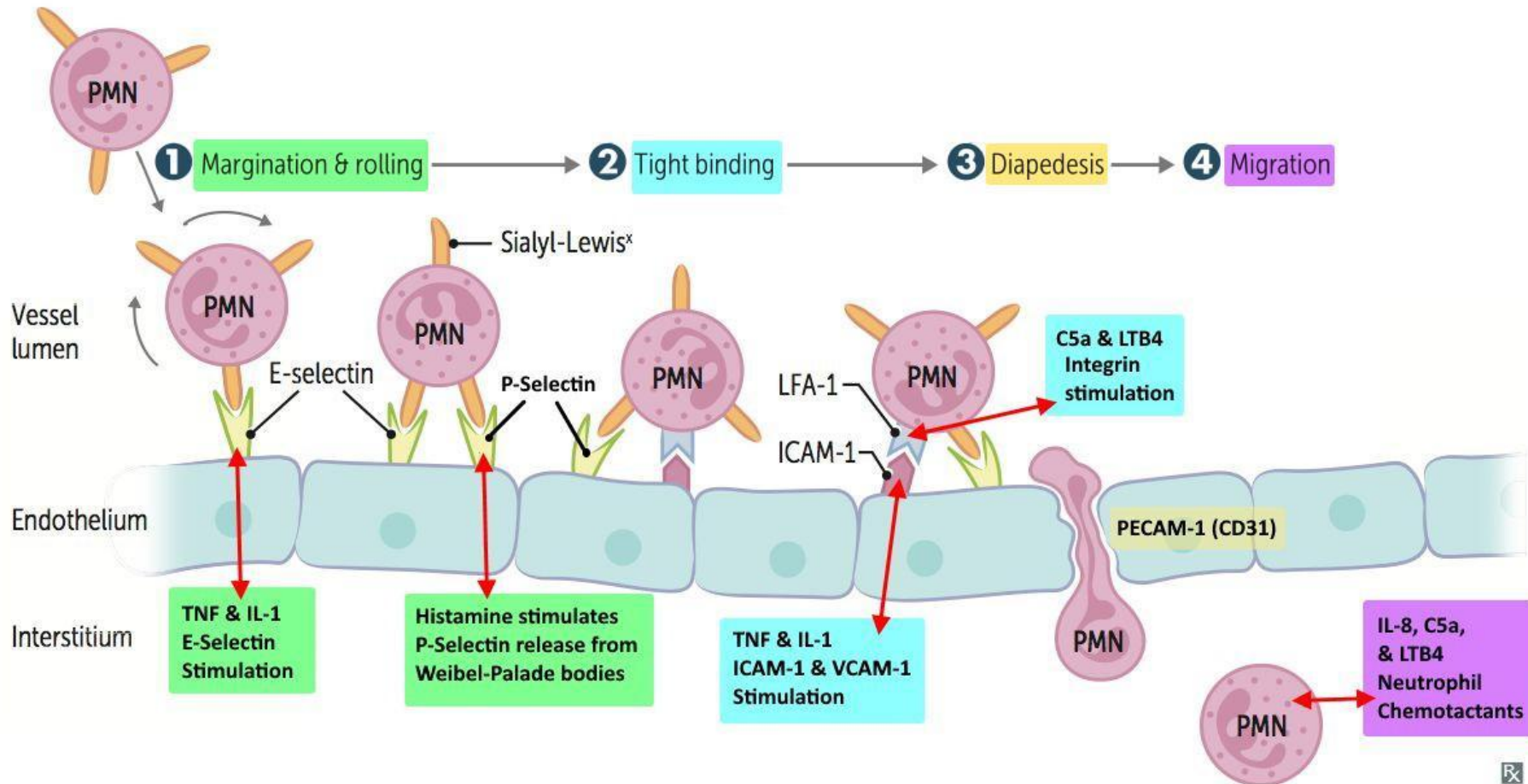
The migration of white blood cells out of the bloodstream during an inflammatory response

Leukocytes do not function within the bloodstream but they migrate between the endothelial cells of blood vessels into the connection tissue - DIAPYDEDESIS



1. Leukocytes roll slowly on the surface of endothelial cells.
2. Damaged tissue release chemokines (small signaling proteins which have ability to induce directed chemotaxis)
3. Endothelial cells bind leukocyte
4. Passage through the endothelium of the venule to enter the connective tissue compartment

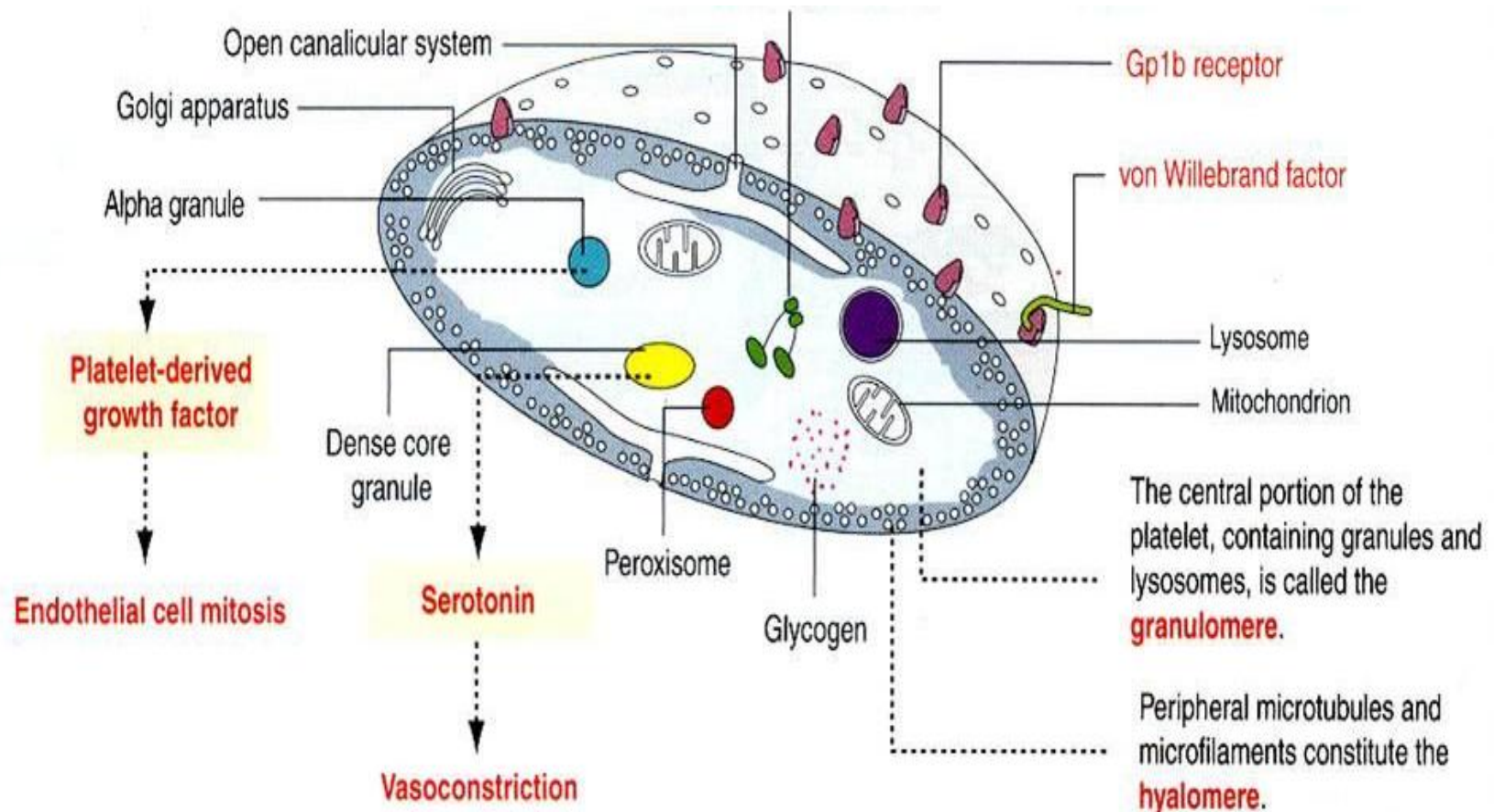
Margination diapedesis migration chemotaxis



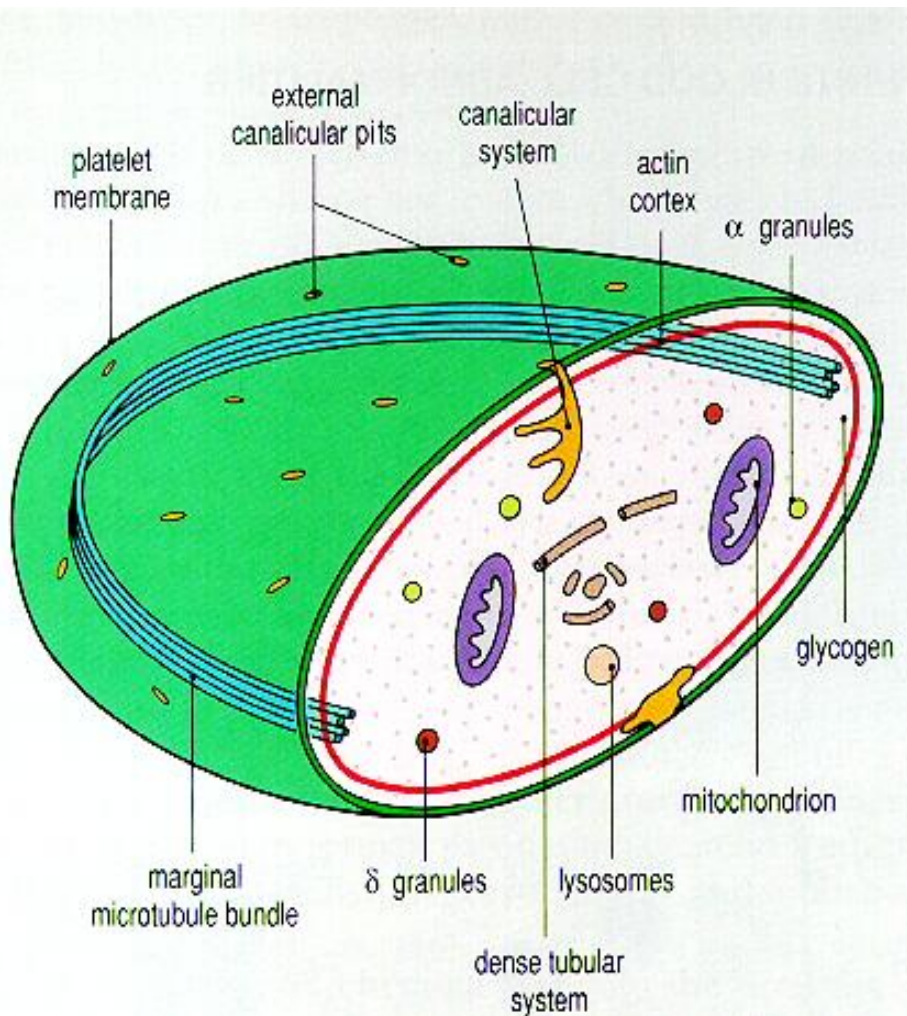
Platelets (Thrombocytes)

Non-nucleated fragments of megakaryocyte cytoplasm, 2-4 μm in diameter, with a life-span about 10 days.
200,000 – 400,000 per microliter of blood

Platelet
- has two regions: hyalomere and granulomere



Platelets (Thrombocytes)



Two tubular systems of platelets (in hyalomere)

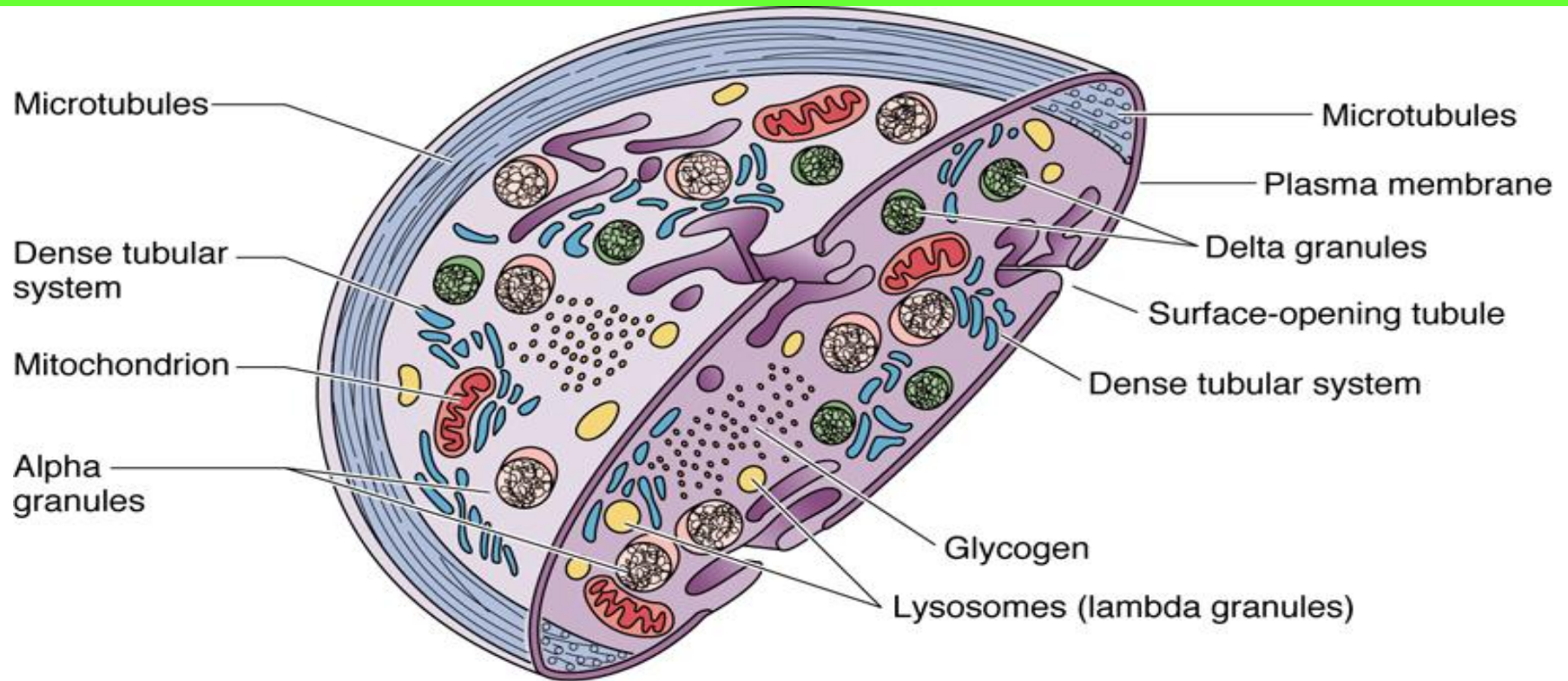
Dense tubular system – site of prostaglandin synthesis?

The surface opening canalicular system – coiled system within the platelet which communicates with the outside, increases surface of platelet (7-8 times)

Microtubules

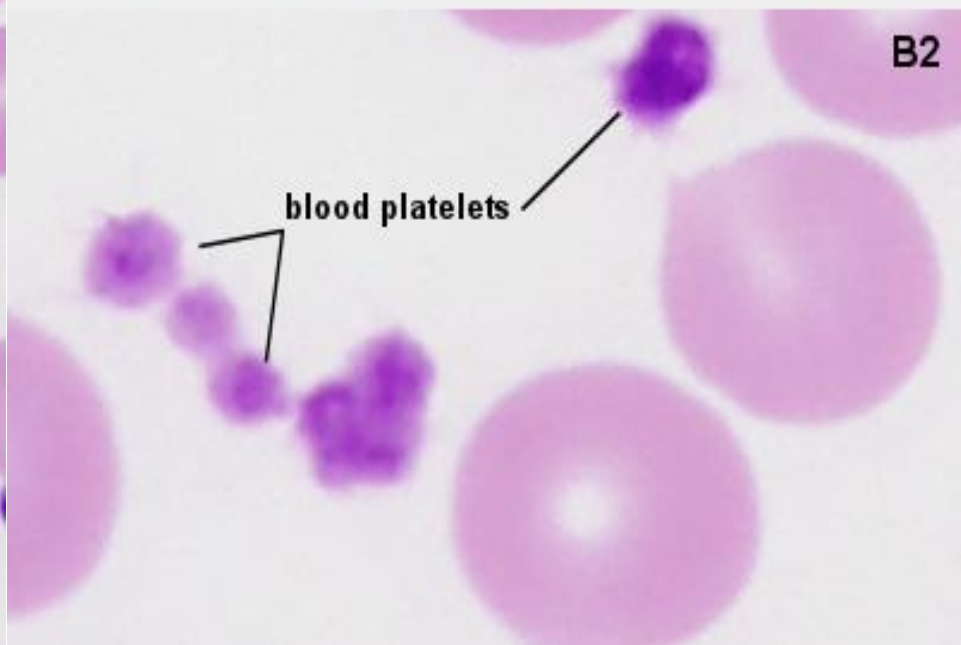
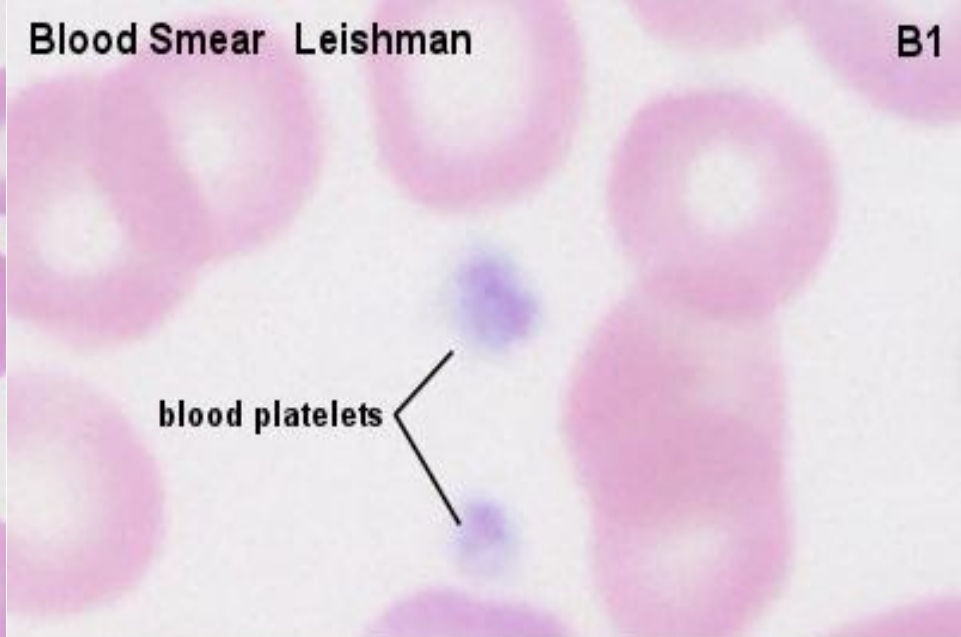
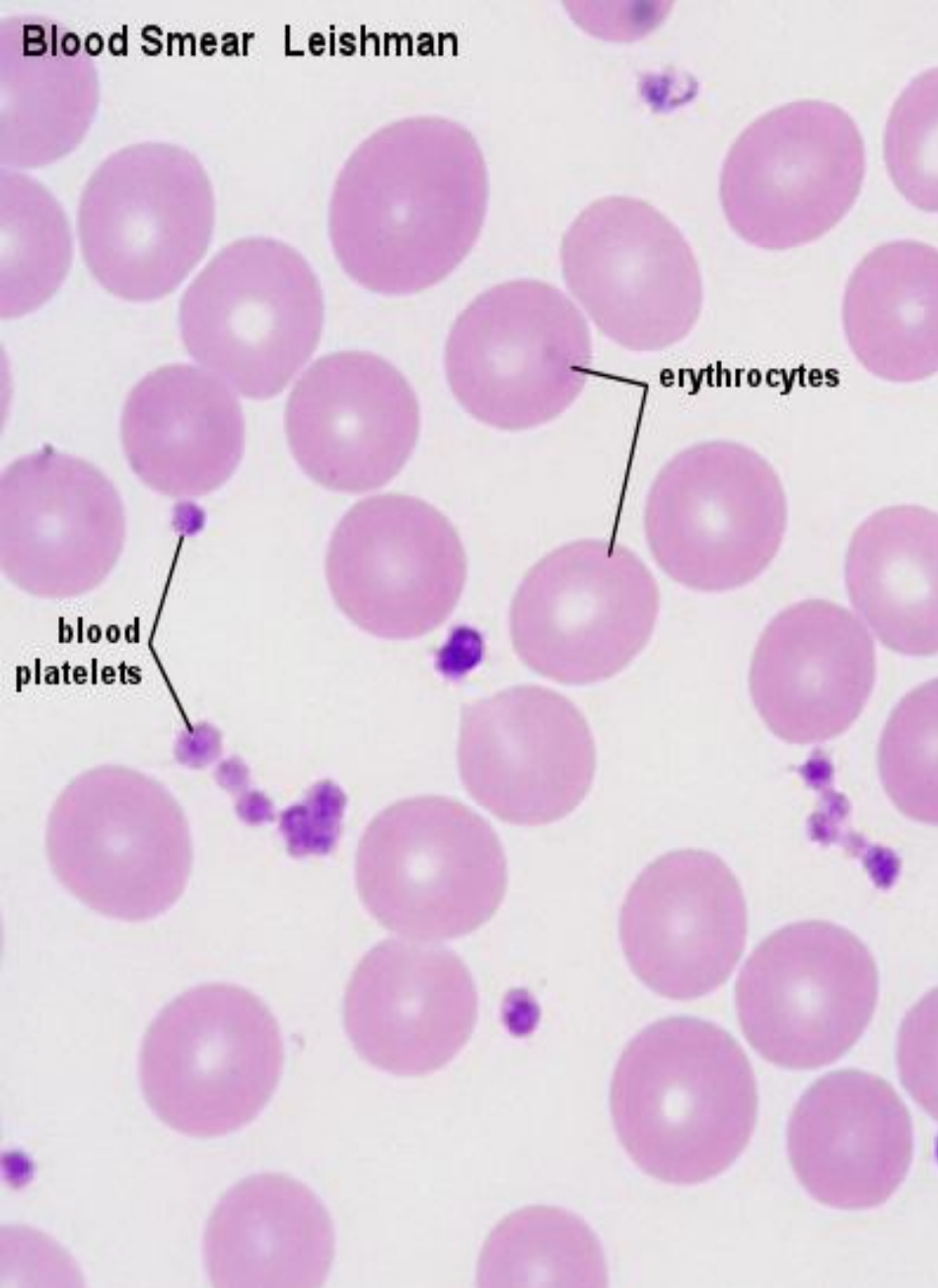
- are arranged parallel to each other and form a ring within the hyalomere
- assist platelets in maintaining their diskoid morphology

