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Denise M. Harmening



Modern Blood Banking & Transfusion Practices

Seventh Edition

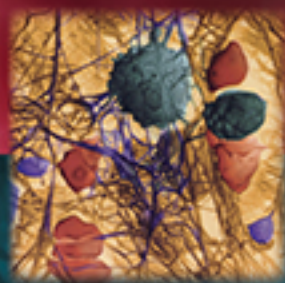
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Denise M. Harmening



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Antigen-Antibody Characteristic Chart*

ANTIGENS

Antigen System	Antigen Name	ISBT Name	Antigen Freq. %		RBC Antigen Expression at Birth	Antigen Distrib. Plasma/RBC	Demonstrates Dosage	Antigen Modification Enzyme/Other
			W	B				
Rh	**D	RH1	85	92	strong	RBC only	no	Enz. ↑
	**C	RH2	68	27	strong	RBC only	yes	Enz. ↑
	**E	RH3	29	22	strong	RBC only	yes	Enz. ↑
	**c	RH4	80	97	strong	RBC only	yes	Enz. ↑
	**e	RH5	98	99	strong	RBC only	yes	Enz. ↑
	ce/f	RH6	64	92	strong	RBC only	no	Enz. ↑
	Ce	RH7	70	27	strong	RBC only	no	Enz. ↑
	C ^w	RH8	1	rare	strong	RBC only	yes	Enz. ↑
	G	RH12	86	92	strong	RBC only	no	Enz. ↑
	V	RH10	1	30	strong	RBC only	no	Enz. ↑
VS	RH20	1	32	strong	RBC only	no	Enz. ↑ AET → ZZAP →	
Kell	K	KEL1	9	rare	strong	RBC only	occ	Enz. → AET ⁺ ↓ ZZAP ↓ ⁺⁺
	k	KEL2	98.8	100	strong	RBC only	occ	Enz. → AET ⁺ ↓ ZZAP ↓ ⁺⁺
	Kp ^a	KEL3	2	rare	strong	RBC only	occ	Enz. → AET ⁺ ↓ ZZAP ↓ ⁺⁺
	Kp ^b	KEL4	99.9	100	strong	RBC only	occ	Enz. → AET ⁺ ↓ ZZAP ↓ ⁺⁺
	Js ^a	KEL6	.01	20	strong	RBC only	occ	Enz. → AET ⁺ ↓ ZZAP ↓ ⁺⁺
	Js ^b ‡Kx	KEL7 —	99.9 99.9	99 99.9	strong weak	RBC only RBC low	occ occ	Enz. → AET ⁺ ↓ ZZAP ↓ ⁺⁺ Enz. → AET ⁺ ↓ ZZAP ↓ ⁺⁺
Duffy	FY ^a	FY1	65	10	strong	RBC only	yes	Enz. ↓ AET ↓ ZZAP ↓
	FY ^b	FY2	83	23	strong	RBC only	yes	Enz. ↓ AET ↓ ZZAP ↓
		FY3	100	32	strong	RBC only	no	Enz. → AET → ZZAP →
		FY5	100	32	expressed (on cord cells)	RBC only	no	Enz. → AET → ZZAP →
		•FY6	100	32	expressed (on cord cells)	RBC only	no	Enz. ↓ AET → ZZAP ↓

*This chart is to be used for general information only. Please refer to the appropriate chapter for more detailed information.

AET = 2-aminoethylthiuronium bromide; ↑ = enhanced reactivity; → = no effect; ↓ = depressed reactivity; occ = occasionally; CGD = chronic granulomatous disease; HDN = hemolytic disease of the newborn; HTR = hemolytic transfusion reaction; NRBC = non-red blood cell; RBC = red blood cell; WBC = white blood cell; ZZAP = dithiothreitol plus papain.

• No human antibody to FY6 has been reported.

‡ It has been found that Kx is inherited independently of the Kell system; consequently it is no longer referred to as K15.

**Frequency in Asians: D 99%, C 93%, E 39%, c 47%, e 96%

ANTIBODIES

Stimulation	Serology		Comp. Binding	Immunoglobulin Class		Optimum Temperature	Clinical Significance		Comments
	Saline	AHG		IgM	IgG		HTR	HDN	
RBC	occ	yes	no	occ	yes	warm	yes	yes	Very rarely IgA anti-D may be produced; however, this is invariably with IgG.
RBC	occ	yes	no	occ	yes	warm	yes	yes	Anti-E may occur without obvious immune stimulation.
RBC/NRBC	occ	yes	no	occ	yes	warm	yes	yes	
RBC	occ	yes	no	occ	yes	warm	yes	yes	Warm autoantibodies may appear to have anti-e-like specificity.
RBC	occ	yes	no	occ	yes	warm	yes	yes	
RBC	occ	yes	no	occ	yes	warm	yes	yes	Anti-C ^w may occur without obvious immune stimulation.
RBC	occ	yes	no	occ	yes	warm	yes	yes	
RBC/NRBC	occ	yes	no	occ	yes	warm	yes	yes	
RBC	occ	yes	no	occ	yes	warm	yes	yes	Antibodies to V and VS can present problems in the black population where the antigen frequencies are in the order of 30 to 32.
RBC	occ	yes	no	occ	yes	warm	yes	yes	
RBC	occ	yes	no	occ	yes	warm	yes	yes	Some antibodies to Kell antigens have been reported to react poorly in low ionic media.
RBC	occ	yes	some	occ	yes	warm	yes	yes	
RBC	no	yes	no	rarely	yes	warm	yes	yes	Kell system antigens are destroyed by AET and by ZZAP.
RBC	no	yes	no	no	yes	warm	yes	yes	
RBC	rarely	yes	no	rarely	yes	warm	yes	yes	Anti-K1 has been reported to occur following certain bacterial infections.
RBC	rarely	yes	no	rarely	yes	warm	yes	yes	
RBC	no	yes	no	no	yes	warm	yes	yes	The lack of Kx expression on RBCs and WBCs has been associated with the McLeod phenotype and CGD.
RBC	no	yes	no	occ	yes	warm	yes	yes	
RBC	rare	yes	some	rare	yes	warm	yes	yes	Fy ^a and Fy ^b antigens are destroyed by enzymes. Fy (a-b-) cells are resistant to invasion by <i>P. vivax</i> merozoites, a malaria-causing parasite.
RBC	rare	yes	some	rare	yes	warm	yes	yes	FY3 and 5 are not destroyed by enzymes.
RBC	no	yes	rarely	no	yes	warm	yes	yes	
RBC	no	yes	?	no	yes	warm			FY5 may be formed by interaction of Rh and Duffy gene products. FY6 was described using a monoclonal antibody which reacts with most human red cells except Fy(a-b-). This antigen is responsible for susceptibility of cells to penetration by <i>P. vivax</i> .

(Continued on inside back cover)

Modern Blood Banking & Transfusion Practices

Seventh Edition

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*To all students—full-time, part-time, past, present,
and future—who have touched and will continue to
touch the lives of so many educators. . . .*

*It is to you this book is dedicated in the hope of
inspiring an unquenchable thirst for knowledge!*

Foreword

Blood groups were discovered more than a century ago and have a rich and varied history, including being recognized as the first markers of human diversity used to study population migration and admixture. The study of blood groups has also made important contributions to biology: for instance, the Colton blood antigens are carried on a membrane protein called aquaporin, which was the first water channel discovered in mammals. Rh-associated glycoprotein (RhAG) was the first mammalian ammonia transporter recognized, and the Kidd blood group protein was the first urea transporter discovered. All have related protein family members present in many tissues and organs. *Modern Blood Banking & Transfusion Practice* is an introduction to the role of blood groups in transfusion therapy, in which blood groups are the core of compatible blood transfusion.

Today, the Internet has truly facilitated access to new knowledge in all areas of science, and the field of transfusion medicine is no exception! Now, with knowledge mobile on every device, we are in an age of information explosion. However, to take advantage of the continual flow of new information generated by blood transfusion scientists and to apply it to everyday work in the blood bank, requires a solid knowledge base. It can be difficult to select one book that covers all the information that technologists in training need to know about blood transfusion science to build that foundation. It requires a well-thought-out systematic presentation of information for training. Dr. Denise Harmening has produced that single volume, now in its seventh edition!

This impressive legacy is a testament to the success of her approach and experience as an educator, administrator, researcher, and author, and is also reflected in her membership on the “Medscape” Pathology Editorial Advisory Board.