Platelets (Thrombocytes)



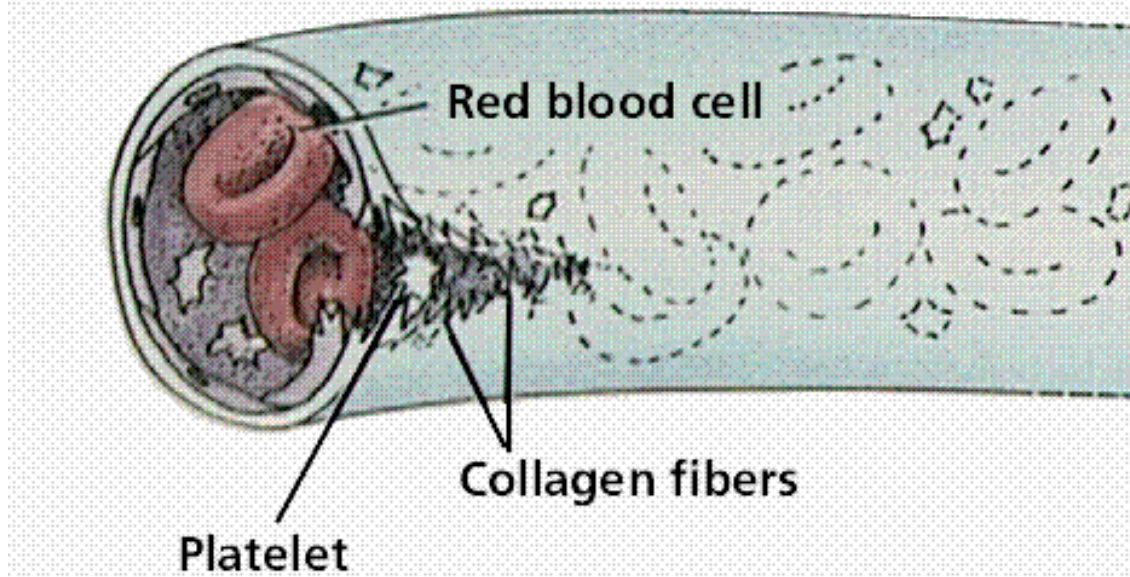
Three types of granules:

- **alpha granules** - fibrinogen, PDGF, TGF, von Willebrand factor, thromboplastin.
- **delta granules** - calcium ions, ADP, ATP, serotonin (enhances platelet procoagulant properties)
- **lambda granules** (lysosomes) – hydrolytic enzymes



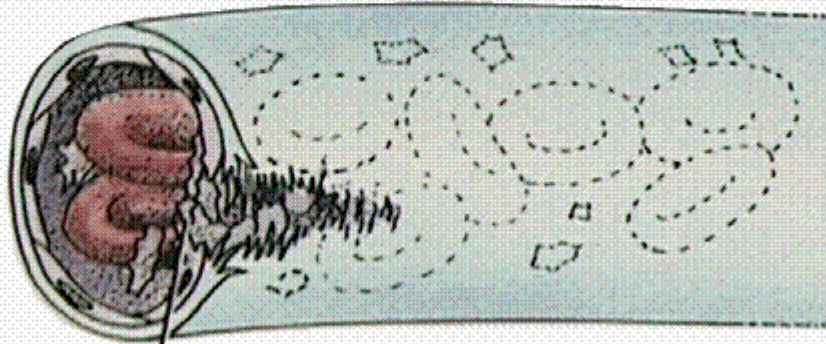
Platelets circulating in blood are inactive

Injury to the lining of a blood vessel exposes collagen fibers; platelets adhere and get sticky



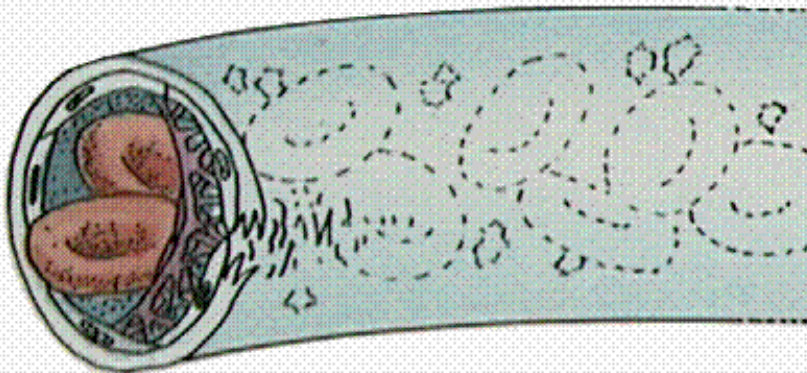
Contact with collagen from damaged vessel activates them. They attach to collagen directly by membrane receptors (integrins) or with the help of von Willebrand factor (from alpha granules).

Platelets release substances that cause the vessel to contract. Sticky platelets form a plug and initiate formation of a fibrin clot



Platelet plug

The fibrin clot seals the wound until the vessel wall heals



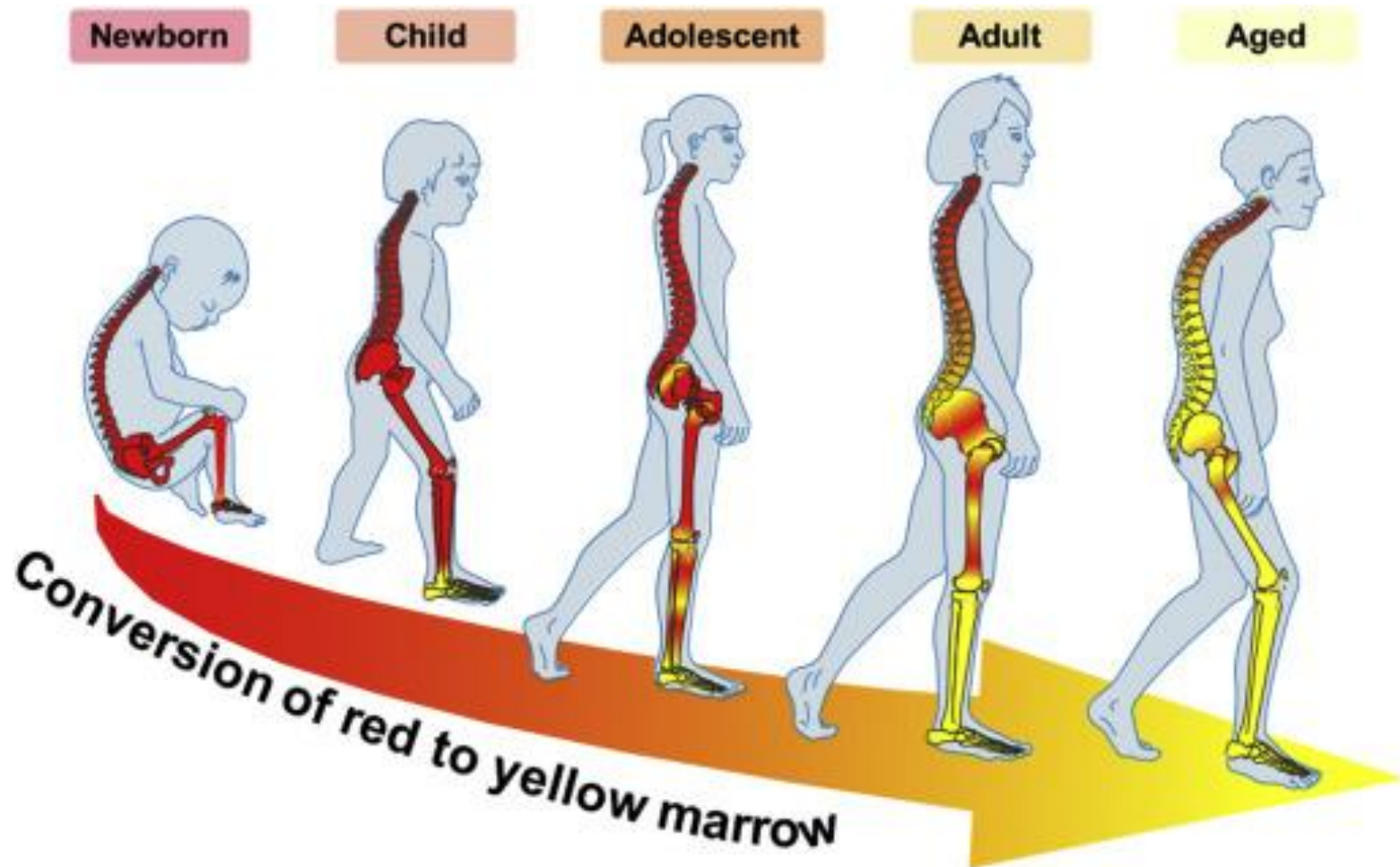
Fibrin meshwork

Platelets form tromboxane A₂ (TXA₂) which contracts blood vessels.

Platelets aggregate and form a platelet plug, inhibiting bleeding and initiate blood clotting.

Thromboplastin converts prothrombin into thrombin. Thrombin converts fibrinogen into fibrin – clot is formed in the presence of calcium ions

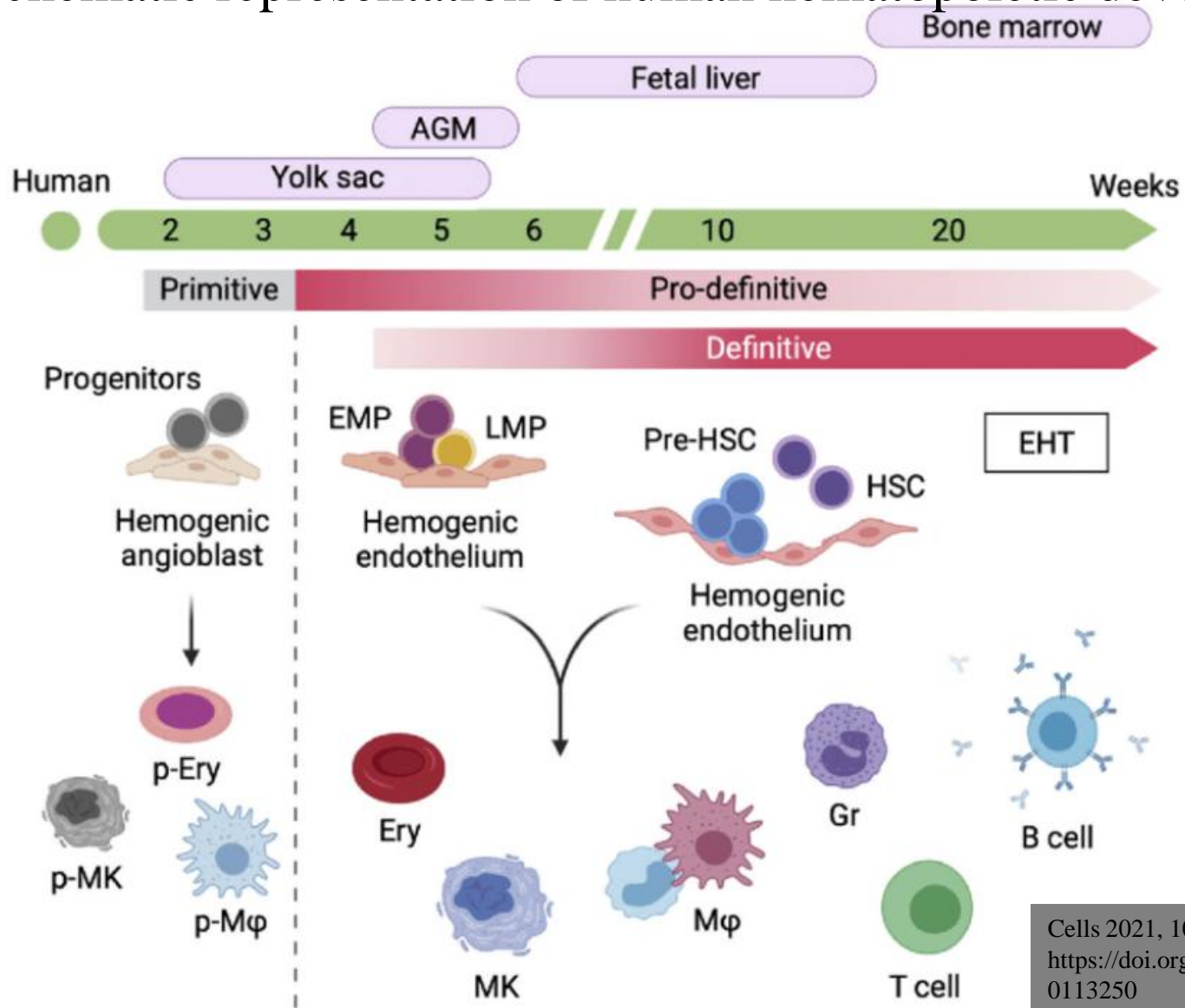
Hemopoiesis - formation of blood cellular components



In a healthy adult person, approximately 10^{11} – 10^{12} new blood cells are produced daily in order to maintain steady state levels in the peripheral circulation.

In adults, it occurs mainly in the pelvis, cranium, vertebrae, and sternum.

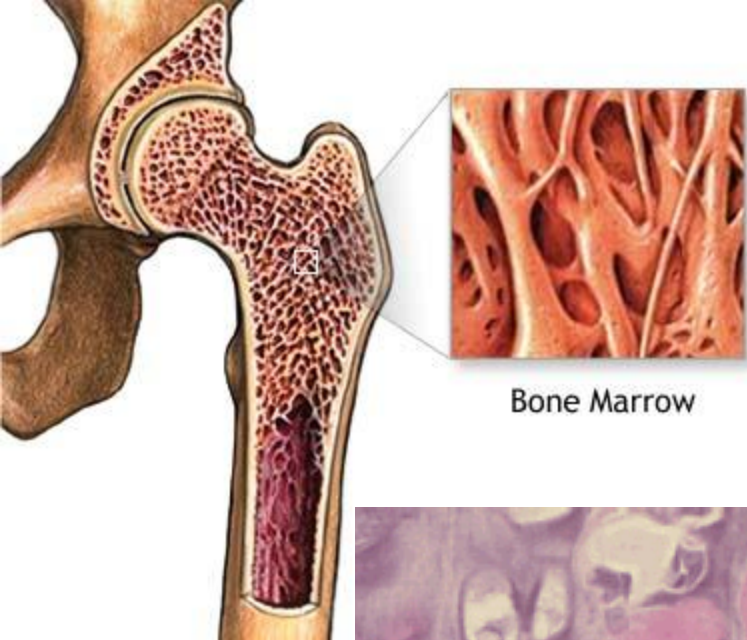
Schematic representation of human hematopoietic development.



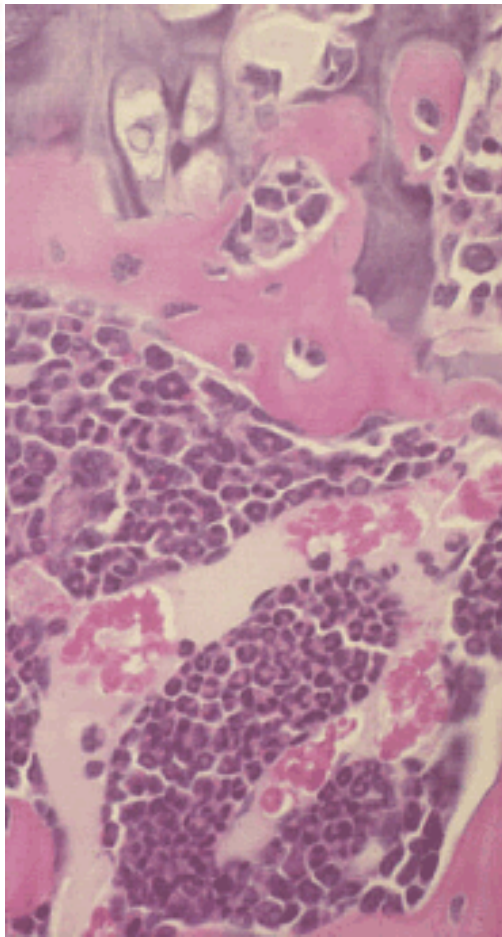
AGM, aorta-gonad-mesonephros; EHT, endothelial-to-hematopoietic transition; EMP, erythro-myeloid progenitor; LMP, lympho-myeloid progenitor; HSC, hematopoietic stem cell; Ery, erythrocyte; MK, megakaryocyte; Mφ, macrophage; Gr, granulocyte.

Bone marrow

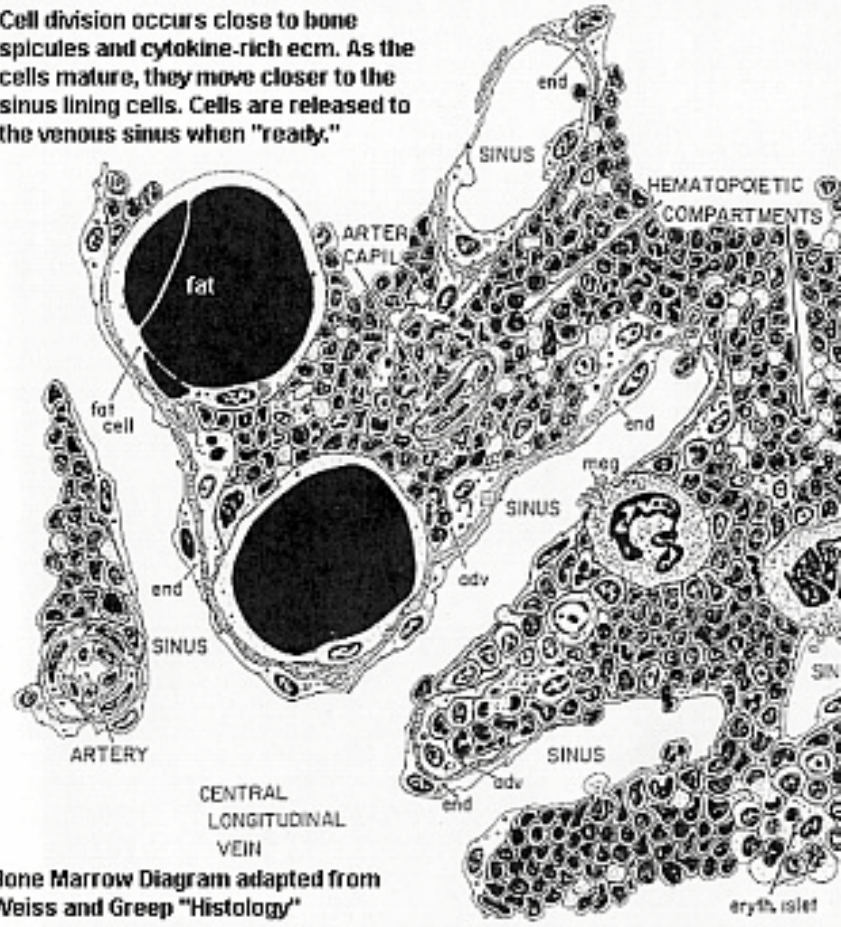
- vascular connective tissue
- located in marrow cavity
- contains cells responsible for hemopoiesis - hematopoietic stem cells



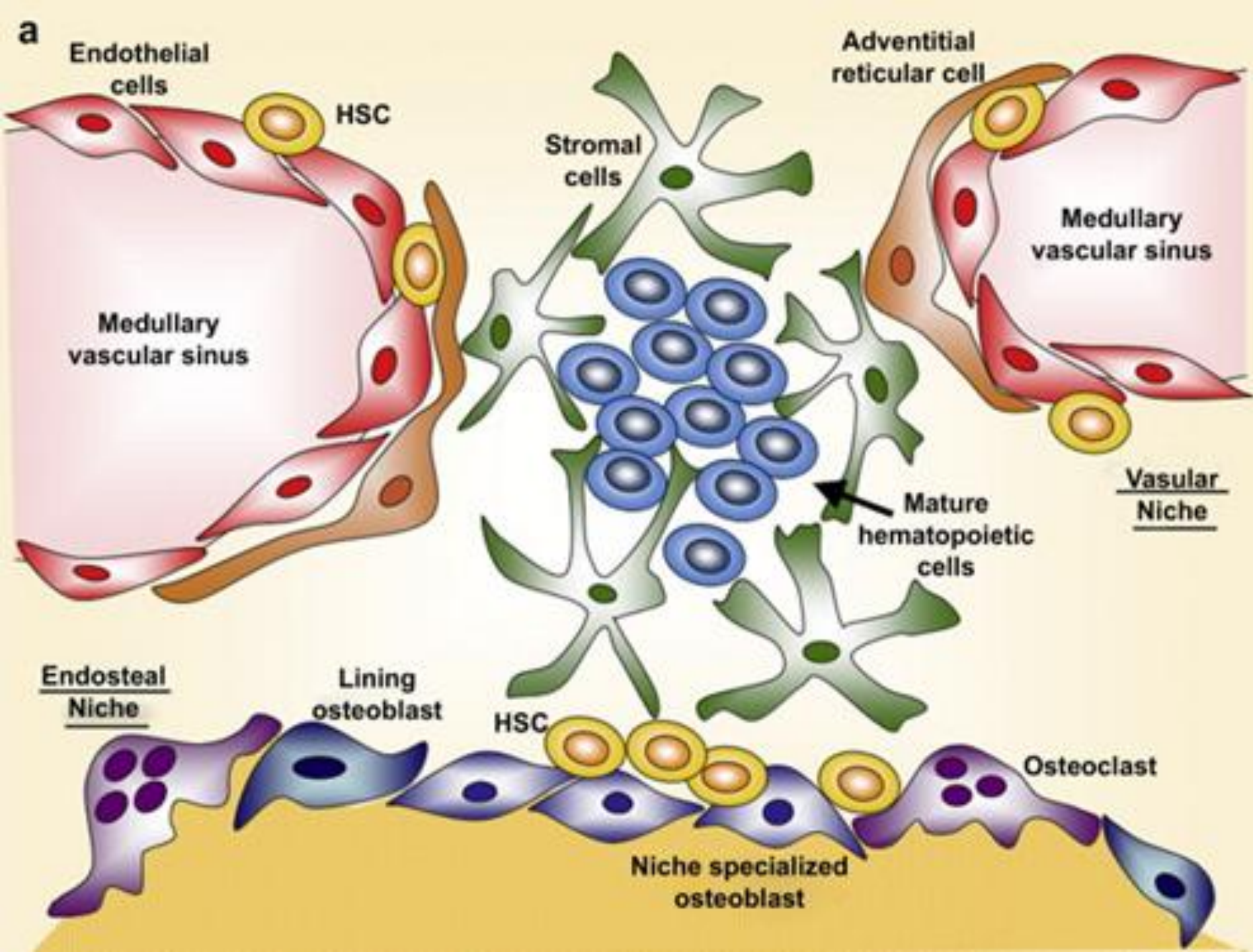
Bone Marrow



Cell division occurs close to bone spicules and cytokine-rich ecm. As the cells mature, they move closer to the sinus lining cells. Cells are released to the venous sinus when "ready."



Bone Marrow Diagram adapted from Weiss and Greep "Histology"



Multipotent hemopoietic stem cells (PHSCs)

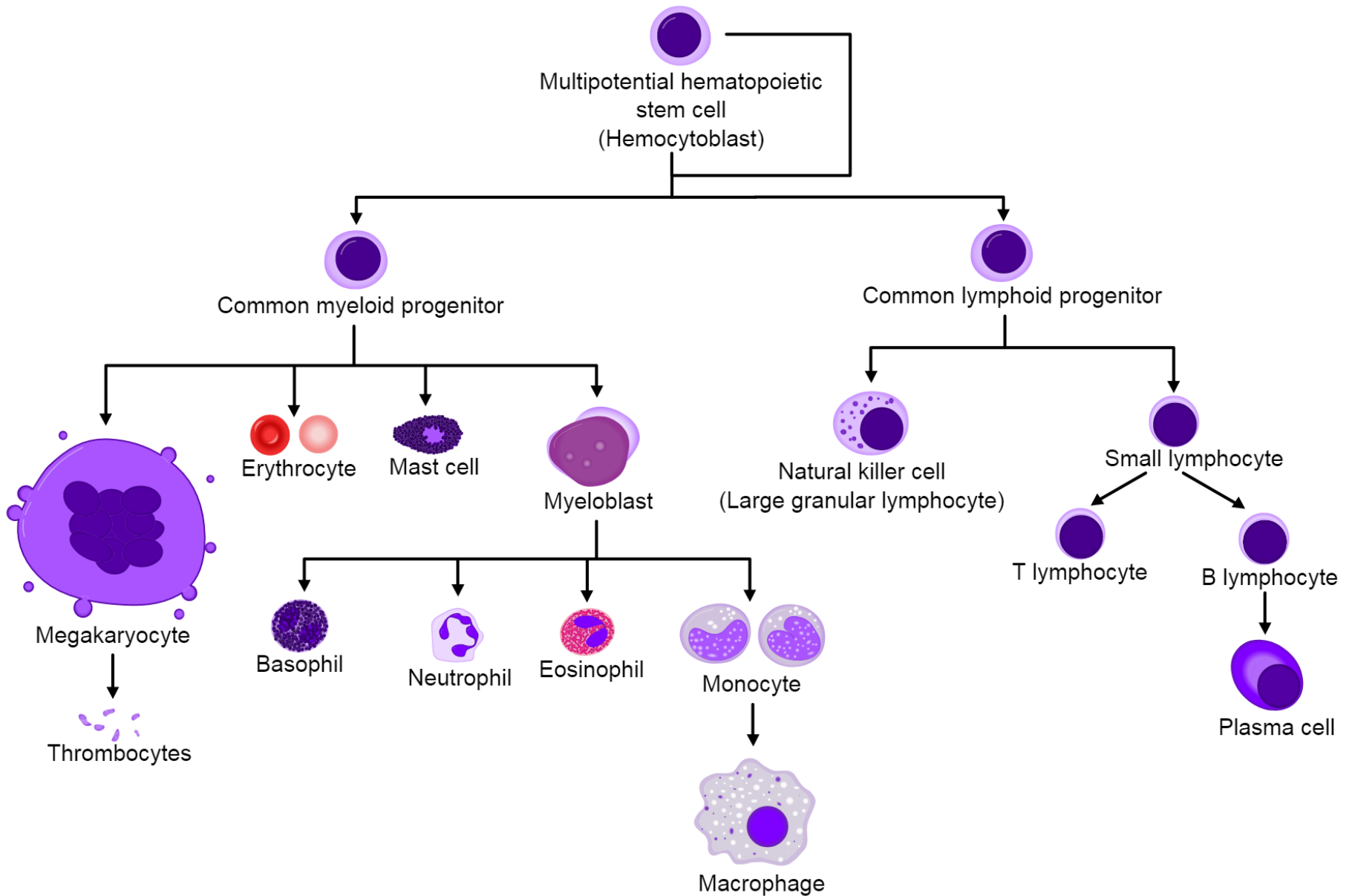
- account for about 0.1% of cell population of bone marrow
undergo bursts of cell division giving rise to more **PHSCs**
as well as two types:

- **common myeloid progenitor**

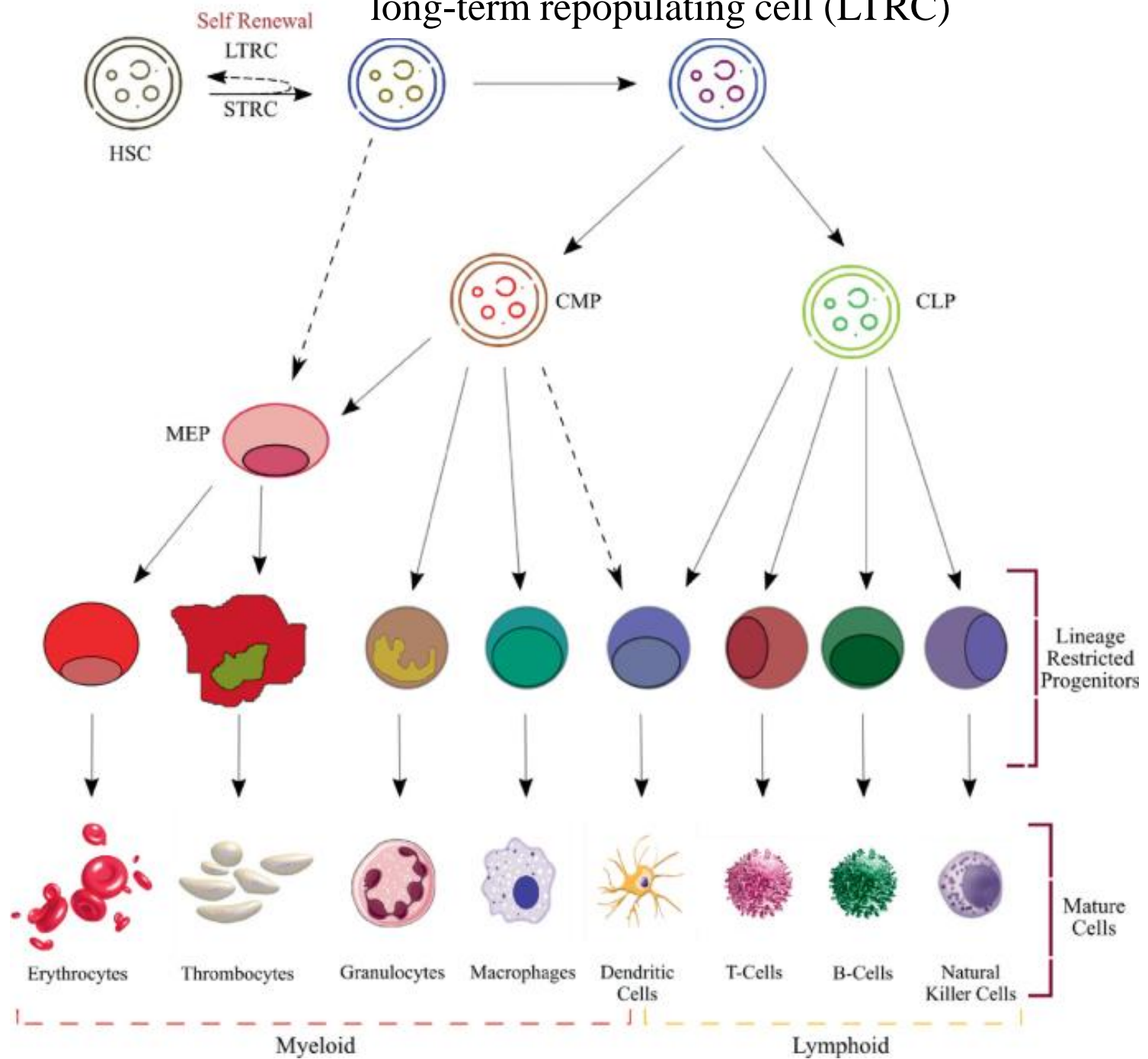
colony forming unit-granulocyte, erythrocyte, monocyte, megakaryocyte (CFU-GEMM) – responsible for the formation of myeloid cell lines (erythrocytes, granulocytes, monocytes, and platelets)

- **common lymphoid progenitor**

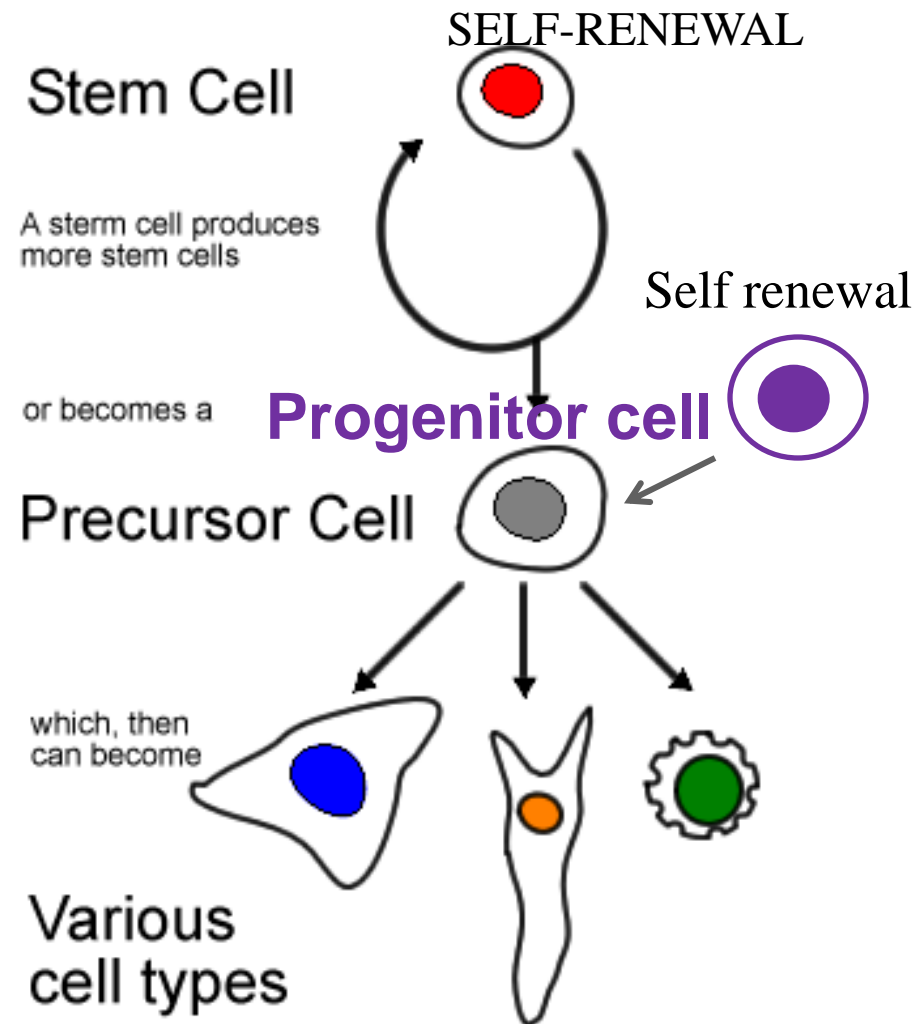
colony forming unit–lymphocyte (CFU-Ly) – responsible for the formation of lymphoid cell lines (T cells and B lymphocytes)

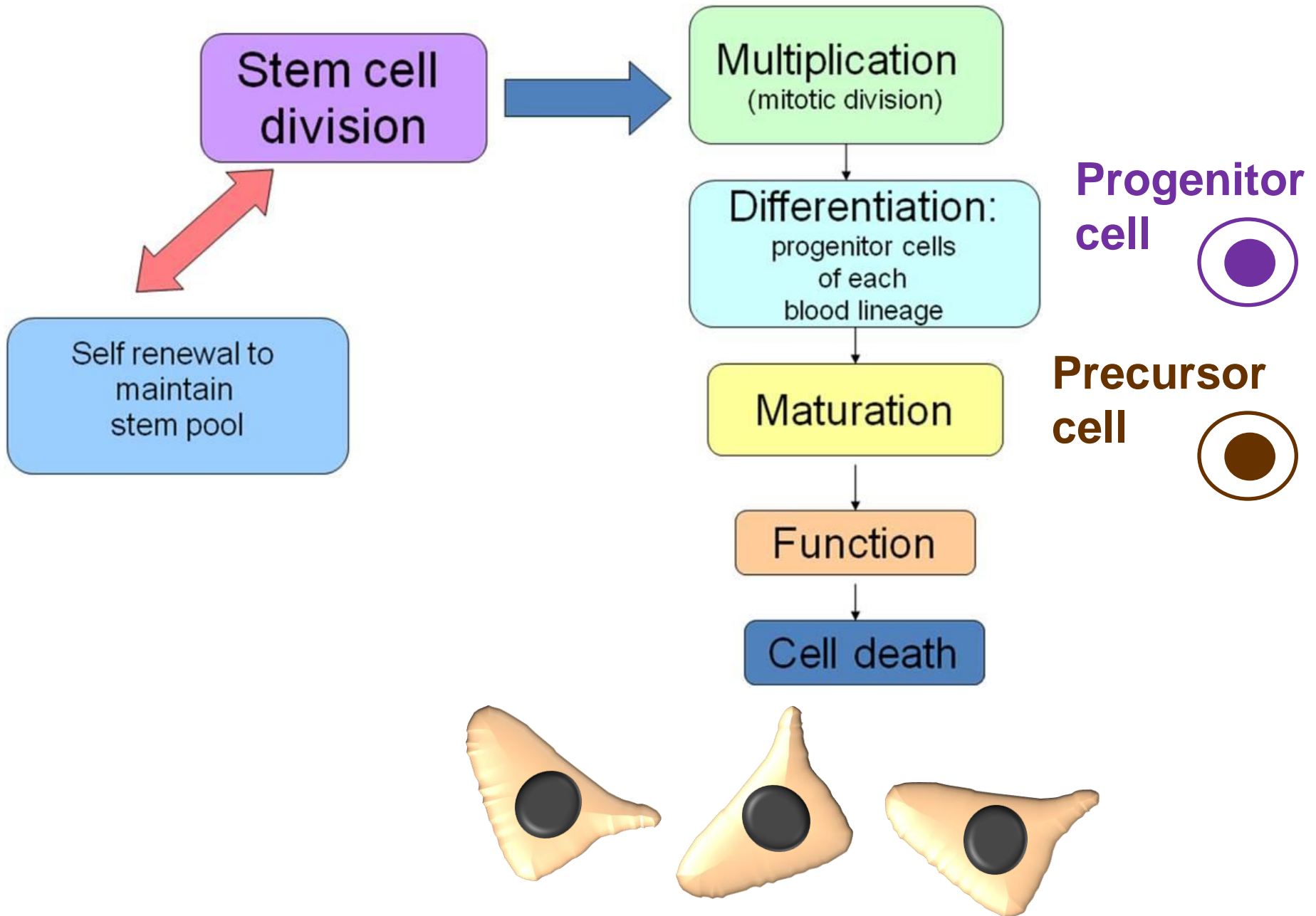


long-term repopulating cell (LTRC)