She has gathered a group of experienced scientists and teachers who, along with herself, cover all the important areas of blood transfusion science. The book is divided into five sections. The chapters included in Part I, “Fundamental Concepts,” provide a firm base on which the student can learn the practical and technical importance of the other chapters. The chapters in Part II, “Blood Groups and Serologic Testing,” and Part III, “Transfusion Practices,” provide information for medical technologists without overwhelming them with esoteric and clinical details. Part IV covers leukocyte antigens and relationship (parentage) testing. The chapters in Part V, “Quality Management and Compliance,” complete the scope of transfusion science. Although designed primarily for medical technologists, the book is also well suited to pathology residents, hematology fellows, and others who want to review principles of blood banking and transfusion practices.

Dr. Harmening indicates that this seventh edition will be her last revision. I speak for the profession in commending and thanking her for the major contribution she has made to the education of blood bankers. Importantly, the principles outlined here will remain; some details may change and new blood group antigens will be recognized, but the basic foundation will remain relevant in this “collectors” edition.

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Preface

This book is designed to provide the medical technologist, blood bank specialist, and resident with a concise and thorough guide to transfusion practices and immunohematology. This text, a perfect “crossmatch” of theory and practice, provides the reader with a working knowledge of routine blood banking. Forty-four contributors from across the country have shared their knowledge and expertise in 29 comprehensive chapters. More than 500 illustrations and tables facilitate the comprehension of difficult concepts not routinely illustrated in other texts. In addition, color plates provide a means for standardizing the reading of agglutination reactions.

Several features of this textbook offer great appeal to students and educators, including chapter outlines and educational objectives at the beginning of each chapter; case studies, review questions, and summary charts at the end of each chapter; and an extensive and convenient glossary for easy access to definitions of blood bank terms.

A blood group antigen-antibody characteristic chart is provided on the inside cover of the book to aid in retention of the vast amount of information presented, and serves as a review of the characteristics of the blood group systems. Original, comprehensive step-by-step illustrations of ABO forward and reverse grouping help the student to master this important testing, which represents the foundation of blood banking.

The seventh edition is divided into the following sections:

- Part I: Fundamental Concepts
- Part II: Blood Groups and Serologic Testing
- Part III: Transfusion Practices
- Part IV: Leukocyte Antigens and Relationship Testing
- Part V: Quality Management and Compliance

In Part I, the introduction to the historical aspects of red blood cell and platelet preservation serves as a prelude to the

basic concepts of genetics, immunology, and molecular biology. In Part II, four chapters focus on blood groups and four on routine blood bank practices, which include “The Antiglobulin Test,” “Detection and Identification of Antibodies,” “Pretransfusion Testing,” and “Blood Bank Testing Technologies and Automation.”

Part III, “Transfusion Practices,” includes a chapter titled “Cellular Therapy in the Transplant Setting” and covers the more traditional topics of donor screening, transfusion-transmitted diseases, component preparation, transfusion therapy, transfusion reactions, and apheresis. Certain clinical situations that are particularly relevant to blood banking are also discussed in this section, including hemolytic disease of the fetus and newborn, autoimmune hemolytic anemias, and tissue banking.

The human leukocyte antigen (HLA) system and relationship testing are discussed in Part IV of the book. In Part V, “Quality Management and Compliance,” a chapter titled “Patient Blood Management” is discussed. The chapters on quality management, transfusion safety and federal regulatory requirements, laboratory information systems, and legal and ethical considerations complete the scope of practice for transfusion services.

This book is a culmination of the tremendous efforts of many dedicated professionals who participated in this project by donating their time and expertise because they care about the blood bank profession. The book’s intention is to foster improved patient care by providing the reader with a basic understanding of modern blood banking and transfusion practices. The seventh edition is designed to generate an unquenchable thirst for knowledge in all medical laboratory scientists, blood bankers, and practitioners, whose education, knowledge, and skills provide the public with excellent health care.

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Contents

Part I

Fundamental Concepts

- 1 Red Blood Cell and Platelet Preservation: Historical Perspectives and Current Trends 1
- 2 Basic Genetics 24
- 3 Fundamentals of Immunology 45
- 4 Concepts in Molecular Biology 77

Part II

Blood Groups and Serologic Testing

- 5 The Antiglobulin Test 103
- 6 The ABO Blood Group System 119
- 7 The Rh Blood Group System 149
- 8 Blood Group Terminology and Common Blood Groups: The Lewis, P, I, MNS, Kell, Duffy, Kidd, and Lutheran 173
- 9 Uncommon Blood Groups 212
- 10 Detection and Identification of Antibodies 232
- 11 Pretransfusion Testing 256
- 12 Blood Bank Testing Technologies and Automation 268

Part III

Transfusion Practices

- 13 Donor Selection 281
- 14 Transfusion-Transmitted Diseases 307
- 15 Component Preparation 333
- 16 Transfusion Therapy 355

- 17 Adverse Effects of Blood Transfusion 373
- 18 Apheresis 396
- 19 Cellular Therapy in the Hematopoietic Transplant Setting 417
- 20 Hemolytic Disease of the Fetus and Newborn (HDFN) 427
- 21 Autoimmune Hemolytic Anemias 441
- 22 Tissue Banking as a Part of the Transfusion Service 476

Part IV

Leukocyte Antigens and Relationship Testing

- 23 The HLA System 497
- 24 Relationship Testing 515

Part V

Quality Management and Compliance

- 25 Quality Management in the Blood Bank 531
- 26 Patient Blood Management 552
- 27 Transfusion Safety and Federal Regulatory Requirements 574
- 28 Laboratory Information Systems in the Blood Bank 590
- 29 Medicolegal and Ethical Aspects of Providing Blood Collection and Transfusion Services 607

Answer Key 617

Glossary 629

Index 653

Procedures Available on DavisPlus

The following procedures can be found on the textbook's companion website at DavisPlus.

Related Chapter	Procedure
Chapter 5: The Antiglobulin Test	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Procedure 5–1: Direct Antiglobulin Test• Procedure 5–2: Indirect Antiglobulin Test
Chapter 6: The ABO Blood Group System	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Procedure 6–1: Determination of the Secretor Property
Chapter 10: Detection and Identification of Antibodies	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Procedure 10–1: Plasma Inhibition Studies
Chapter 11: Pretransfusion Testing	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Procedure 11–1: Preparation of Washed “Dry” Button of RBCs for Serologic Tests• Procedure 11–2: Model One-Tube-Per-Donor-Unit Crossmatch Procedure• Procedure 11–3: Saline Replacement Procedure
Chapter 21: Autoimmune Hemolytic Anemias	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Procedure 21–1: Use of Thiol Reagents to Disperse Autoagglutination• Procedure 21–2: Cold Autoadsorption• Procedure 21–3: Prewarm Technique for Testing Serum Containing Cold Agglutinins• Procedure 21–4: Adsorption of Cold Autoantibodies With Rabbit Erythrocyte Stroma• Procedure 21–5: Dissociation of IgG by Chloroquine• Procedure 21–6: Digitonin-Acid Elution• Procedure 21–7: Autologous Adsorption of Warm Reactive Autoantibodies Application<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Heat and Enzyme Method• ZZAP Method• Procedure 21–8: Demonstration of Drug-Induced Immune Complex Formation• Procedure 21–9: Detection of Antibodies to Penicillin or Cephalothin• Procedure 21–10: EDTA/Glycine Acid (EGA) Method to Remove Antibodies From RBCs• Procedure 21–11: Separation of Transfused From Autologous RBCs by Simple Centrifugation: Reticulocyte Harvesting

Also available at DavisPlus (<http://davisplus.fadavis.com/>): Polyagglutination, by Phyllis S. Walker, MS, MT(ASCP)SBB.