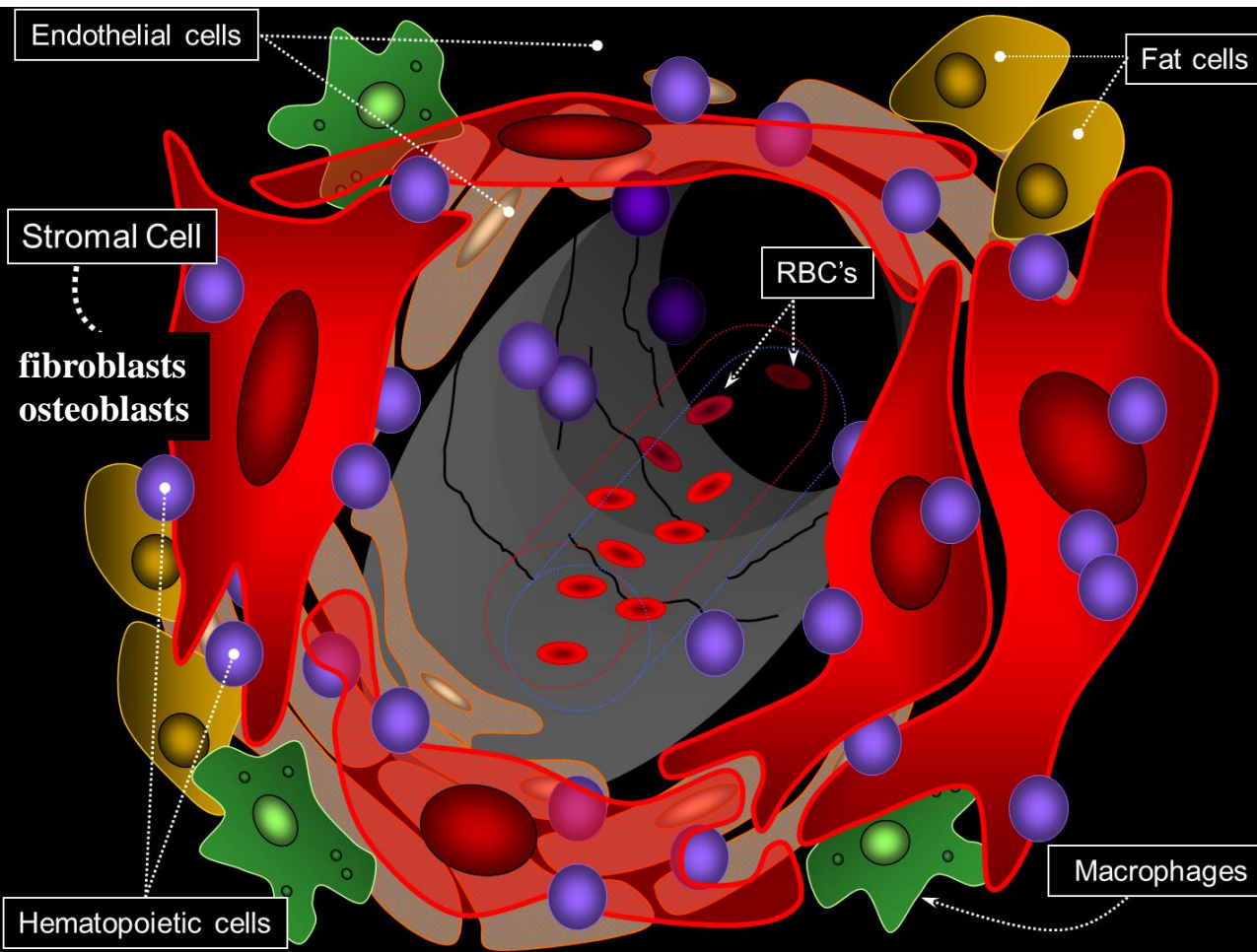
The main difference between progenitor and precursor cells is that **progenitor cells** are mainly multipotent cells that can differentiate into **many types** of cells, whereas **precursor cells** are unipotent cells that can only differentiate into a **particular type** of cells. Furthermore, progenitor cells are less differentiated cells, while precursor cells are more differentiated than progenitor cells.





Hemopoietic Growth Factors

1. Stem cell factor – promotes hemopoiesis – produced by stromal cells of bone marrow (is inserted into their cell membranes). Acts on multipotential stem cells



Stem cells must come in contact with stromal cells before division

2. Colony-stimulating factors (CSFs)

- are secreted glycoproteins that bind to receptor proteins on the surfaces of hemopoietic stem cells or progenitor cells, thereby activating intracellular signaling pathways that can cause the cells to proliferate and differentiate into a specific kind of blood cell (usually white blood cells)
- produced by T cells, macrophages and endothelial cells

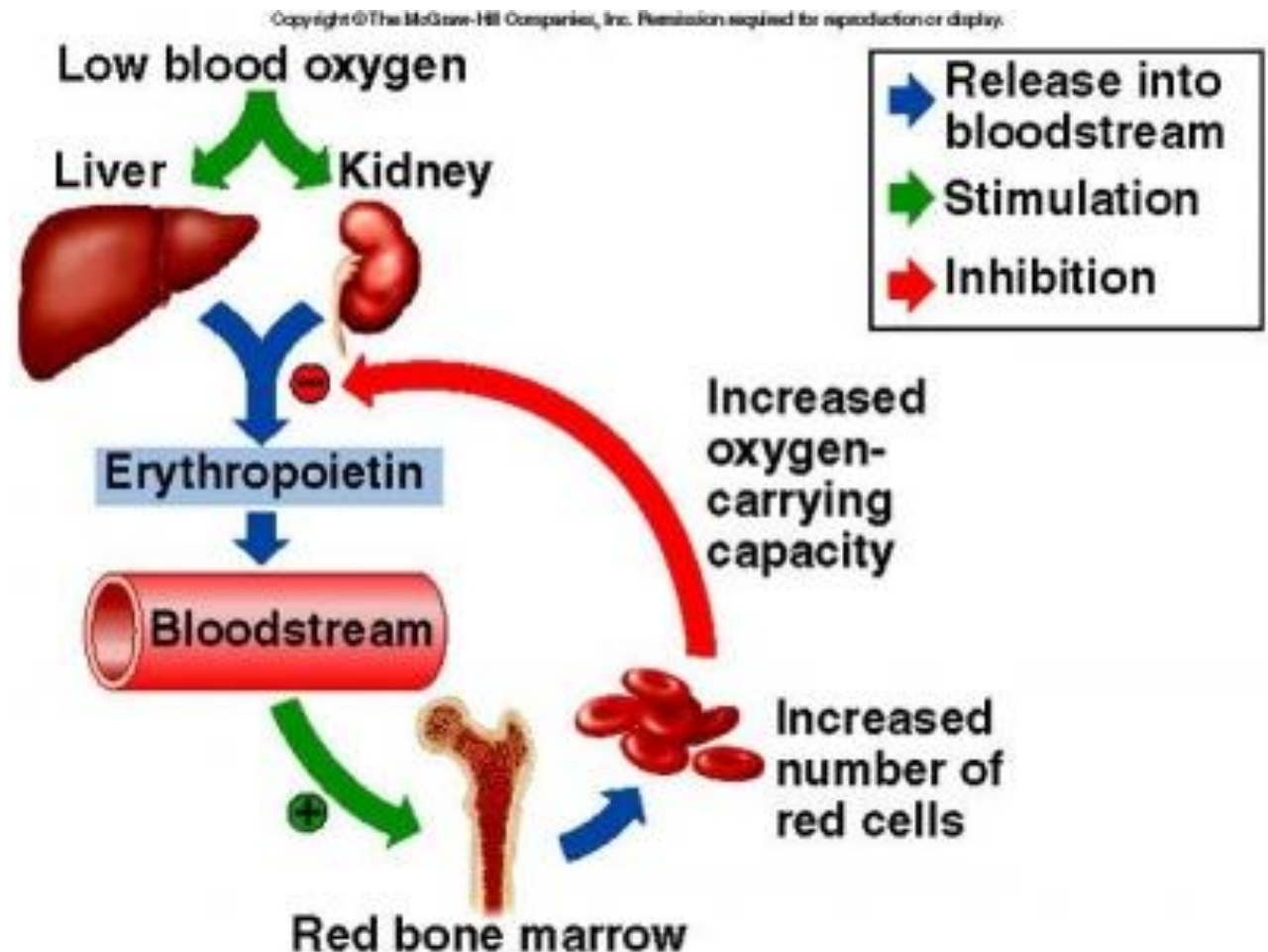
Granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF) – is a cytokine that functions as a white blood cell growth factor. GM-CSF stimulates stem cells to produce granulocytes (neutrophils, eosinophils, and basophils) and monocytes.

Granulocyte colony-stimulating factor (G-CSF) - is a glycoprotein that stimulates the bone marrow to produce granulocytes

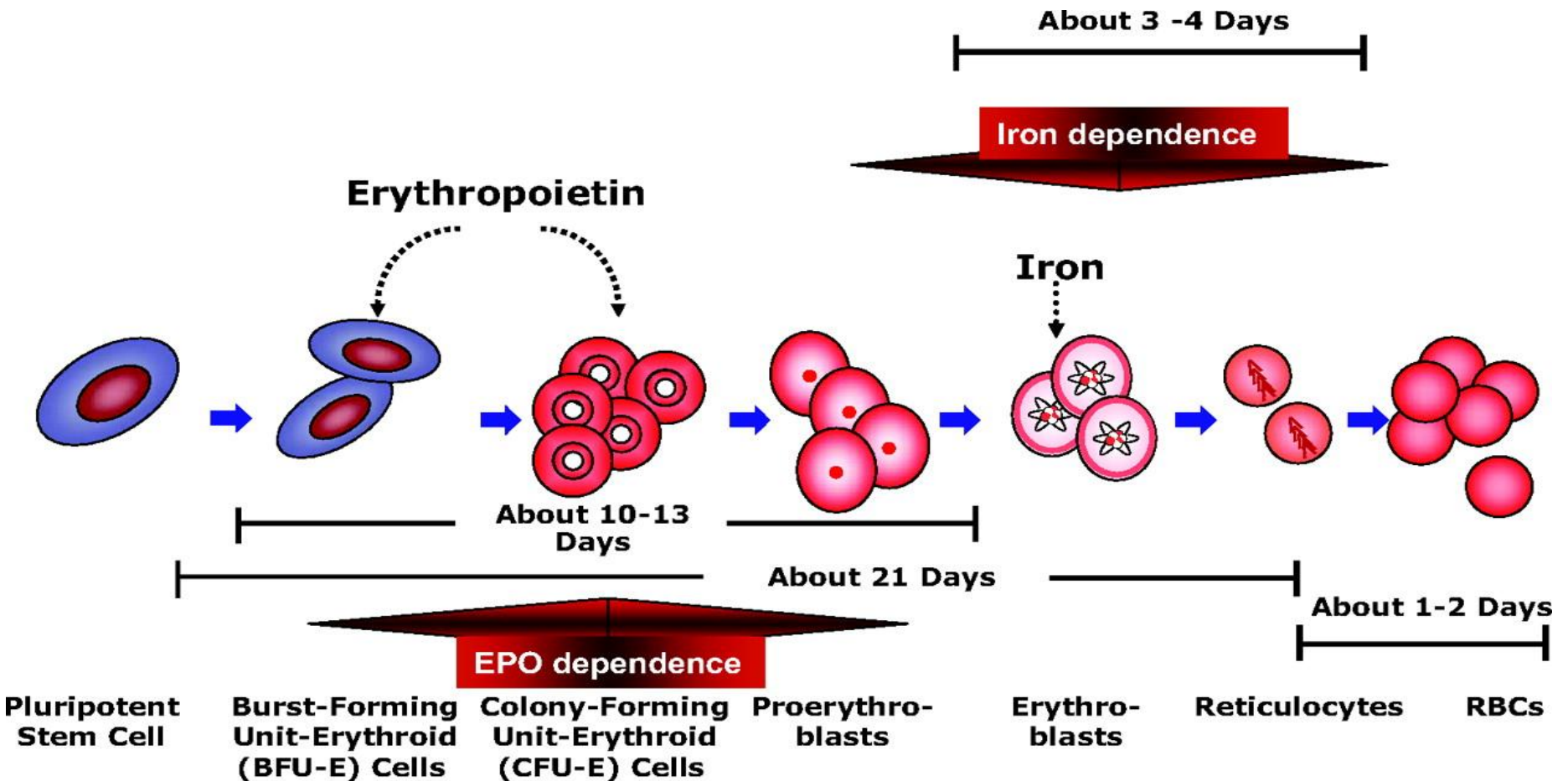
Macrophage colony-stimulating factor (M-CSF) - is a secreted cytokine which influences hematopoietic stem cells to differentiate into macrophages

Erythropoietin (EPO) - is a glycoprotein hormone that controls red blood cell production.

- produced by endothelial cells of kidney and hepatocytes of the liver

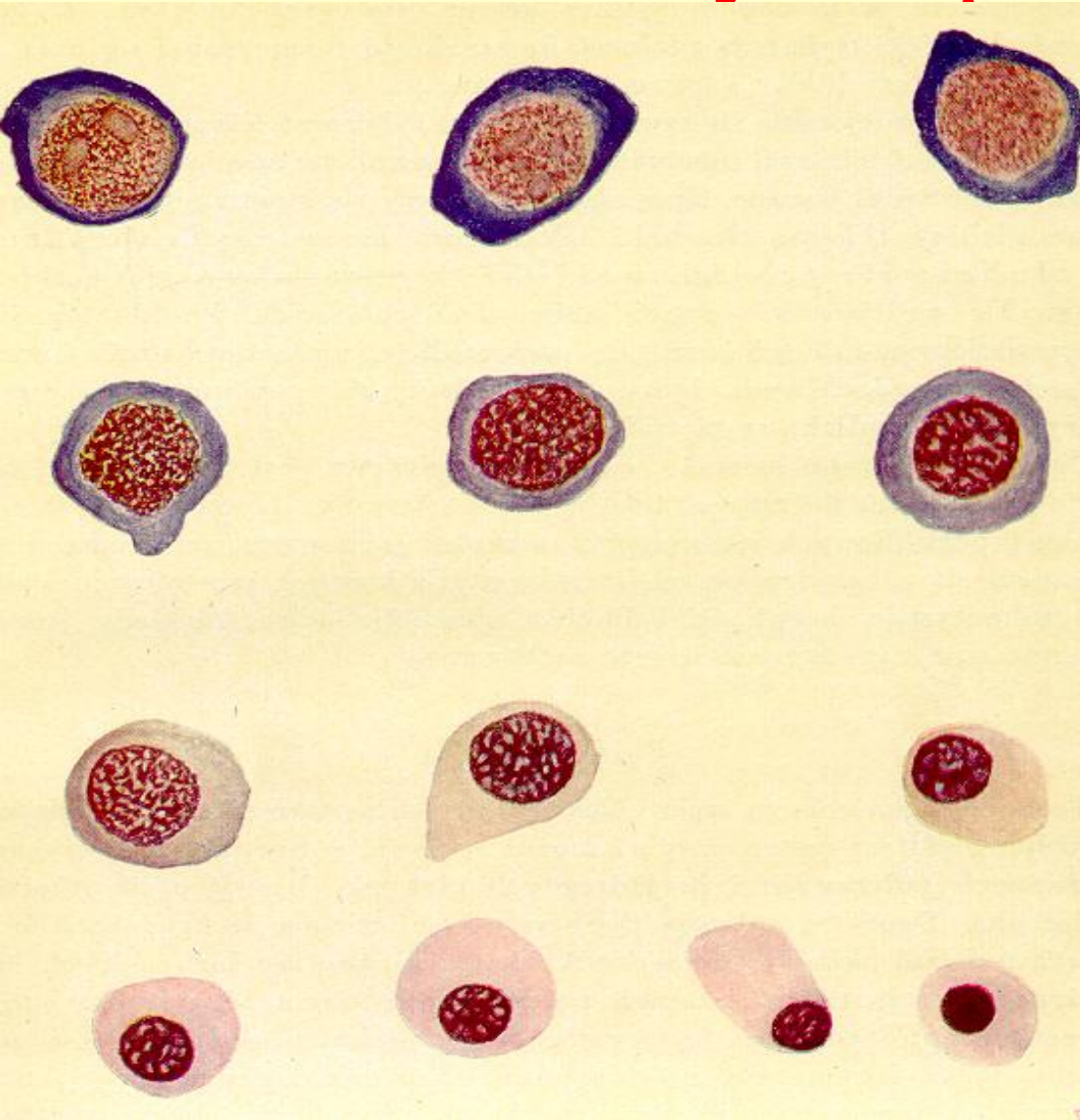


Erythropoiesis



- Generates 2.5×10^{11} erythrocytes every day

Erythropoiesis



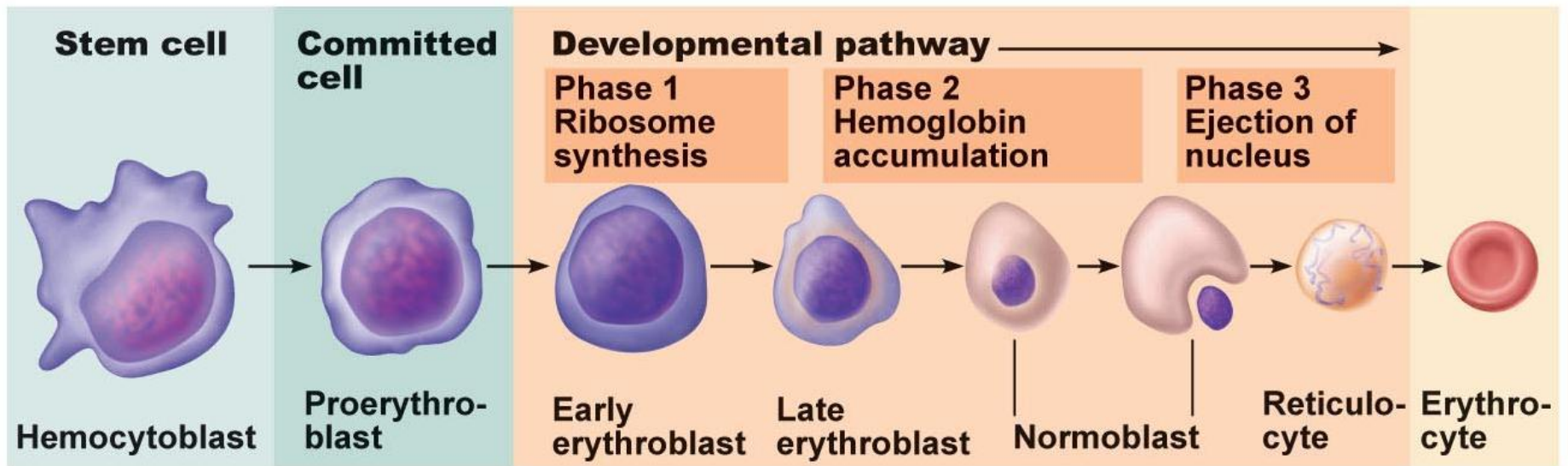
PROERYTHROBLASTS -
the first identifiable stage of
erythropoiesis. Proerythroblasts
proliferate to generate:

Basophilic erythroblasts

Polychromatophilic
erythroblasts

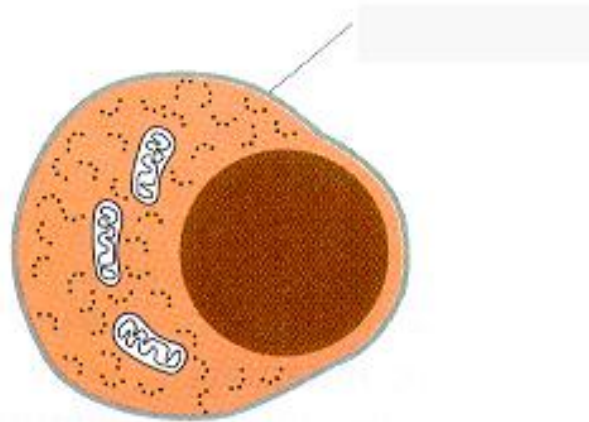
Orthochromatophilic
erythroblasts
(Normoblasts)

Cells are named after changes in the staining characteristic of their cytoplasm

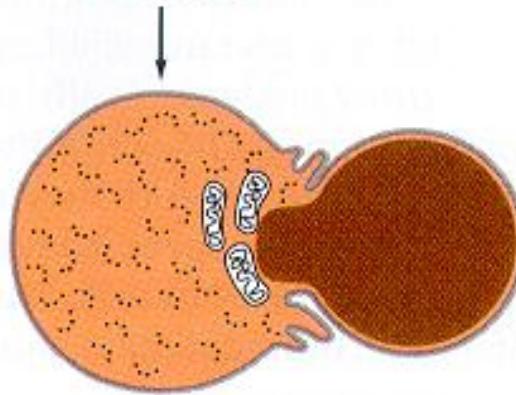


Erythroblast – extrusion of nucleus

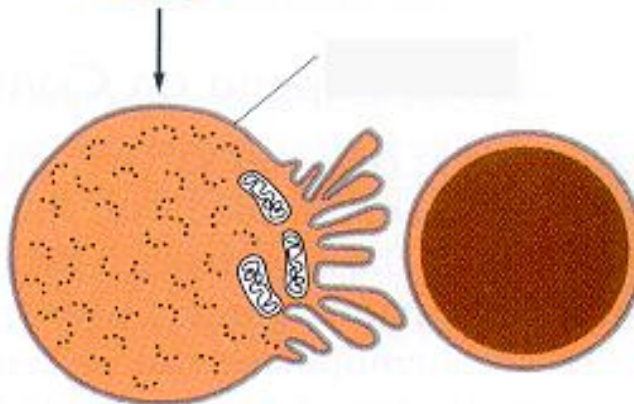
The nucleus is extruded from the normoblast



Orthochromatophilic
erythroblast
(normoblast)



Extrusion
of nucleus

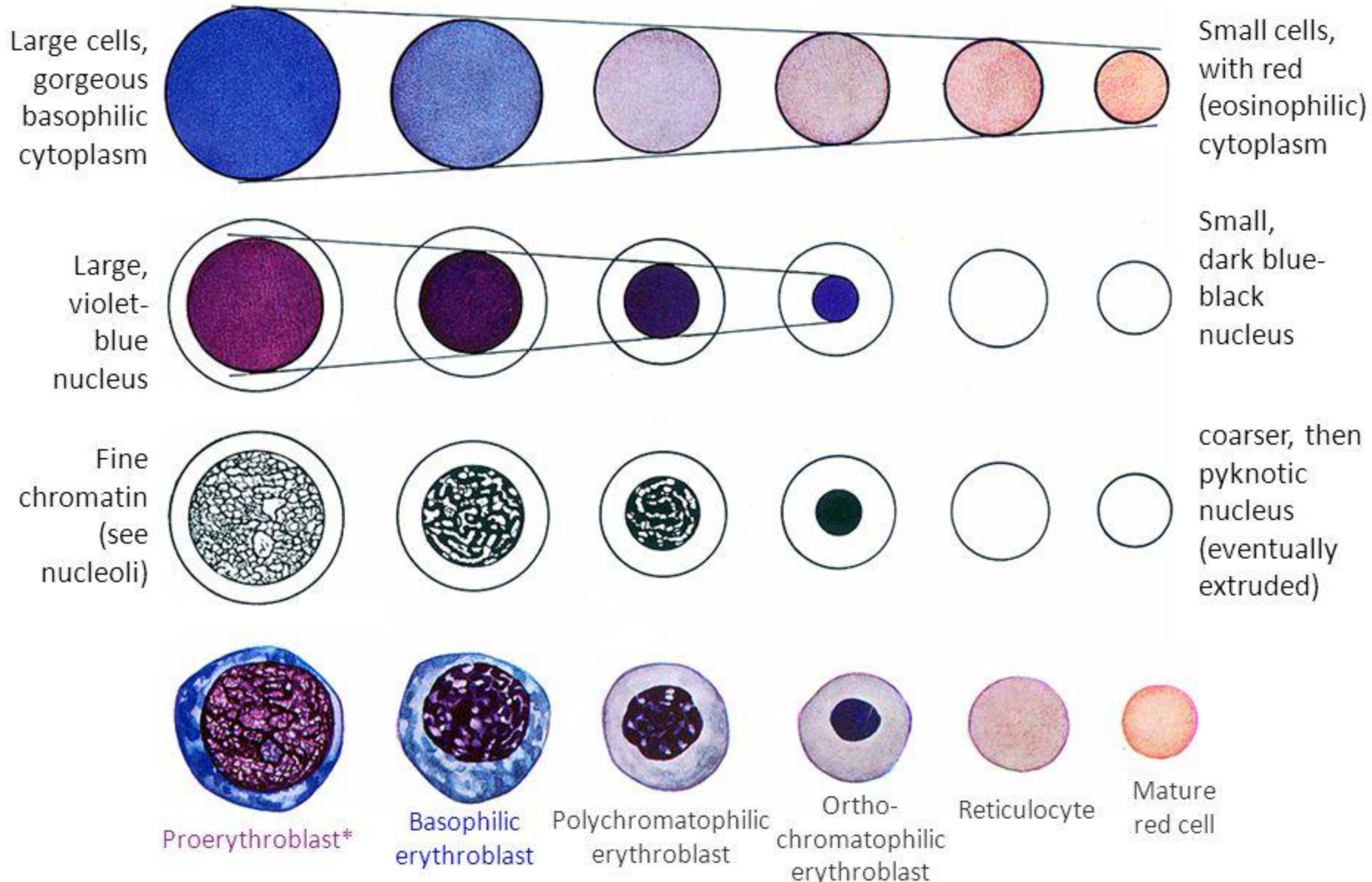


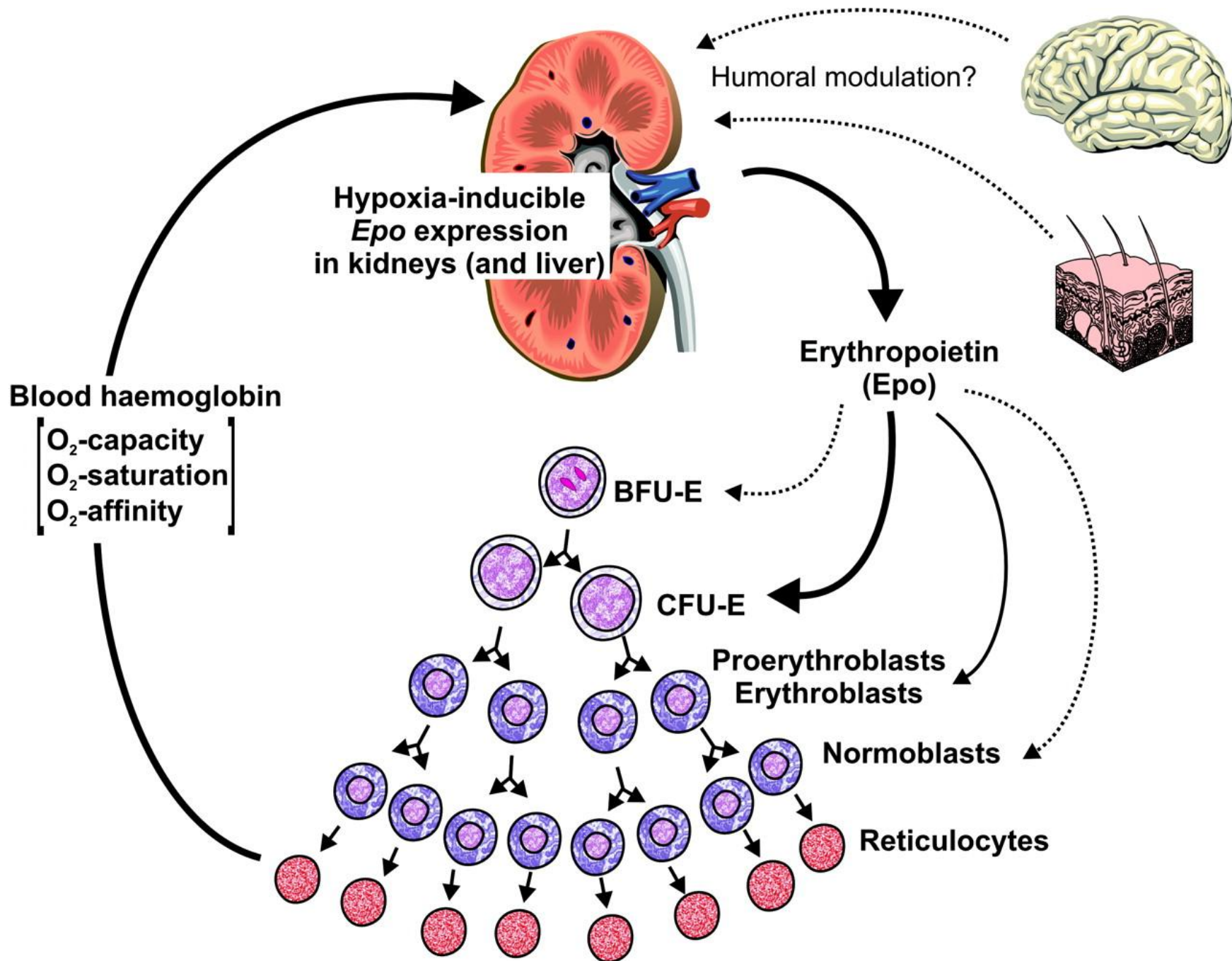
Reticulocyte

The cell enters
circulation as a
reticulocyte,
which still contains
some organelles

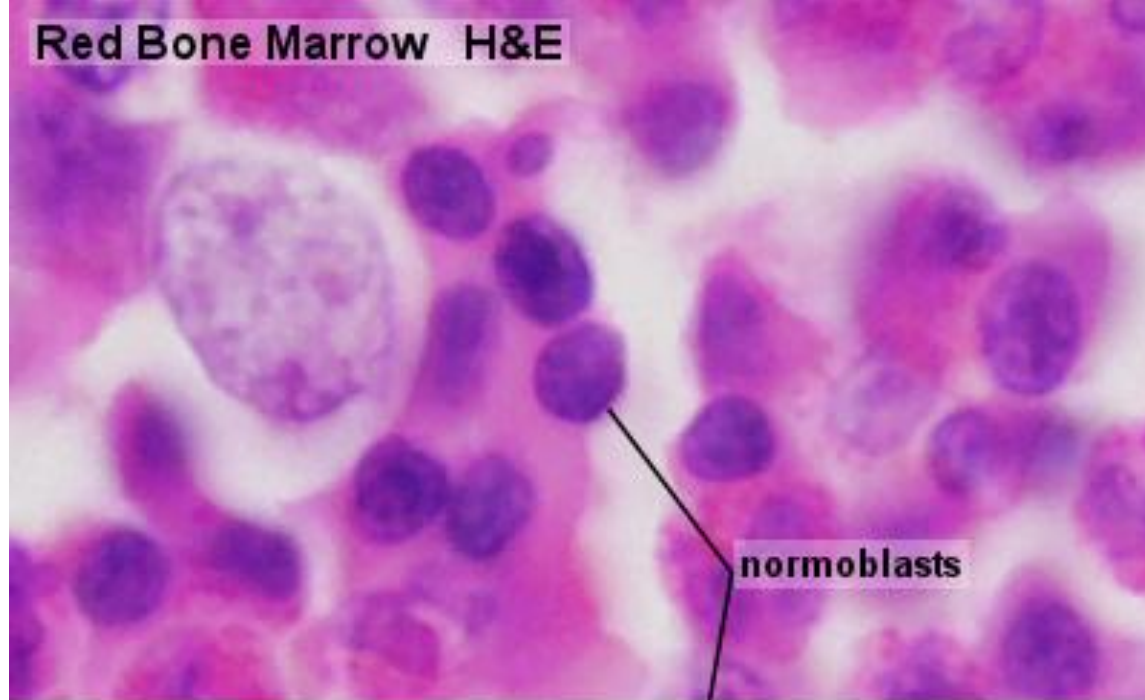
Morphologic Changes in Erythropoiesis

Immature -----> Mature

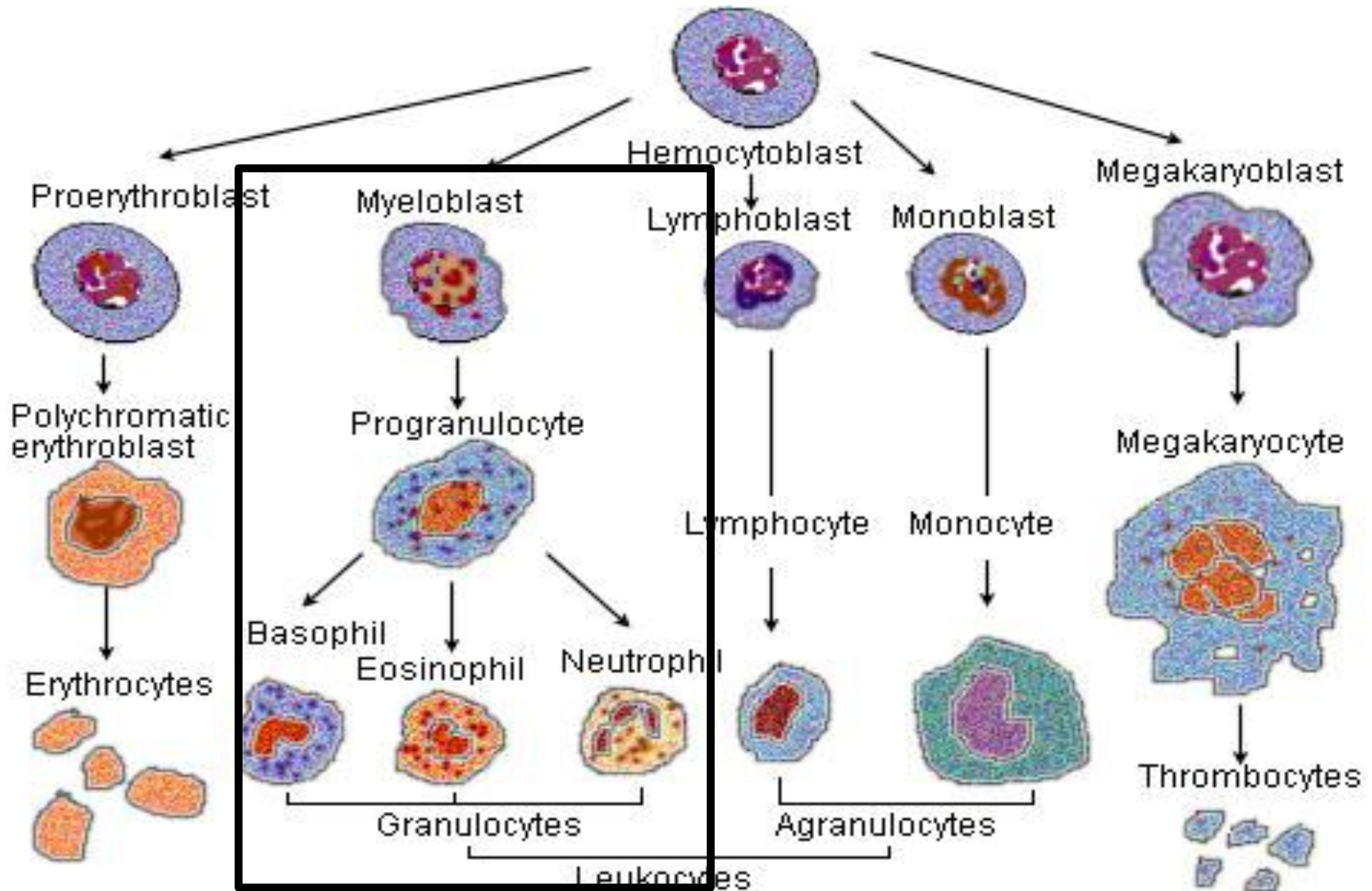




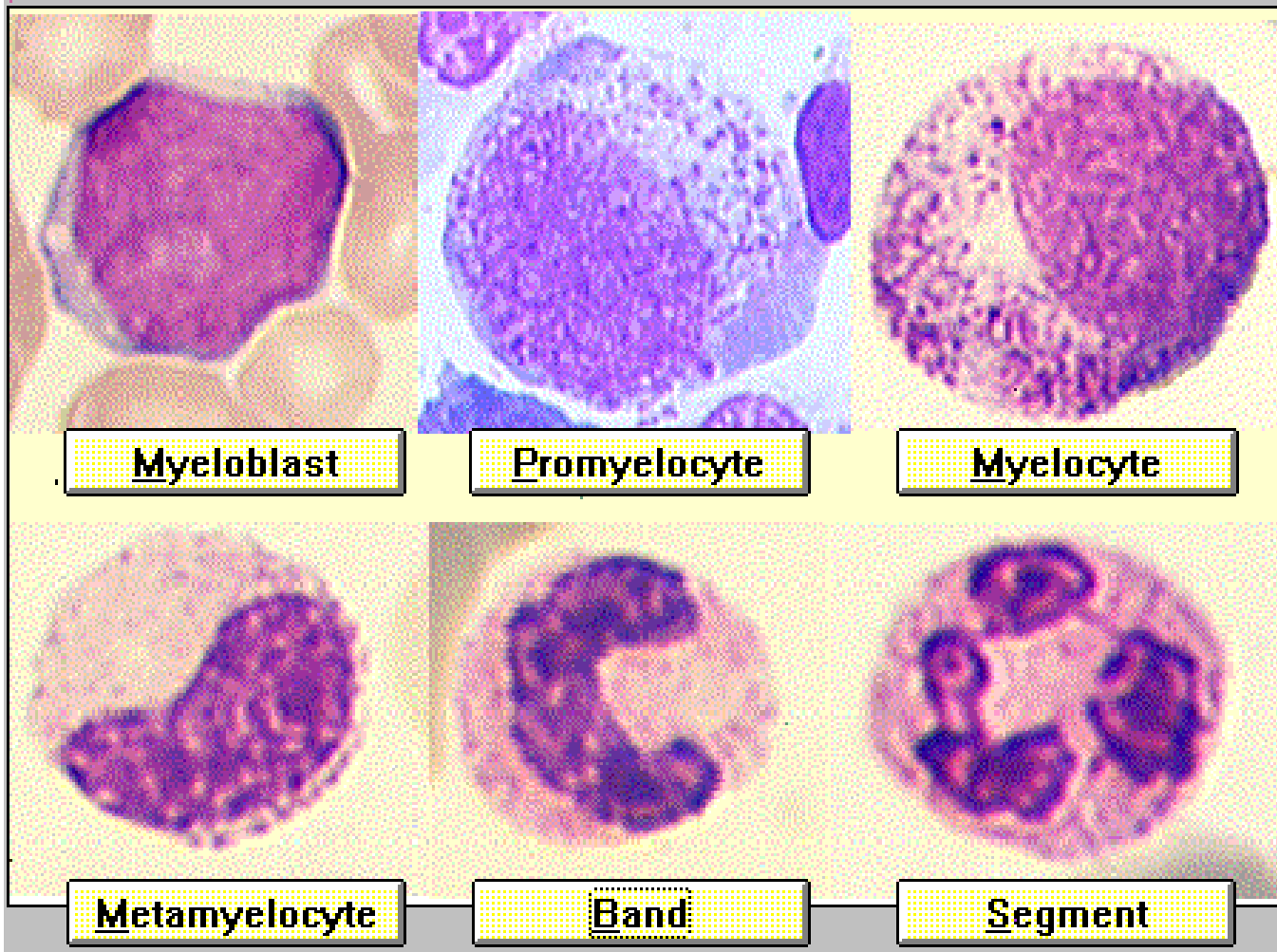
Red Bone Marrow H&E



Granulocytopoiesis - formation of granulocyte (basophils, eosinophils and neutrophils) from precursor cell - myeloblast. Myeloblast derived from multipotent stem cell