Red Blood Cell and Platelet Preservation: Historical Perspectives and Current Trends

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Introduction

Historical Overview

Current Status

RBC Biology and Preservation

RBC Membrane

Metabolic Pathways

RBC Preservation

Anticoagulant Preservative Solutions

Additive Solutions

Freezing and Rejuvenation

Current Trends in RBC Preservation

Research

Improved Additive Solutions

Procedures to Reduce and Inactivate Pathogens

Formation of O Type RBCs

Blood Pharming

RBC Substitutes

Tissue Engineering of RBCs

Platelet Preservation

The Platelet Storage Lesion

Clinical Use of Platelets

Platelet Testing and Quality Control Monitoring

Measurement of Viability and Functional Properties of Stored Platelets

Platelet Storage and Bacterial Contamination

Pathogen Reduction for Platelets

Current Trends in Platelet Preservation Research

Development of Platelet Substitutes

Revisiting Approaches for Storage of Platelets at 1°C to 6°C

Frozen Platelets

Summary Chart

Review Questions

References

OBJECTIVES



1. List the major developments in the history of transfusion medicine.
2. Describe several biological properties of red blood cells (RBCs) that can affect post-transfusion survival.
3. Identify the metabolic pathways that are essential for normal RBC function and survival.
4. Define the hemoglobin-oxygen dissociation curve, including how it is related to the delivery of oxygen to tissues by transfused RBCs.
5. Explain how transfusion of stored blood can cause a shift to the left of the hemoglobin-oxygen dissociation curve.
6. State the temperature for storage of RBCs in the liquid state.

Continued

OBJECTIVES—cont'd

7. Define *storage lesion* and list the associated biochemical changes.
8. Explain the importance of 2,3-diphosphoglycerate (2,3-DPG) levels in transfused blood, including what happens to levels post-transfusion and which factors are involved.
9. Name the approved anticoagulant preservative solutions, explain the function of each ingredient, and state the maximum storage time for RBCs collected in each.
10. Name the additive solutions licensed in the United States, list the common ingredients, and describe the function of each ingredient.
11. Explain how additive solutions are used and list their advantages.
12. Explain rejuvenation of RBCs.
13. List the name and composition of the FDA-approved rejuvenation solution and state the storage time following rejuvenation.
14. Define the platelet storage lesion.
15. Describe the indications for platelet transfusion and the importance of the corrected count increment (CCI).
16. Explain the storage requirements for platelets.
17. Explain the swirling phenomenon and its significance.
18. List the two major reasons why routine platelet storage is limited to 5 days in the United States.
19. List the various ways that blood banks in the United States meet the FDA regulation requiring that blood establishments and transfusion services must assure that the risk of bacterial contamination of platelets is adequately controlled using FDA approved or cleared devices.
20. Explain the use and advantages of platelet additive solutions (PASs), and name two that are approved for use in the United States.

Introduction

People have always been fascinated by blood: Ancient Egyptians bathed in it, aristocrats drank it, authors and playwrights used it as themes, and modern humanity transfuses it. The road to an efficient, safe, and uncomplicated transfusion has been difficult, but great progress has been made. This chapter reviews the historical events leading to the current status of how blood is stored. A review of red blood cell (RBC) biology serves as a building block for the discussion of red blood cell preservation, and a brief description of platelet metabolism sets the stage for reviewing the platelet storage lesion. Current trends in red blood cell and platelet preservation research are presented for the inquisitive reader.

Historical Overview

In 1492, blood was taken from three young men and given to the stricken Pope Innocent VII in the hope of curing him; unfortunately, all four died. Although the outcome of this event was unsatisfactory, it is the first time a blood transfusion was recorded in history. The path to successful transfusions that is so familiar today is marred by many reported failures, but our physical, spiritual, and emotional fascination with blood is primordial. Why did success elude experimenters for so long?

Clotting was the principal obstacle to overcome. Attempts to find a nontoxic anticoagulant began in 1869, when Braxton Hicks recommended sodium phosphate. This was perhaps the

first example of blood preservation research. Karl Landsteiner in 1901 discovered the ABO blood groups and explained the serious reactions that occur in humans as a result of incompatible transfusions. His work in the beginning of the 20th century won a Nobel Prize.

Next came devices designed for performing the transfusions. Edward E. Lindemann was the first to succeed. He carried out vein-to-vein transfusion of blood by using multiple syringes and a special cannula for puncturing the vein through the skin. However, this time-consuming, complicated procedure required many skilled assistants. It was not until Unger designed his syringe-valve apparatus that transfusions from donor to patient by an unassisted physician became practical.

An unprecedented accomplishment in blood transfusion was achieved in 1914 when Hustin reported the use of sodium citrate as an anticoagulant solution for transfusions. Later, in 1915, Lewisohn determined the minimum amount of citrate needed for anticoagulation and demonstrated its nontoxicity in small amounts. Transfusions became more practical and safer for the patient.

The development of preservative solutions to enhance the metabolism of the RBCs followed. Glucose was evaluated as early as 1916, when Rous and Turner introduced a citrate-dextrose solution for the preservation of blood. However, the function of glucose in RBC metabolism was not understood until the 1930s. Therefore, the common practice of using glucose in the preservative solution was delayed. World War II stimulated blood preservation research because the demand for blood and plasma increased. During World War II,

the pioneer work of Dr. Charles Drew on developing techniques in blood transfusion and blood preservation led to the establishment of a widespread system of blood banks.¹ In February 1941, Dr. Drew was appointed director of the first American Red Cross blood bank at Presbyterian Hospital.¹ The pilot program Dr. Drew established became the model for the national volunteer blood donor program of the American Red Cross.¹

In 1943, Loutit and Mollison of England introduced the formula for the preservative acid-citrate-dextrose (ACD). Efforts in several countries resulted in the landmark publication of the July 1947 issue of the *Journal of Clinical Investigation*, which devoted nearly a dozen papers to the topic of blood preservation. Hospitals responded immediately, and in 1947 blood banks were established in many major cities of the United States; subsequently, transfusion became commonplace.

The daily occurrence of transfusions led to the discovery of numerous blood group systems. Antibody identification surged to the forefront as sophisticated techniques were developed. The interested student can review historic events during World War II in Kendrick's *Blood Program in World War II*, Historical Note.² In 1957, Gibson introduced an improved preservative solution called *citrate-phosphate-dextrose* (CPD), which was less acidic and eventually replaced ACD as the standard preservative used for blood storage.

Frequent transfusions and the massive use of blood soon resulted in new problems, such as circulatory overload. Component therapy has helped these problems. In the past, a single unit of whole blood could serve only one patient. With component therapy, however, one unit may be used for multiple transfusions. Today, health-care providers can select the specific component for their patient's particular needs without risking the inherent hazards of whole blood transfusions. Health-care providers can transfuse only the required fraction in the concentrated form, decreasing the possibility of overloading the circulatory system. Appropriate blood component therapy now provides more effective treatment and more complete use of blood products. Extensive use of blood during this period, coupled with component separation, led to increased comprehension of erythrocyte metabolism and a new awareness of the problems associated with RBC storage.

Current Status

AABB, formerly the American Association of Blood Banks, estimates that 6.8 million volunteers donate blood each year. Based on the 2015 National Blood Collection and Utilization Survey (NBCUS) approximately 12.6 million units of red blood cells (RBCs) were collected, and around 11.4 million were transfused.³ This represents a decline of 11.6% and 13.9%, respectively since 2013.⁴ With an aging population and advances in medical treatments requiring transfusions, the demand for blood and blood components is expected to continue to be high. It is estimated that one in three people will need blood at some point in their lifetime.⁴ These units are donated by fewer than 10% of healthy Americans who are eligible to donate each year.⁴ Volunteers can donate at

blood drives conducted at their place of work, school, and church, as well as at community and hospital-based blood centers. Volunteer donors are not paid and provide nearly all of the blood used for transfusion in the United States.

Traditionally, the amount of whole blood in a unit has been 450 mL \pm 10% of blood (1 pint). More recently, 500 mL \pm 10% of blood is being collected.⁵ These units are collected from donors with a minimum hematocrit of 38%.⁵ Modified plastic collection systems are used when collecting 500 mL of blood, with the volume of anticoagulant preservative solution being increased from 63 to 70 mL. The total blood volume of most adults is 10 to 12 pints, and donors can replenish the fluid lost from the 1-pint donation in 24 hours. The donor's red blood cells are replaced within 1 to 2 months after donation.⁴ A volunteer donor can donate whole blood every 8 weeks. (Refer to Chapter 13 on Donor Selection.)

Units of the **whole blood** collected can be separated into three components: **packed RBCs**, **platelets**, and **plasma**. In recent years, less whole blood has been used to prepare platelets because of the increased utilization of **apheresis** platelets. Hence, many units are converted only into RBCs and plasma. The plasma can be converted by **cryoprecipitation** to a clotting factor concentrate that is rich in fibrinogen. A unit of whole blood-prepared RBCs may be stored for 21 to 42 days, depending on the anticoagulant preservative solution used when the whole blood unit is collected and whether a preserving solution is added to the separated RBCs. Donated blood is free. However, there is a cost associated with collection, testing, processing, storing, and shipping of the blood components. The donation process consists of three predonation steps. Donors receive the following (**Box 1-1**):

1. Educational reading materials
2. A donor health history questionnaire
3. An abbreviated physical examination

BOX 1-1

The Donation Process

Step 1: Educational Materials

Educational material (such as the AABB pamphlet "An Important Message to All Blood Donors") that contains information on the risks of infectious diseases transmitted by blood transfusion, including the symptoms and signs of AIDS, is given to each prospective donor to read.