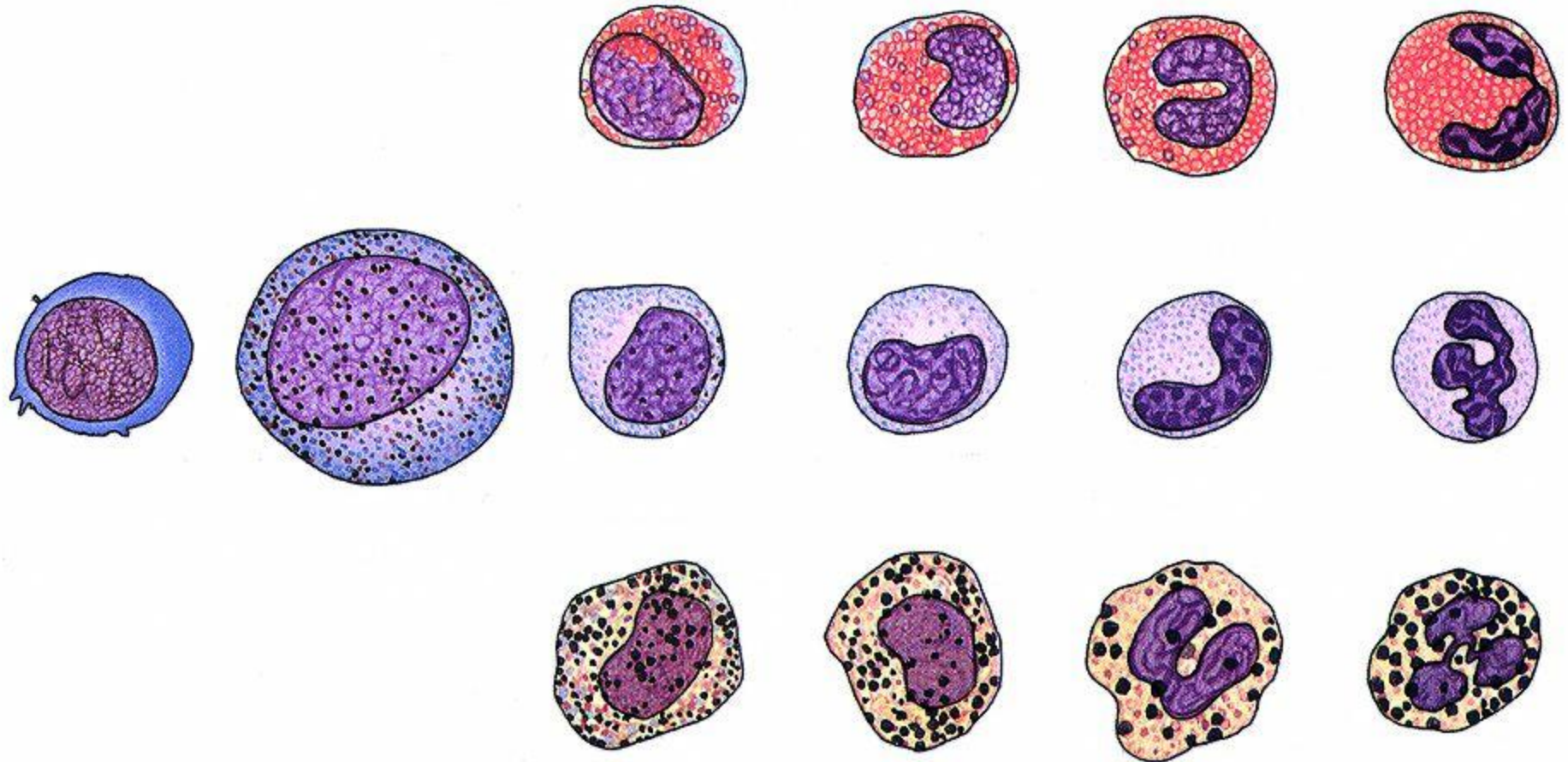
Myeloblasts - proliferate to generate promyelocytes



Promyelocytes contain nonspecific azurophilic granules (modified lysosomes). Myelocytes, metamyelocytes and mature cells contain azurophilic granules and specific granules

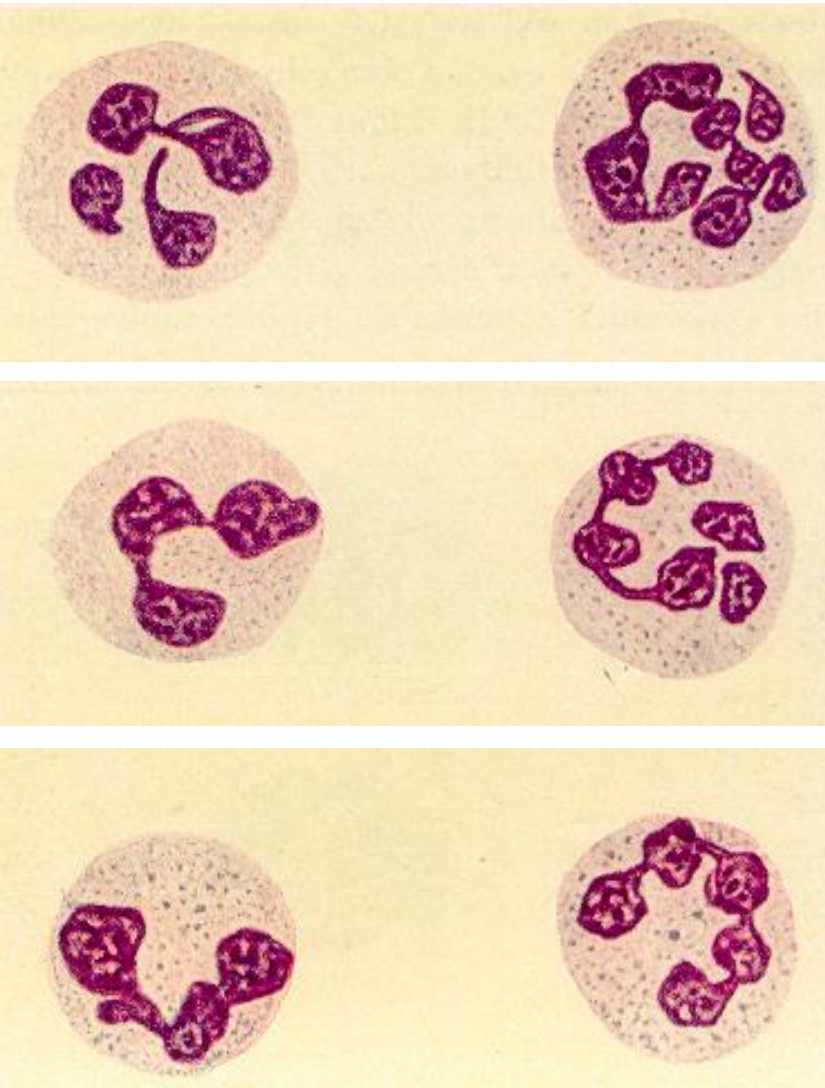
Morphologic Changes in Granulopoiesis

Immature -----> Mature



Cytoplasm loses its basophilic color. Chromatin becomes more condensed. Specific granules increase in number.

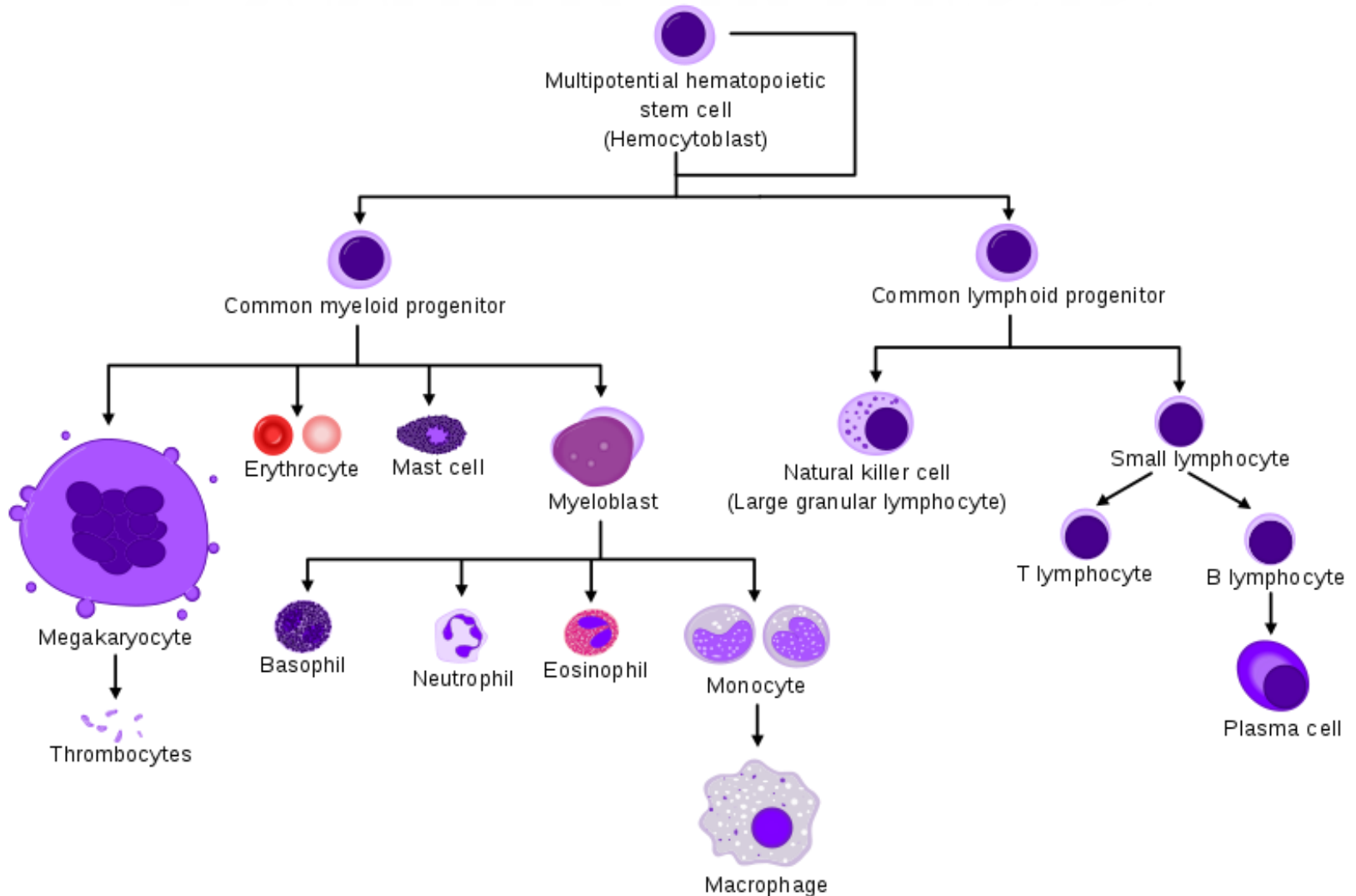
Old neutrophils



The lobulation of nuclei increases in ageing neutrophils.

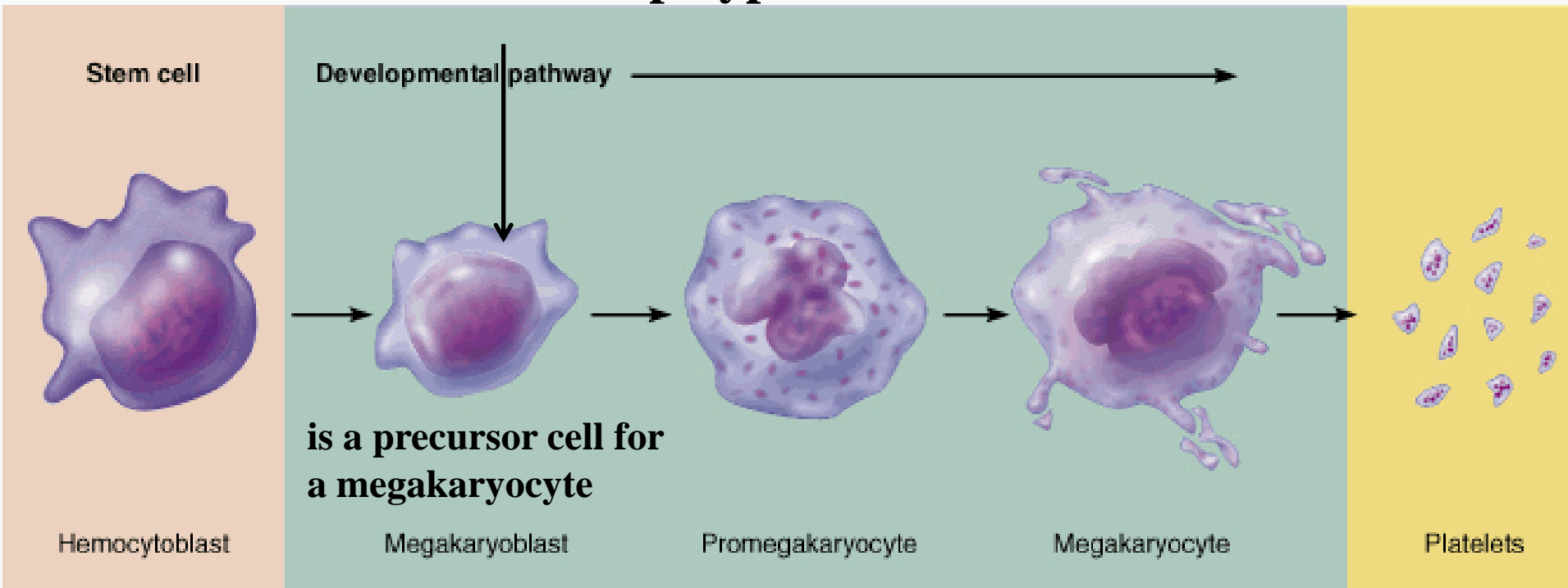
Neutrophils in peripheral blood stay for 8 – 12h and then pass into tissues. They remain active as microphages for 1-2 days and either degenerate or are eliminated with saliva, faeces or urine.

LYMPHOPOIESIS



**undergo
endomitosis
nuclei become polyploid**

Platelets formation
derived from fragmentation of
megakaryocytes



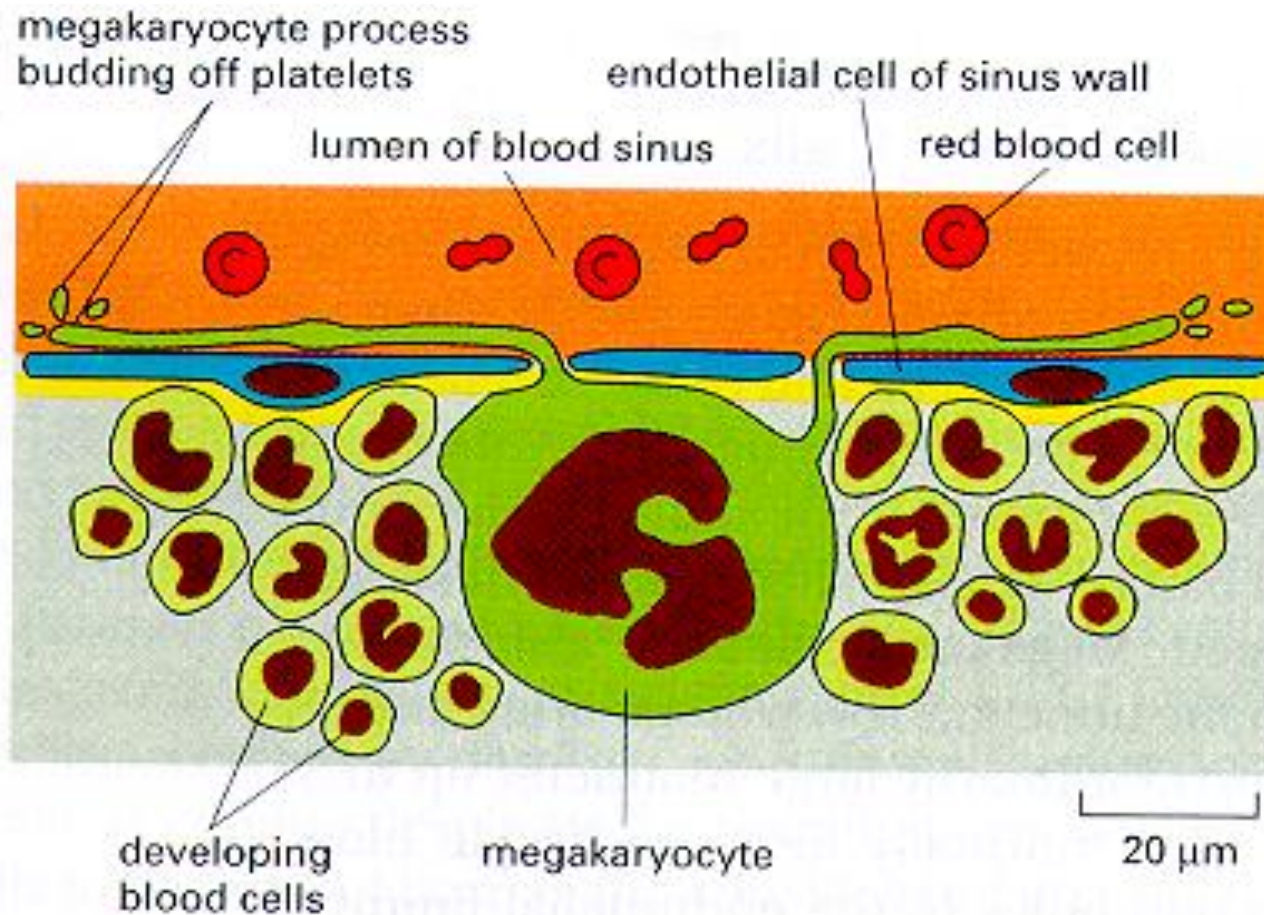
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Endomitosis is a variant of mitosis without nuclear or cellular division, resulting in cells with many copies of the same chromosome occupying a single nucleus

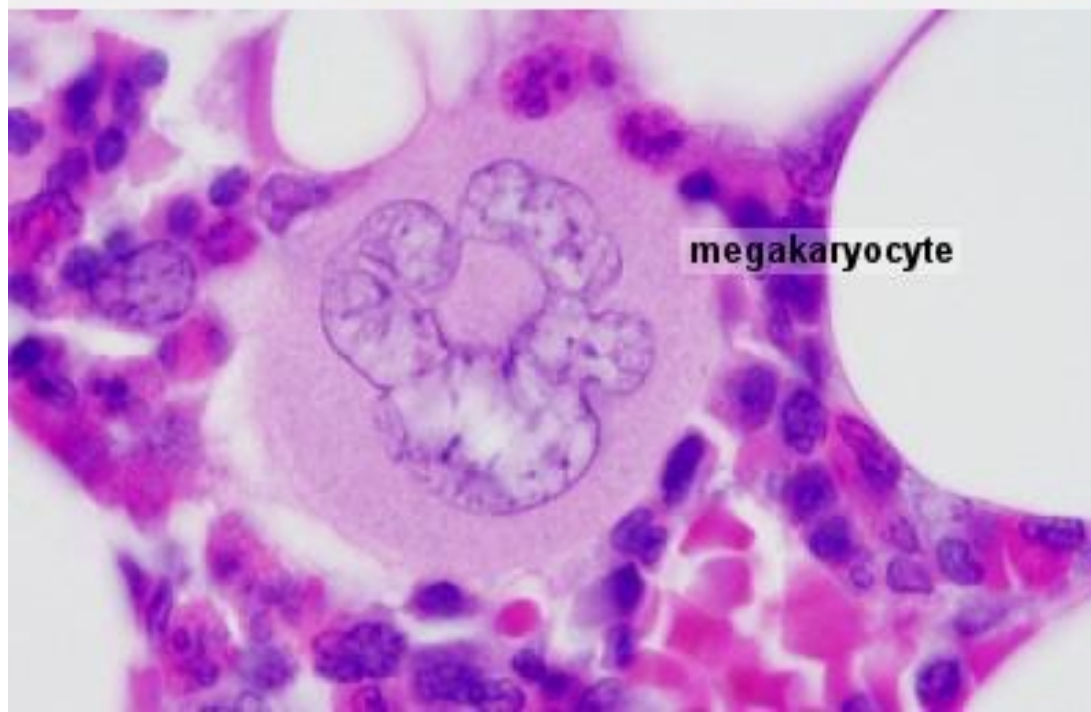
Thrombopoietin (THPO) also known as **megakaryocyte growth and development factor (MGDF)**