Step 2: The Donor Health History Questionnaire

A uniform donor history questionnaire, designed to ask questions that protect the health of both the donor and the recipient, is given to every donor. The health history questionnaire is used to identify donors who have been exposed to diseases that can be transmitted in blood (e.g., variant Creutzfeldt-Jakob, West Nile virus, malaria, babesiosis, or Chagas disease).

Step 3: The Abbreviated Physical Examination

The abbreviated physical examination for donors includes blood pressure, pulse, and temperature readings; hemoglobin or hematocrit level; and the inspection of the arms for skin lesions.

The donation process, especially steps 1 and 2, has been carefully modified over time to allow for the rejection of donors who may transmit transfusion-associated disease to recipients. For a more detailed description of donor screening and processing, refer to Chapter 13.

The nation's blood supply is safer than it has ever been because of the donation process and extensive laboratory testing of blood. Current infectious disease screening tests performed on each unit of donated blood are listed in **Table 1–1**. For a more detailed description of transfusion-associated disease, refer to Chapter 14.

RBC Biology and Preservation

Three areas of RBC biology are crucial for normal erythrocyte survival and function:

1. Normal chemical composition and structure of the RBC membrane
2. Hemoglobin structure and function
3. RBC metabolism⁶

Defects in any or all of these areas will result in RBCs surviving fewer than the normal 120 days in circulation.

Table 1–1 Current Donor Screening Tests for Infectious Diseases

Test	Date Test Required
Syphilis	1950s
Hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg)	1971
Hepatitis B core antibody (anti-HBc)	1986
Hepatitis C virus antibody (anti-HCV)	1990
Human immunodeficiency virus antibodies (anti-HIV-1/2)	1992 ¹
Human T-cell lymphotropic virus antibody (anti-HTLV-I/II)	1997 ²
Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV-1) NAT*	1999
Hepatitis C virus (HCV) NAT*	1999
West Nile virus NAT	2004
<i>Trypanosoma cruzi</i> antibody (anti- <i>T. cruzi</i>)	2007
Hepatitis B virus (HBV) NAT	2009
<i>Babesia microti</i> antibody and NAT (recommended)	2012
Zika virus NAT	2016

NAT = nucleic acid amplification testing

*Initially under IND starting in 1999.

¹Anti-HIV-1 testing implemented in 1985.

²Anti-HTLV testing implemented in 1988.

RBC Membrane

The RBC membrane represents a semipermeable lipid bilayer supported by a mesh-like protein cytoskeleton structure (**Fig. 1–1**).⁷ Phospholipids, the main lipid components of the membrane, are arranged in a bilayer structure comprising the framework in which globular proteins traverse and move. Proteins that extend from the outer surface and span the entire membrane to the inner cytoplasmic side of the RBC are termed *integral* membrane proteins. Beneath the lipid bilayer, a second class of membrane proteins, called *peripheral* proteins, is located and limited to the cytoplasmic surface of the membrane forming the RBC cytoskeleton.⁷

Advanced Concepts

Both proteins and lipids are organized asymmetrically within the RBC membrane. Lipids are not equally distributed in the two layers of the membrane. The external layer is rich in glycolipids and choline phospholipids.⁷ The internal cytoplasmic layer of the membrane is rich in amino phospholipids.⁷ The biochemical composition of the RBC membrane is approximately 52% protein, 40% lipid, and 8% carbohydrate.⁶

As mentioned previously, the normal chemical composition and the structural arrangement and molecular interactions of the erythrocyte membrane are crucial to the normal length of RBC survival of 120 days in circulation. In addition, they maintain a critical role in two important RBC characteristics: deformability and permeability.⁸

Deformability

To remain viable, normal RBCs must also remain flexible, deformable, and permeable. The loss of adenosine triphosphate (ATP) (energy levels) leads to a decrease in the phosphorylation of spectrin and, in turn, a loss of membrane deformability.⁶ An accumulation or increase in deposition of membrane calcium also results, causing an increase in membrane rigidity and loss of pliability.⁸ These cells are at a marked disadvantage when they pass through the small (3 to 5 μm in diameter) sinusoidal orifices of the spleen, an organ that functions in extravascular sequestration, and removal of aged, damaged, or less deformable RBCs or fragments of their membrane. The loss of RBC membrane is exemplified by the formation of *spherocytes* (cells with a reduced surface-to-volume ratio; **Fig. 1–2**) and *bite cells*, in which the removal of a portion of membrane has left a permanent indentation in the remaining cell membrane (**Fig. 1–3**). The survival of these forms is also shortened.

Permeability

The permeability properties of the RBC membrane and the active RBC cation transport prevent colloid hemolysis and control the volume of the RBCs. Any abnormality that increases permeability or alters cationic transport may

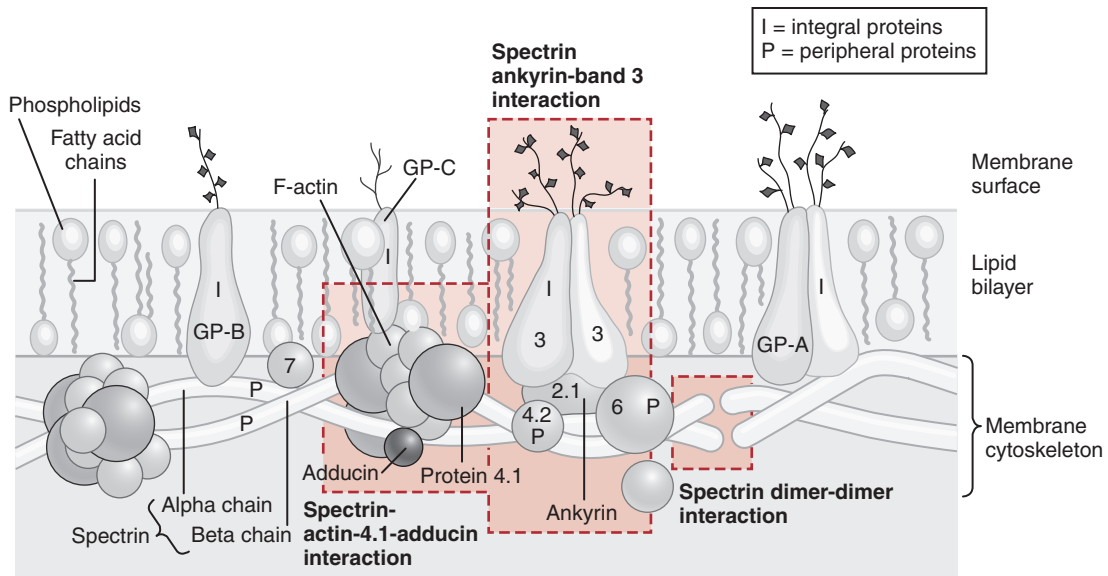


Figure 1-1. Schematic illustration of red blood cell membrane depicting the composition and arrangement of RBC membrane proteins. GP-A = glycoprotein A; GP-B = glycoprotein B; GP-C = glycoprotein C; G = globin. Numbers refer to pattern of migration of SDS (sodium dodecyl sulfate) polyacrylamide gel pattern stained with Coomassie brilliant blue. Relations of protein to each other and to lipids are purely hypothetical; however, the positions of the proteins relative to the inside or outside of the lipid bilayer are accurate. (Note: Proteins are not drawn to scale and many minor proteins are omitted.) (Reprinted with permission from Harmening, DH: *Clinical Hematology and Fundamentals of Hemostasis*, 5th ed., FA Davis, Philadelphia, 2009.)

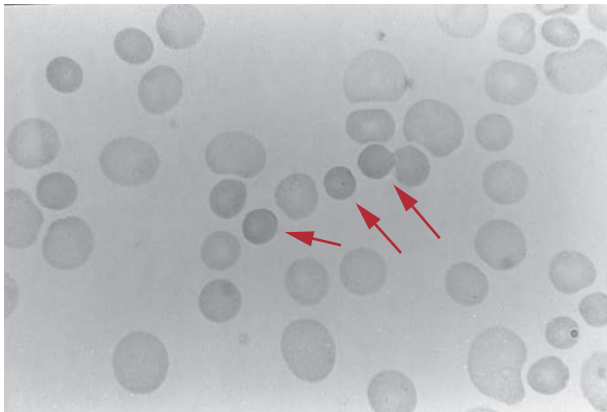


Figure 1-2. Spherocytes.

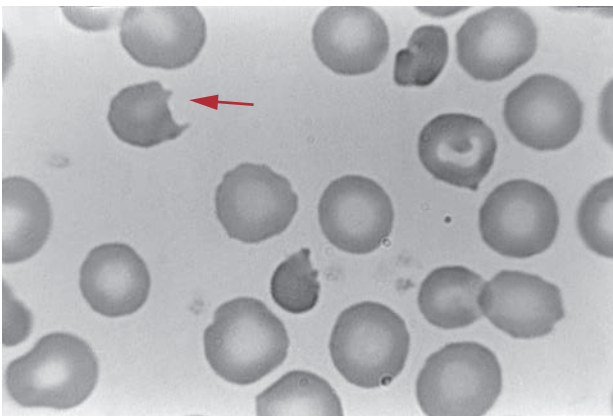


Figure 1-3. "Bite" cells.

decrease RBC survival. The RBC membrane is freely permeable to water and anions.⁹ Chloride (Cl^-) and bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) can traverse the membrane in less than a second. It is speculated that this massive exchange of ions occurs through a large number of exchange channels located in the RBC membrane. The RBC membrane is relatively impermeable to cations such as sodium (Na^+) and potassium (K^+).

RBC volume and water homeostasis are maintained by controlling the intracellular concentrations of sodium and potassium.⁹ The erythrocyte intracellular-to-extracellular ratios for Na^+ and K^+ are 1:12 and 25:1, respectively.⁶ The 300 cationic pumps, which actively transport Na^+ out of the cell and K^+ into the cell, require energy in the form of ATP. Calcium (Ca^{2+}) is also actively pumped from the interior of the RBC through energy-dependent calcium-ATPase pumps.⁶ Calmodulin, a cytoplasmic calcium-binding protein, is speculated to control these pumps and to prevent excessive intracellular Ca^{2+} buildup, which changes the shape and makes it more rigid.⁶ When RBCs are ATP-depleted, Ca^{2+} and Na^+ are allowed to accumulate intracellularly, and K^+ and water are lost, resulting in a dehydrated rigid cell that is subsequently sequestered by the spleen, resulting in a decrease in RBC survival.⁹

Metabolic Pathways

The RBCs' metabolic pathways that produce ATP are mainly anaerobic because the function of the RBC is to deliver oxygen, not to consume it. Because the mature erythrocyte has no nucleus and there is no mitochondrial apparatus

for oxidative metabolism, energy must be generated almost exclusively through the breakdown of glucose.

Advanced Concepts

RBC metabolism may be divided into the anaerobic glycolytic pathway and three ancillary pathways that serve to maintain the structure and function of hemoglobin (Fig. 1–4): the pentose phosphate pathway, the methemoglobin reductase pathway, and the Luebering-Rapoport shunt. All of these processes are essential if the erythrocyte is to transport oxygen and to maintain critical physical characteristics for its survival. Glycolysis generates about 90% of the ATP needed by the RBC. Approximately 10% is provided by the pentose phosphate pathway. The methemoglobin reductase pathway is another important pathway of RBC metabolism, and a defect can affect RBC post-transfusion survival and function. Another pathway that is crucial to RBC function is the Luebering-Rapoport shunt. This pathway permits the accumulation of an important RBC organic phosphate, 2,3-diphosphoglycerate

(2,3-DPG). The amount of 2,3-DPG found within RBCs has a significant effect on the affinity of hemoglobin for oxygen and therefore affects how well RBCs function post-transfusion.

Hemoglobin-Oxygen Dissociation Curve

Hemoglobin's primary function is gas transport: oxygen delivery to the tissues and carbon dioxide (CO₂) excretion. One of the most important controls of hemoglobin affinity for oxygen is the RBC organic phosphate 2,3-DPG. The unloading of oxygen by hemoglobin is accompanied by widening of a space between β chains and the binding of 2,3-DPG on a mole-for-mole basis, with the formation of anionic salt bridges between the chains.¹⁰ The resulting conformation of the deoxyhemoglobin molecule is known as the *tense (T) form*, which has a lower affinity for oxygen.⁶ When hemoglobin loads oxygen and becomes oxyhemoglobin, the established salt bridges are broken, and β chains are pulled together, expelling 2,3-DPG. This is the *relaxed (R) form* of the hemoglobin molecule, which has a higher

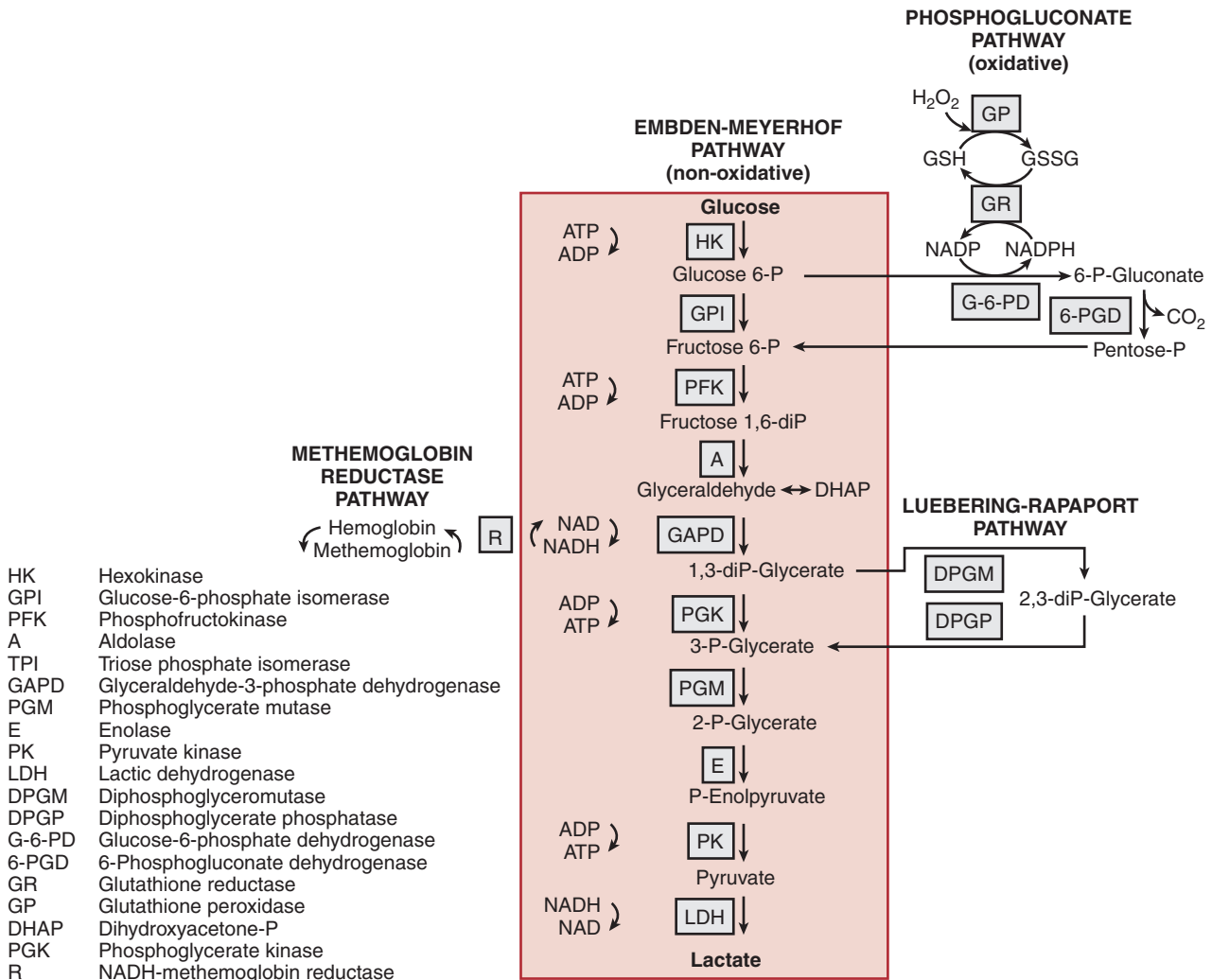


Figure 1–4. Red blood cell metabolism. (Reprinted with permission from Hillman, RF, and Finch, CA: Red Cell Manual, 7th ed., FA Davis, Philadelphia, 1996.)

affinity for oxygen.⁶ These **allosteric changes** that occur as the hemoglobin loads and unloads oxygen are referred to as the *respiratory movement*. The dissociation and binding of oxygen by hemoglobin are not directly proportional to the partial pressure of oxygen (pO_2) in its environment but instead exhibit a **sigmoid-curve** relationship, known as the *hemoglobin-oxygen dissociation curve* (Fig. 1–5).