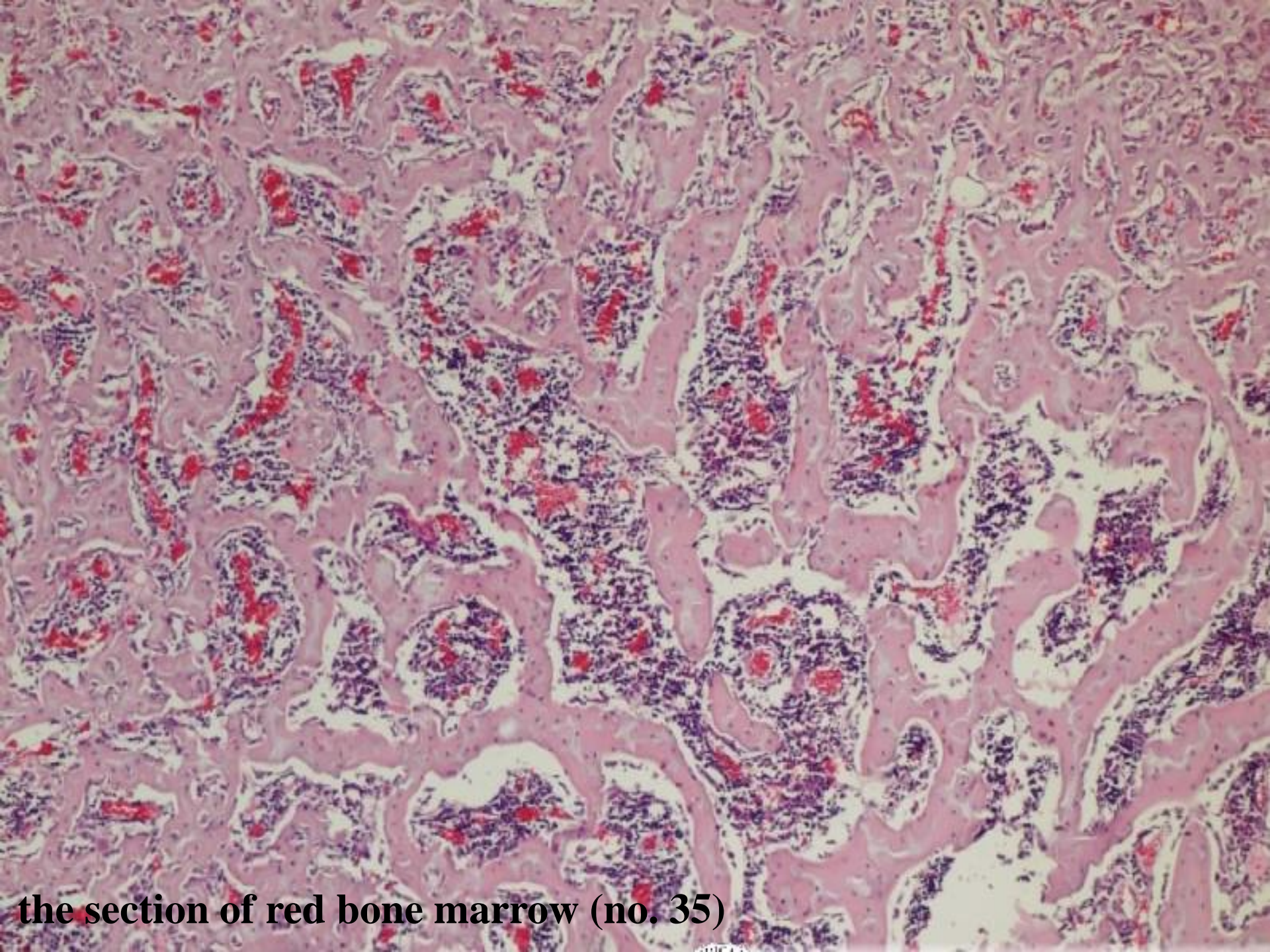
Platelets - Origin

- megakaryocytes are located next to sinusoids, into which they protrude their cytoplasmic processes



Red Bone Marrow H&E





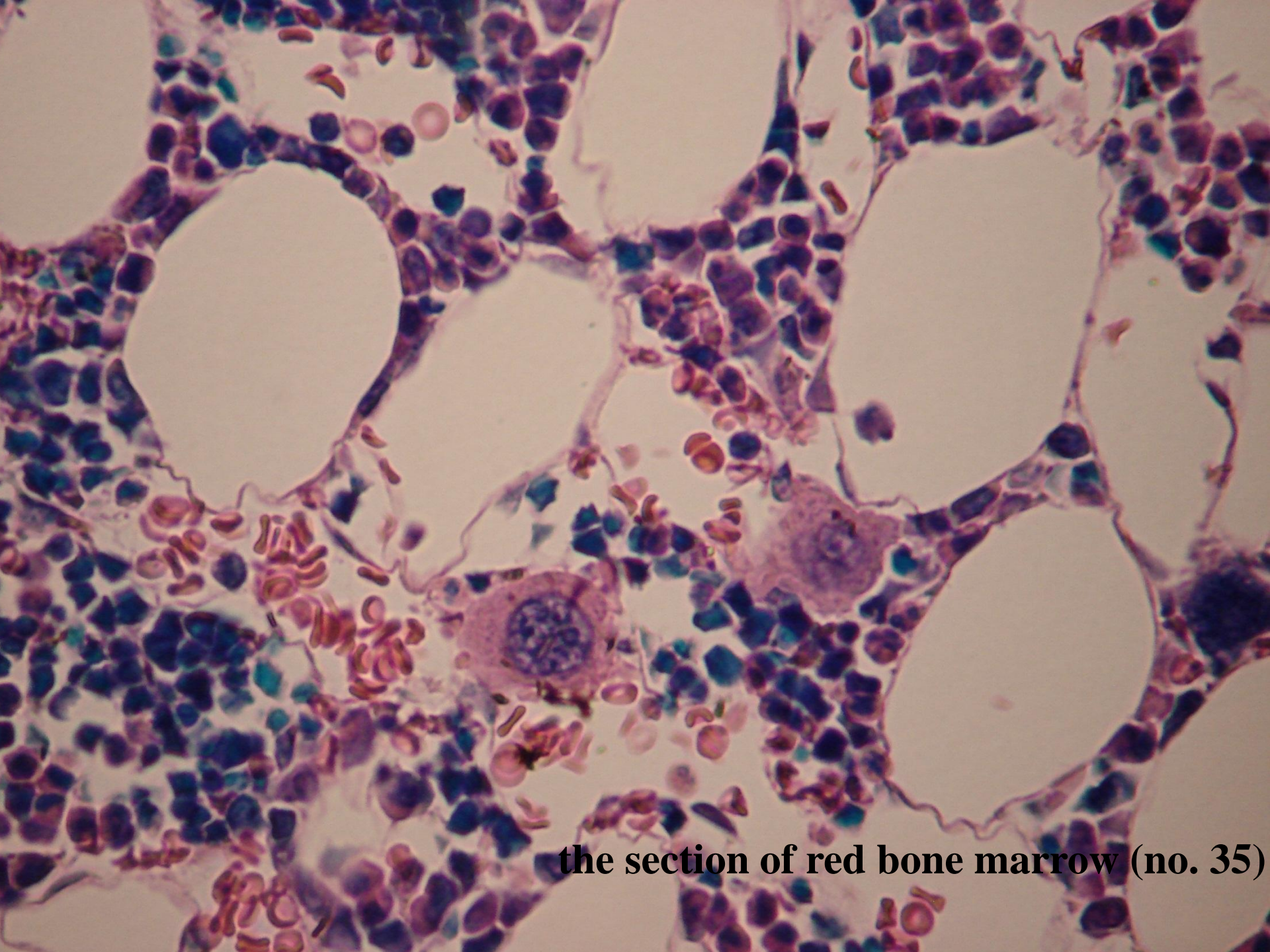
the section of red bone marrow (no. 35)



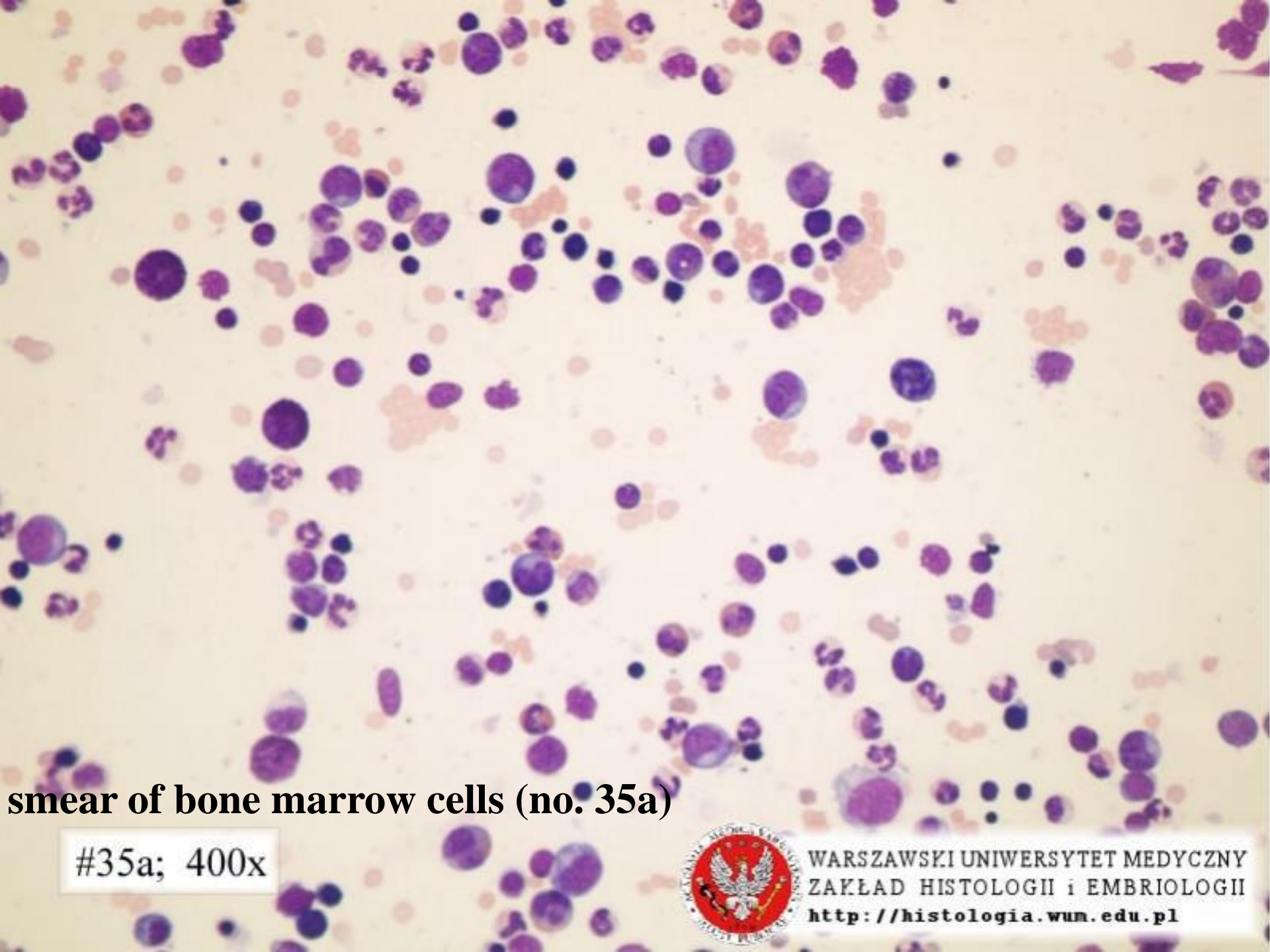
Megakaryocyte

A histological section of red bone marrow stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E). The image shows a dense population of hematopoietic cells within the marrow spaces, which are separated by thin layers of bony trabeculae. A large, multi-lobed nucleus, characteristic of a megakaryocyte, is highlighted by a black arrow. The surrounding marrow contains numerous smaller cells, including erythroid precursors and myeloid cells, along with clusters of red blood cells.

the section of red bone marrow (no. 35)



the section of red bone marrow (no. 35)

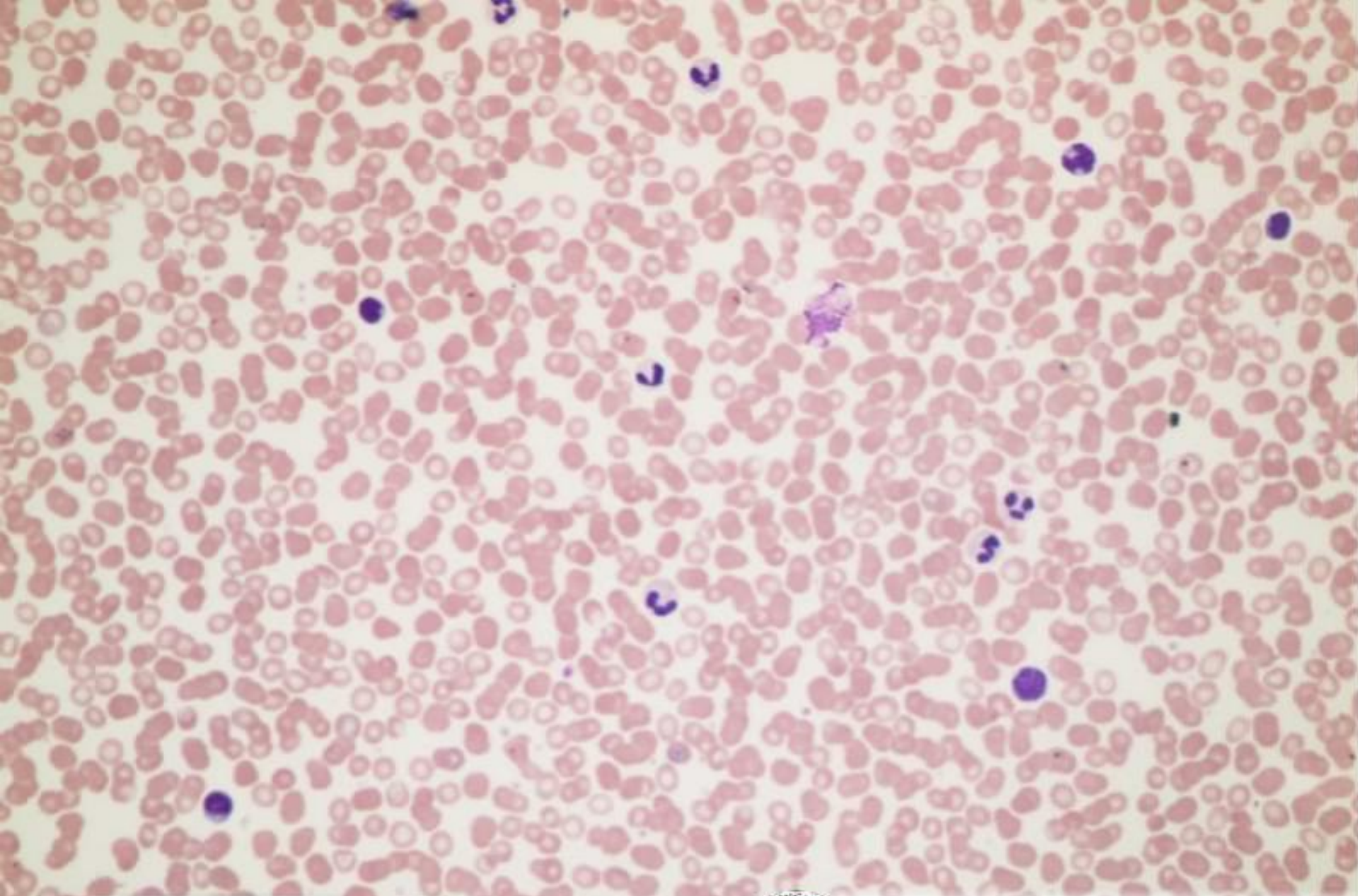


smear of bone marrow cells (no. 35a)

#35a; 400x



WARSZAWSKI UNIWERSYTET MEDYCZNY
ZAKŁAD HISTOLOGII i EMBRIOLOGII
<http://histologia.wum.edu.pl>



#104; 400x

blood film (no. 104)



WARSZAWSKI UNIWERSYTET MEDYCZNY
ZAKŁAD HISTOLOGII i EMBRIOLOGII
<http://histologia.wum.edu.pl>



monocyte

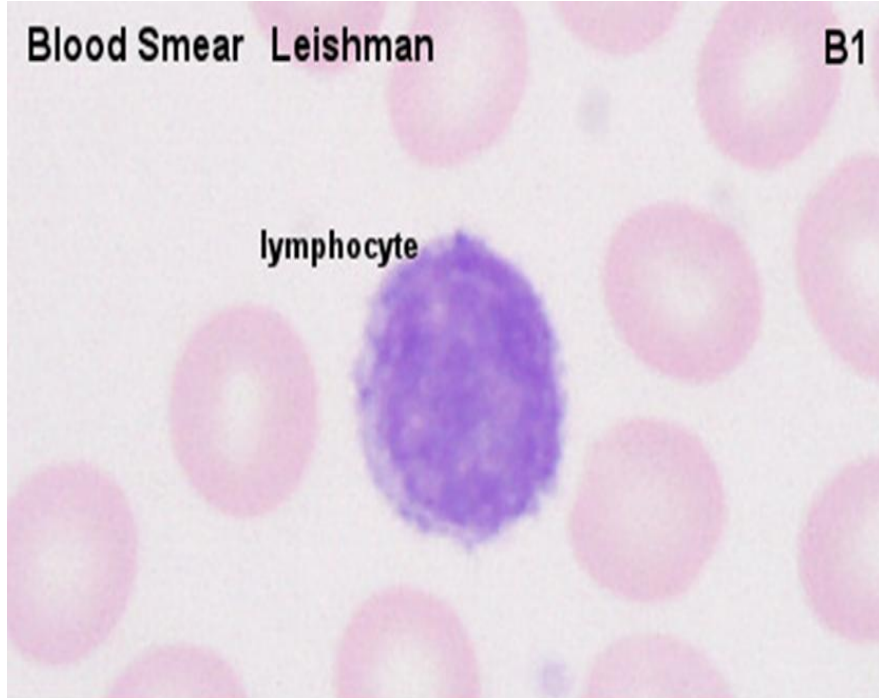
blood film (no. 104)

#104; 1000x



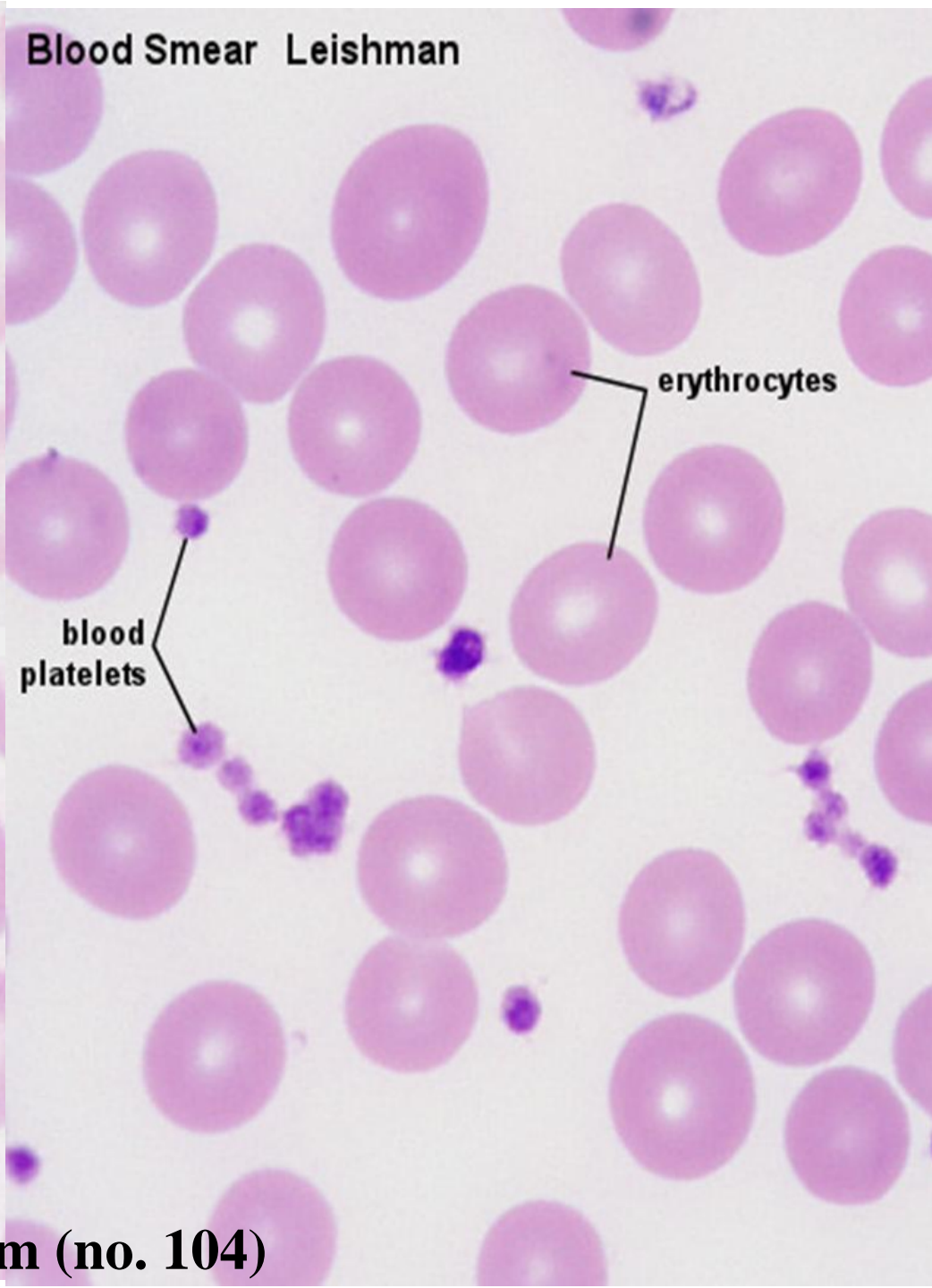
WARSZAWSKI UNIWERSYTET MEDYCZNY
ZAKŁAD HISTOLOGII i EMBRIOLOGII
<http://histologia.wum.edu.pl>