The shape of this curve is very important physiologically because it permits a considerable amount of oxygen to be delivered to the tissues with a small drop in oxygen tension. For example, in the environment of the lungs, where the pO_2 tension, measured in millimeters of mercury (mm Hg), is nearly 100 mm Hg, the hemoglobin molecule is almost 100% saturated with oxygen. As the RBCs travel to the tissues, where the pO_2 drops to an average of 40 mm Hg (mean venous oxygen tension), the hemoglobin saturation drops to approximately 75% saturation, releasing about 25% of the oxygen to the tissues.⁶ This is the normal situation of oxygen delivery at a basal metabolic rate. The normal position of the oxygen dissociation curve depends on three different **ligands** normally found within the RBC: H^+ ions, CO_2 , and organic phosphates. Of these three ligands, 2,3-DPG plays the most important physiological role. Normal hemoglobin function depends on adequate 2,3-DPG levels in the RBC. In situations such as hypoxia, a compensatory **shift to the right** of the hemoglobin-oxygen dissociation curve alleviates the tissue oxygen deficit. This rightward shift of the curve, mediated by increased levels of 2,3-DPG, decreases hemoglobin's affinity for the oxygen molecule and increases oxygen delivery to the tissues. A **shift to the left** of the hemoglobin-oxygen dissociation curve results, conversely, in an increase in hemoglobin-oxygen affinity and a decrease in oxygen delivery to the tissues. With such a dissociation curve, RBCs

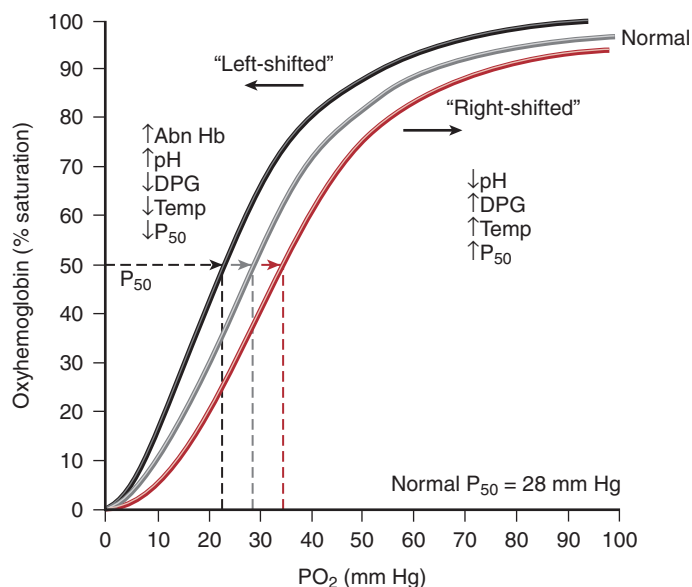


Figure 1–5. Hemoglobin-oxygen dissociation curve. (Reprinted with permission from Harmening, DH: *Clinical Hematology and Fundamentals of Hemostasis*, 5th ed., FA Davis, Philadelphia, 2009.)

are much less efficient because only 12% of the oxygen can be released to the tissues.⁶ Multiple transfusions of 2,3-DPG–depleted stored blood can shift the oxygen dissociation curve to the left.¹⁰

RBC Preservation

The goal of blood preservation is to provide viable and functional blood components for patients requiring blood transfusion. RBC viability is a measure of *in vivo* RBC survival following transfusion. Because blood must be stored from the time of donation until the time of transfusion, the viability of RBCs must be maintained during the storage time as well. The U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) requires an average 24-hour post-transfusion RBC survival of more than 75%.¹¹ In addition, the FDA mandates that red blood cell integrity be maintained throughout the shelf-life of the stored RBCs. This is assessed as free hemoglobin less than 1% of total hemoglobin.¹¹ These two criteria are used to evaluate new preservation solutions and storage containers. To determine post-transfusion RBC survival, RBCs are taken from healthy subjects, stored, and then labeled with radioisotopes, reinfused to the original donor, and measured 24 hours after transfusion. Despite FDA requirements, the 24-hour post-transfusion RBC survival at outdate can be less than 75% and in critically ill patients is often less than 75%.^{12,13}

To maintain optimum viability, blood is stored in the liquid state between 1°C and 6°C for a specific number of days, as determined by the preservative solution(s) used. The loss of RBC viability has been correlated with the **storage lesion**, which is associated with various biochemical changes¹⁴ (Table 1–2).

Advanced Concepts

Because low 2,3-DPG levels profoundly influence the oxygen dissociation curve of hemoglobin,¹⁴ DPG-depleted

Table 1–2 RBC Storage Lesion

Characteristic	Change Observed
Viable cells (%)	Decreased
Glucose	Decreased
ATP	Decreased
Lactic acid	Increased
pH	Decreased
2,3-DPG	Decreased
Oxygen dissociation curve	Shift to the left (increase in hemoglobin and oxygen affinity; less oxygen delivered to tissues)
Plasma K^+	Increased
Plasma hemoglobin	Increased

RBCs may have an impaired capacity to deliver oxygen to the tissues. As RBCs are stored, 2,3-DPG levels decrease, with a shift to the left of the hemoglobin-oxygen dissociation curve, and less oxygen is delivered to the tissues. It is well accepted, however, that 2,3-DPG is re-formed in stored RBCs after in vivo circulation, resulting in restored oxygen delivery. The rate of restoration of 2,3-DPG is influenced by the acid-base status of the recipient, the phosphorus metabolism, the degree of anemia, and the overall severity of the disorder.⁶ It has been reported that within the first hour after transfusion, most RBC clearance occurs.¹³ Approximately 220 to 250 mg of iron are contained in one RBC unit.¹⁵ Therefore, rapid RBC clearance of even 25% of a single unit of blood delivers a massive load of hemoglobin iron to the monocyte and macrophage system, potentially producing harmful effects.¹²

Despite the biochemical, structural, and functional changes that occur to RBCs during storage, there is no significant difference in rates of death between patients who were transfused with only fresh blood versus those patients who were transfused with the oldest blood available.¹⁶

Anticoagulant Preservative Solutions

Table 1–3 lists the approved anticoagulant preservative solutions for whole blood and RBC storage at 1°C to 6°C. The addition of various chemicals, along with the approved anticoagulant preservative CPD, was incorporated in an attempt to stimulate glycolysis so that ATP levels were better maintained.¹⁷ One of the chemicals, adenine, incorporated into the CPD solution (CPDA-1) increases ADP levels, thereby driving glycolysis toward the synthesis of ATP. CPDA-1 contains 0.25 mM of adenine plus 25% more glucose than CPD. Adenine-supplemented blood can be stored at 1°C to 6°C for 35 days; the other anticoagulants are approved for 21 days. **Table 1–4** lists the various chemicals used in anticoagulant solutions and their functions during the storage of red blood cells.

Table 1–3 Approved Anticoagulant Preservative Solutions

Name	Abbreviation	Storage Time (Days)
Acid citrate-dextrose (formula A)*	ACD-A	21
Citrate-phosphate dextrose	CPD	21
Citrate-phosphate-double-dextrose	CP2D	21
Citrate-phosphate-dextrose-adenine	CPDA-1	35

*ACD-A is used for apheresis components.

Advanced Concepts

It is interesting to note that blood stored in all CPD preservatives also becomes depleted of 2,3-DPG by the second week of storage. The reported pathophysiological effects of the transfusion of RBCs with low 2,3-DPG levels and increased affinity for oxygen include an increase in cardiac output, a decrease in mixed venous (pO₂) tension, or a combination of these.¹⁸ The physiological importance of these effects is not easily demonstrated. This is a complex mechanism with numerous variables involved that are beyond the scope of this text.

Stored RBCs regain the ability to synthesize 2,3-DPG after transfusion, but levels necessary for optimal hemoglobin-oxygen delivery are not reached immediately. Approximately 24 hours are required to restore normal levels of 2,3-DPG after transfusion.¹⁸ The 2,3-DPG concentrations after transfusion have been reported to reach normal levels as early as 6 hours post-transfusion.¹⁸ Most of these studies have been performed on normal, healthy individuals. However, evidence suggests that, in the transfused subject whose capacity is limited by an underlying physiological disturbance, even a brief period of altered oxygen hemoglobin affinity is of great significance.¹² It is quite clear now that 2,3-DPG levels in transfused blood are important in certain clinical conditions. Some studies demonstrate that myocardial function improves following transfusion of blood with high 2,3-DPG levels during cardiovascular surgery.¹⁸ Several investigators suggest that the patient in shock who is given 2,3-DPG-depleted erythrocytes in transfusion may have already strained the compensatory mechanisms to their limits.^{18,19–21} Perhaps for this type of patient, the poor oxygen delivery capacity of 2,3-DPG-depleted cells makes a significant difference in recovery and survival.

It is apparent that many factors may limit the viability of transfused RBCs. One of these factors is the plastic material used for the storage container. The plastic must be sufficiently permeable to CO₂ in order to maintain higher pH levels during storage. Glass storage containers are no longer used in the United States. Currently, the majority of blood is stored in polyvinyl chloride (PVC) plastic bags. One issue associated with PVC bags relates to the plasticizer di(ethylhexyl)-phthalate (DEHP), which is used in the manufacture of the bags. It has been found to leach from the plastic into the lipids of the plasma medium and RBC membranes of the blood during storage. However, its use or that of alternative plasticizers that leach are important because they have been shown to stabilize the RBC membrane and therefore reduce the extent of hemolysis during storage. Another issue with PVC is its tendency to break at low temperatures; therefore, components frozen in PVC bags must be handled with care. In addition to PVC, polyolefin containers, which do not contain DEHP, are available for some components, and latex-free plastic containers are available for recipients with latex allergies.⁵

Table 1–4 Chemicals in Anticoagulant Solutions

Chemical	Function	Present In			
		ACD-A	CPD	CP2D	CPDA-1
Citrate (sodium citrate/citric acid)	Chelates calcium; prevents clotting.	X	X	X	X
Monobasic sodium phosphate	Maintains pH during storage; necessary for maintenance of adequate levels of 2,3-DPG.	X	X	X	X
Dextrose	Substrate for ATP production (cellular energy).	X	X	X	X
Adenine	Production of ATP (extends shelf-life from 21 to 35 days).				X

ACD-A = acid citrate-dextrose (formula A); CPD = citrate-phosphate dextrose; CP2D = citrate phosphate double dextrose; CPDA-1 = citrate-phosphate-dextrose-adenine; 2,3-DPG = 2,3-diphosphoglycerate; ATP = adenosine triphosphate

Additive Solutions

Additive solutions (AS) are preserving solutions that are added to the RBCs after removal of the plasma with or without platelets. Additive solutions are now widely used. One of the reasons for their development is that removal of the plasma component during the preparation of packed RBCs removed much of the nutrients needed to maintain RBCs during storage. This was dramatically observed when high-hematocrit RBCs were prepared. The influence of removing substantial amounts of adenine and glucose present originally in, for example, the CPDA-1 anticoagulant preservative solution, led to a decrease in viability, particularly in the last 2 weeks of storage.¹⁶

Packed RBCs prepared from whole blood units collected in primary anticoagulant preservative solutions can be relatively void of plasma with high hematocrits, which causes the units to be more viscous and difficult to infuse, especially in emergency situations. Additive solutions (100 mL to the packed RBCs prepared from a 450-mL blood collection) also overcome this problem. Additive solutions reduce hematocrits from around 65% to 80% to around 55% to 65% with a volume of approximately 300 to 400 mL.²² The ability to pack RBCs to fairly high hematocrits before adding additive solution also provides a means to harvest greater amounts of plasma with or without platelets. **Box 1–2** summarizes the benefits of RBC additive solutions.

Currently, four additive solutions are licensed in the United States:

1. Adsol (AS-1; Fenwal Inc.)
2. Nutricel (AS-3; Haemonetics Corporation)
3. Optisol (AS-5; Terumo Corporation)
4. SOLX (AS-7; Haemonetics Corporation)

BOX 1–2

Benefits of RBC Additive Solutions

- Extends the shelf-life of RBCs to 42 days by adding nutrients
- Allows for the harvesting of more plasma and platelets from the unit
- Produces a packed RBC of lower viscosity that is easier to infuse

The additive solution is contained in a satellite bag and is added to the RBCs after most of the plasma has been expressed. All three additives contain saline, adenine, and glucose. AS-1, AS-5, and AS-7 also contain mannitol, which protects against storage-related hemolysis, whereas AS-3 contains citrate and phosphate for the same purpose.²² All of the additive solutions are approved for 42 days of storage for packed RBCs.²² **Table 1–5** lists the currently approved additive solutions.

Advanced Concepts

Table 1–6 shows the biochemical characteristics of RBCs stored in the additive solutions after 42 days of storage.^{22,23,24} Additive system RBCs are used in the same way as traditional RBC transfusions. Blood stored in additive solutions is now routinely given to newborn infants and pediatric patients, although some clinicians still prefer CPDA-1 RBCs because of their concerns about one or more of the constituents in the additive solutions.²⁵

None of the additive solutions maintain 2,3-DPG throughout the storage time. As with RBCs stored only with primary anticoagulant preservatives, 2,3-DPG is depleted by the second week of storage.²³

Table 1–5 Additive Solutions in Use in North America

Name	Abbreviation	Storage Time (Days)
Adsol (Fenwal Inc.)	AS-1	42
Nutricel (Haemonetics Corporation)	AS-3	42
Optisol (Terumo Corporation)	AS-5	42
SOLX (Haemonetics)	AS-7	42

Table 1–6 Red Blood Cell Additives: Biochemical Characteristics

	AS-1	AS-3	AS-5	AS-7
Storage period (days)	42	42	42	42
pH (measured at 37°C)	6.6	6.5	6.5	6.6
24-hour survival*(%)	83	85.1	80	80
ATP (% initial)	68	67	68.5	91%
2,3-DPG (% initial)	6	6	5	**1.5 μmol/L/g Hb
Hemolysis (%)	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.3

*Survival studies reported are from selected investigators and do not include an average of all reported survivals.

**Reported by researchers using different units

Freezing and Rejuvenation

RBC Freezing

RBC freezing is primarily used for autologous units and the storage of rare blood types. **Autologous transfusion** (*auto* meaning “self”) allows individuals to donate blood for their own use to meet their needs for blood transfusion (see Chapter 16, “Transfusion Therapy”).

The procedure for freezing a unit of packed RBCs is not complicated. It involves the addition of a cryoprotective agent to RBCs that are less than 6 days old. Glycerol is used most commonly and is added to the RBCs slowly with vigorous shaking, thereby enabling the glycerol to permeate the RBCs. The cells are then rapidly frozen and stored in a freezer. The usual storage temperature is below -65°C , although storage (and freezing) temperature depends on the concentration of glycerol used.²³ Two concentrations of glycerol have been used to freeze RBCs: a high-concentration glycerol (40% weight in volume [wt/vol]) and a low-concentration glycerol (20% wt/vol) in the final concentration of the cryopreservative.²³ Most blood banks that freeze RBCs use the high-concentration glycerol technique.

Table 1–7 lists the advantages of the high-concentration glycerol technique in comparison with the low-concentration glycerol technique. See Chapter 15 for a detailed description of the RBC freezing procedure.

Currently, the FDA licenses frozen RBCs for a period of 10 years from the date of freezing; that is, frozen RBCs may be stored up to 10 years before thawing and transfusion.²⁶ Once thawed, these RBCs demonstrate function and viability near those of fresh blood. Experience has shown that 10-year storage periods do not adversely affect viability and function.²⁷ **Table 1–8** lists the advantages and disadvantages of RBC freezing.