Blood Smear Leishman

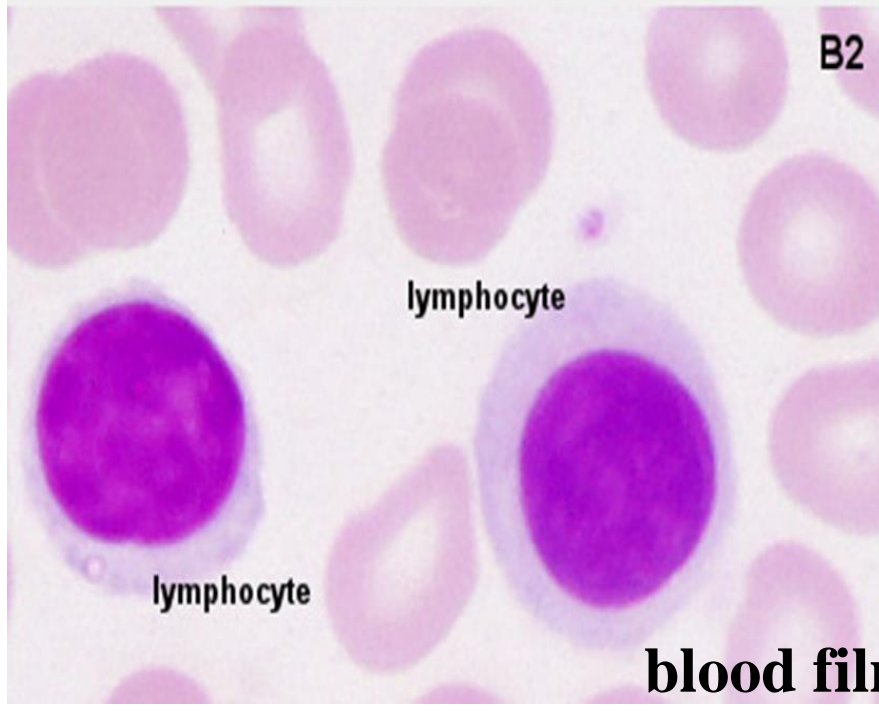


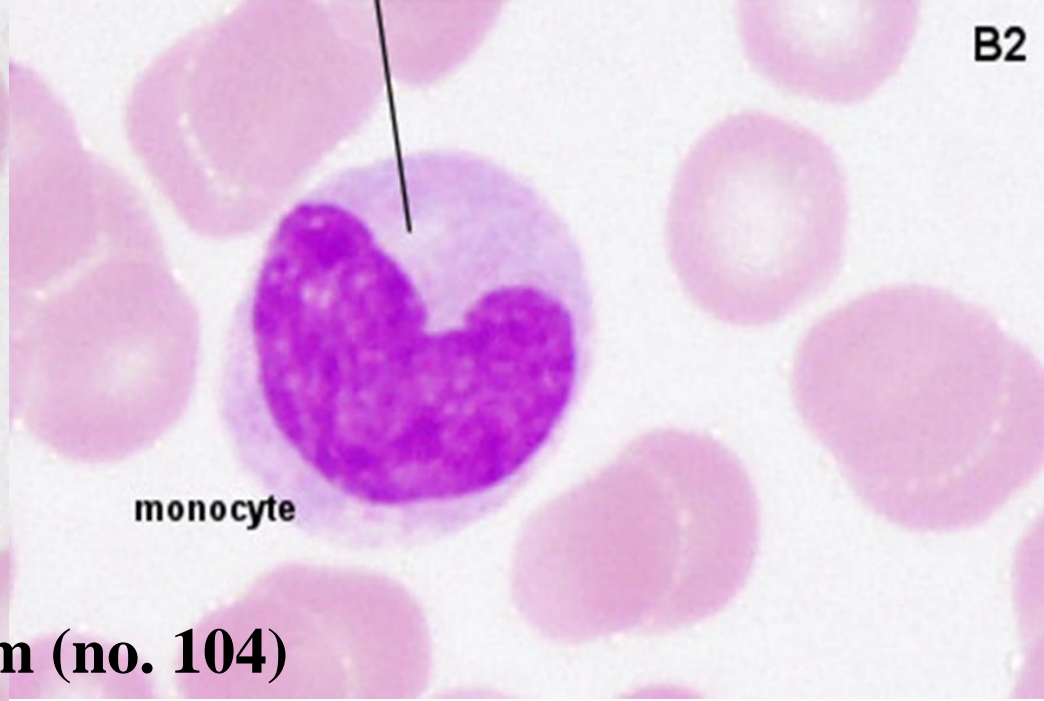
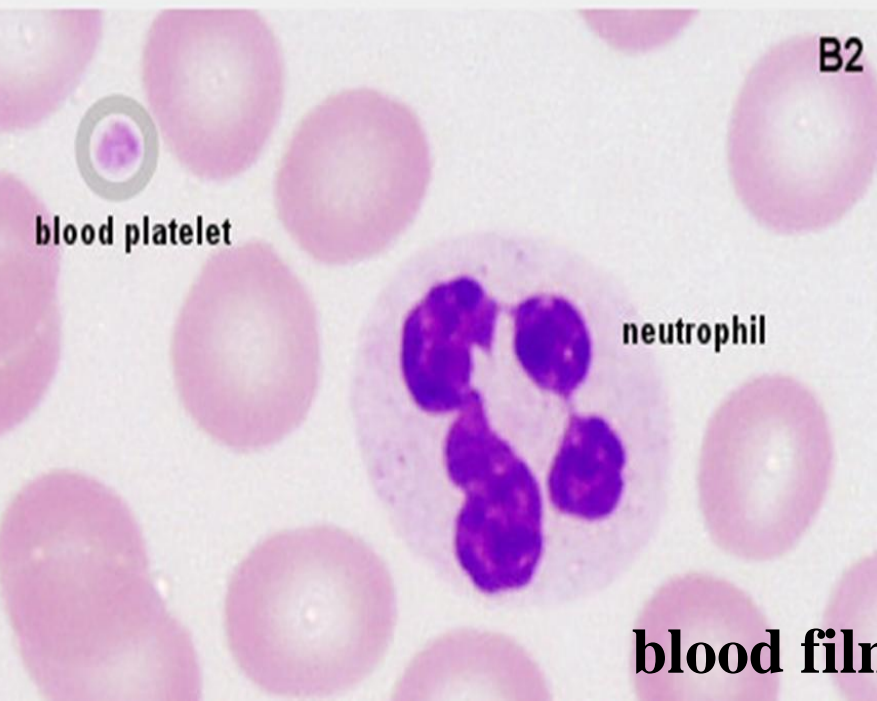
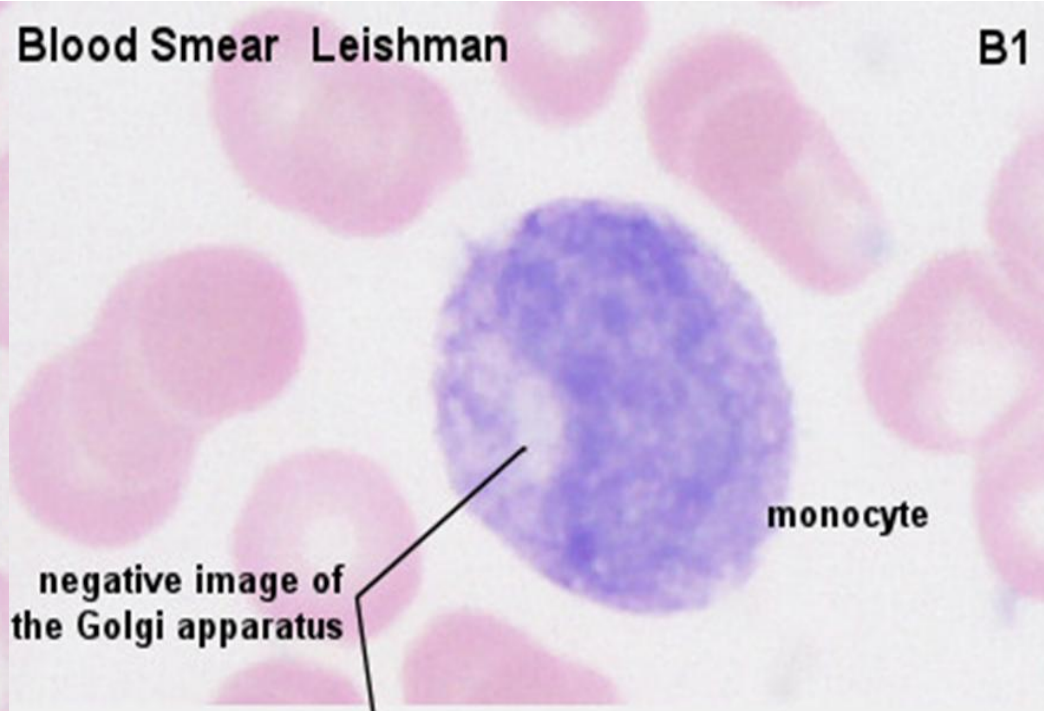
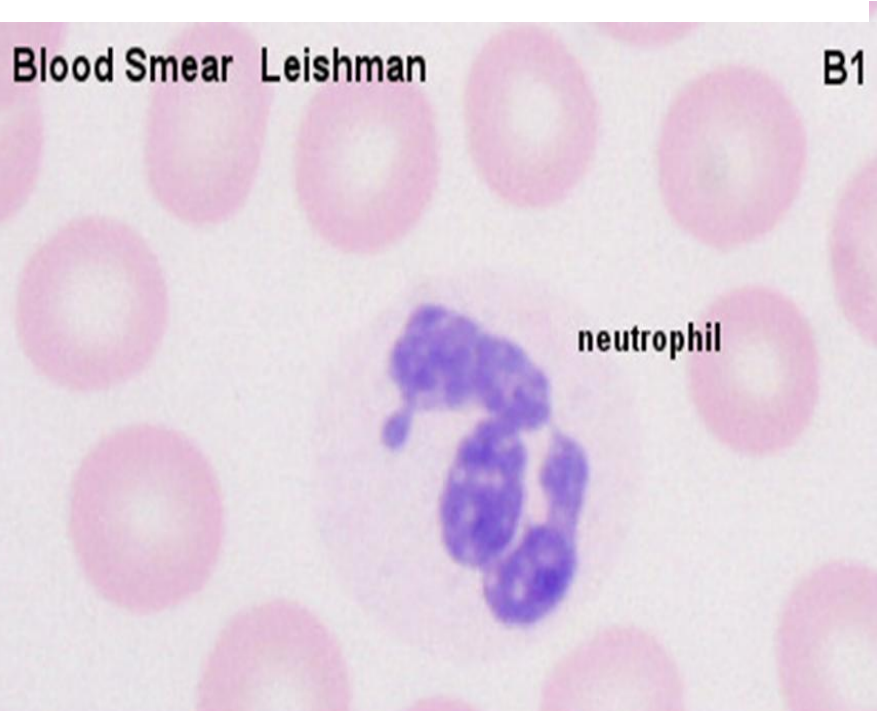
B1

Blood Smear Leishman

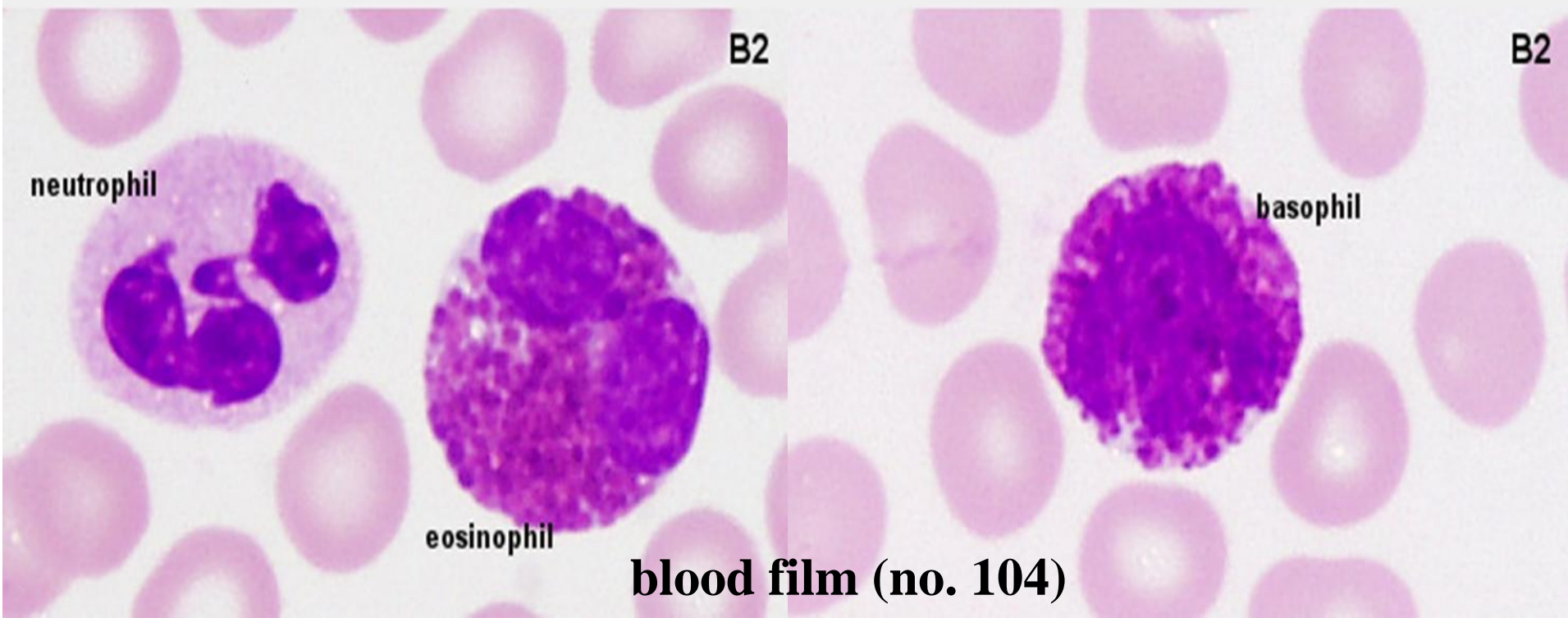
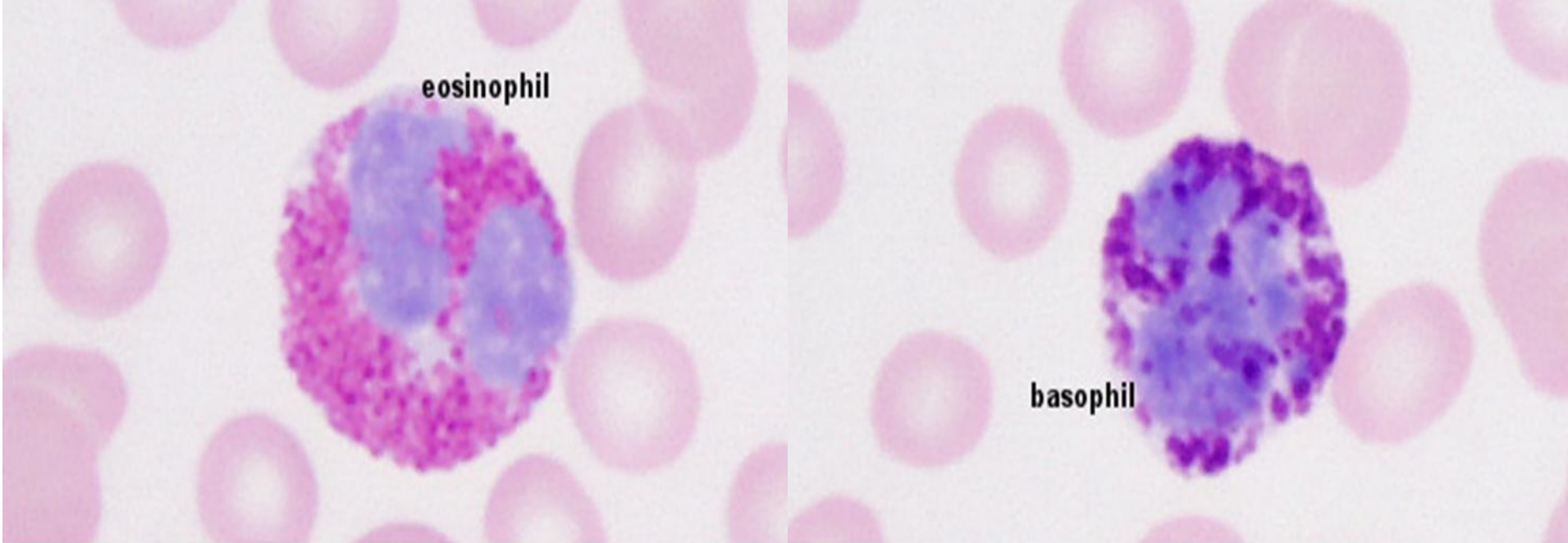


B2





blood film (no. 104)



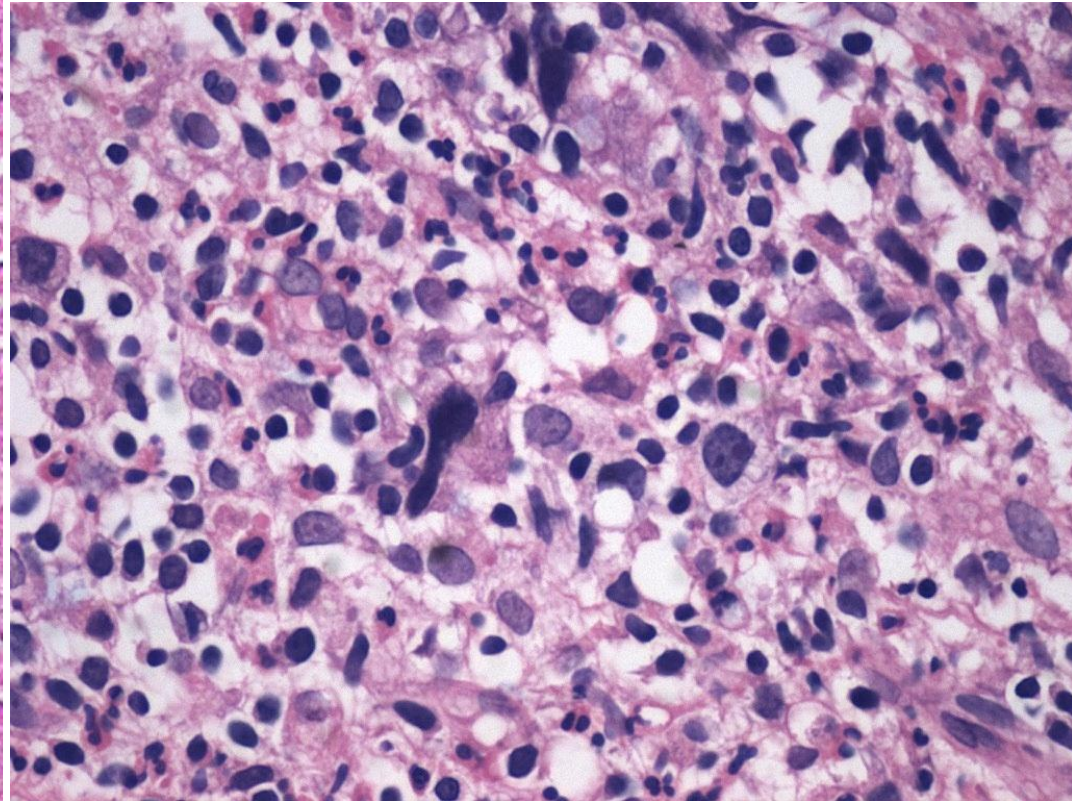
Liver H&E

central
vein

sinusoids

sheets of
hepatocytes

hemopoiesis



Circulatory system