Advanced Concepts

Transfusion of frozen cells must be preceded by a deglycerolization process; otherwise, the thawed cells would be accompanied by hypertonic glycerol when infused, and RBC lysis would result. Removal of glycerol is achieved by systematically replacing the cryoprotectant with decreasing concentrations of saline. The usual protocol involves washing with 12% saline, followed by 1.6% saline, with a final wash of 0.2% dextrose in normal saline.⁵ A commercially available cell-washing system, such as those manufactured by several companies, has traditionally been used in the deglycerolizing process. Excessive hemolysis is monitored by noting the hemoglobin concentration of the wash supernatant. Osmolality of the unit should also be monitored to ensure adequate deglycerolization. Traditionally, because

Table 1–7 Advantages of High-Concentration Glycerol Technique Over Low-Concentration Glycerol Technique

Advantage	High Glycerol	Low Glycerol
1. Initial freezing temperature	-80°C	-196°C
2. Need to control freezing rate	No	Yes
3. Type of freezer	Mechanical	Liquid nitrogen
4. Maximum storage temperature	-65°C	-120°C
5. Shipping requirements	Dry ice	Liquid nitrogen
6. Effect of changes in storage temperature	Can be thawed and refrozen	Critical

Table 1–8 Advantages and Disadvantages of RBC Freezing

Advantages	Disadvantages
Long-term storage (10 years)	A time-consuming process
Maintenance of RBC viability and function	Higher cost of equipment and materials
Low residual leukocytes and platelets	Storage requirements (–65°C)
Removal of significant amounts of plasma proteins	Higher cost of product

a unit of blood is processed in an **open system** (one in which sterility is broken) to add the glycerol (before freezing) or the saline solutions (for deglycerolization), the outdated period of thawed RBCs stored at 1°C to 6°C has been 24 hours.²³ Generally, RBCs in CPD or CPDA-1 anticoagulant preservatives or additive solutions are glycerolized and frozen within 6 days of whole blood collection.²³

Closed-system devices have been developed that allow the glycerolization and deglycerolization processes to be performed under sterile conditions.²⁷ RBCs prepared from 450-mL collections and frozen within 6 days of blood collection with CPDA-1 can be stored after thawing at 1°C to 6°C for up to two weeks when prepared in a closed system.²³

RBC Rejuvenation

Rejuvenation of RBCs is the process by which ATP and 2,3-DPG levels are restored or enhanced by metabolic alterations. Currently, FDA-approved rejuvenation solution contains phosphate, inosine, and adenine.²² Rejuvenated RBCs may be prepared up to three days after expiration when stored in CPD, CPDA-1, and AS-1 storage solutions.²² Currently, rejuvenated RBCs must be washed before infusion to remove the inosine (which may be toxic) and transfused within 24 hours or frozen for long-term storage.²² The rejuvenation process is expensive and time-consuming, thus it is not used often; however, the process is invaluable for preserving selected autologous and rare units of blood for later use.

Current Trends in RBC Preservation Research

Advanced Concepts

Research and development in RBC preparation and preservation is being pursued in five areas:

1. Development of improved additive solutions
2. Development of procedures to reduce and inactivate the level of pathogens that may be in RBC units

3. Development of procedures to convert A, B, and AB type RBCs to O type RBCs
4. Development of methods to produce RBCs through bioengineering (blood pharming)
5. Development of RBC substitutes

Improved Additive Solutions

Research is being conducted to develop improved additive solutions for RBC preservation. One reason for this is because longer storage periods could improve the logistics of providing RBCs for clinical use.

Procedures to Reduce and Inactivate Pathogens

Research is being conducted to develop procedures that would reduce the level of or inactivate residual viruses, bacteria, and parasites in RBC units. One objective is to develop robust procedures that could possibly inactivate all pathogens that may be present, including new and emergent viruses. Amustaline (S-303) pathogen reduction system is currently being studied and has demonstrated adequate post-transfusion viability according to FDA criteria.²⁸ This nucleic acid-targeted pathogen inactivation technology was developed to reduce the risk of transfusion-transmitted infectious disease with RBC transfusions.²⁹ Areas of concern that must be addressed before pathogen inactivation technologies are approved for use with RBCs in the United States are potential toxicity, immunogenicity, cellular function, and cost. Currently, the FDA has not approved any Pathogen Reduction Technology (PRT) for use with RBCs.²⁹

Formation of O Type RBCs

The inadequate supply of O type RBC units that is periodically encountered can hinder blood centers and hospital blood banks in providing RBCs for specific patients. Research over the last 30 years has been evaluating how A and B type RBCs can be converted to O type RBCs, the universal donor.³⁰ The use of enzymes that remove the carbohydrate moieties of the A and B antigens is the mechanism for forming O type RBCs.³⁰ The enzymes are removed by washing after completion of the reaction time.

Blood Pharming

Creating RBCs in the laboratory (**blood pharming**) is another area of research that has the potential to increase the amount of blood available for transfusion. In 2008, the Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA) awarded Arteriocyte, a bioengineering company, a contract to develop a system for producing O-negative RBCs on the battlefield.³¹ The company, which uses proprietary technology (NANEX) to turn hematopoietic stem cells (HSCs) from umbilical cords into type O, Rh-negative RBCs, sent its first shipment of the engineered blood to the FDA for evaluation in 2010.³¹ FDA approval is required before human trials can begin. Cultured RBCs generated from in vitro hematopoietic stem

cells has been reported as well.³² However, this has not proven practical for routine transfusion. The challenges associated with blood pharming are scalability or large-scale production and cost-effectiveness.

RBC Substitutes

Scientists have been searching for a substitute for blood for over 150 years. Blood substitutes continue to be of interest because of their potential to alleviate shortages of donated blood. In the 1980s, safety concerns about HIV led to renewed interest in finding a substitute for human blood; and more recently, the need for blood on remote battlefields has heightened that interest.³³ The U.S. military is one of the strongest advocates for the development of blood substitutes, which it supports through its own research and partnerships with private-sector companies.³³ Today the search continues for a safe and effective oxygen carrier that could eliminate many of the problems associated with blood transfusion, such as the need for refrigeration, limited shelf-life, compatibility, immunogenicity, transmission of infectious agents, and shortages. **Box 1–3** lists the potential benefits of artificial oxygen carriers. Since RBC substitutes are drugs, they must go through extensive testing in order to obtain FDA approval. Safety and efficacy must be demonstrated through clinical trials. **Table 1–9** outlines the different phases of testing.

Current research on blood substitutes is focused on two areas: **hemoglobin-based oxygen carriers (HBOCs)** and **perfluorocarbons (PFCs)**.^{34,35} Originally developed to be used in trauma situations such as accidents, combat, and surgery, RBC substitutes have, until recently, fallen short of meeting requirements for these applications.³⁴ Despite years of research, RBC substitutes are still not in routine use today. South Africa, Mexico, and Russia are the only countries in which blood substitutes are approved for clinical use. None have received FDA approval for clinical use in the United States, although specific products are still in phase III clinical trials.

BOX 1–3

Potential Benefits of Artificial Oxygen Carriers

- Abundant supply
- Readily available for use in prehospital settings, battlefields, and remote locations
- Can be stockpiled for emergencies and warfare
- No need for typing and crossmatching
- Available for immediate infusion
- Extended shelf-life (1 to 3 years)
- Can be stored at room temperature
- Free of bloodborne pathogens
- At full oxygen capacity immediately
- Do not prime circulating neutrophils, reducing the incidence of multiorgan failure
- Can deliver oxygen to tissue that is inaccessible to RBCs
- Have been accepted by Jehovah’s Witnesses
- Could eventually cost less than units of blood

Table 1–9 Phases of Testing

Phase	Description of Testing
Preclinical	In vivo and animal testing.
Phase I	Researchers test drug in a small group of people (20 to 80) for the first time to evaluate its safety, determine a safe dosage range, and identify side effects.
Phase II	The drug is given to a larger group of people (100 to 300) to see if it is effective and to further evaluate its safety.
Phase III	The drug is given to large groups of people (1,000 to 3,000) to confirm its effectiveness, monitor side effects, compare it to commonly used treatments, and collect information that will allow the drug to be used safely.
Phase IV	Postmarketing studies to gather additional information about the drug’s risks, benefits, and optimal use.

Hemoglobin-Based Oxygen Carriers

HBOC commercial development focused on “oxygen therapeutic” indications to provide immediate oxygenation until medical or surgical interventions could be initiated. Early trauma trials with HemAssist® (BAXTER), Hemopure® (HbO₂Therapeutics), and PolyHeme® (NORTHFIELD Laboratories) for resuscitating hypotensive shock all failed due to the safety concerns of cardiac issues and increased mortality.

Although several HBOCs have progressed to phase II and III clinical trials, currently none have been approved for clinical use in humans in the United States.^{36,37} A 2008 meta-analysis of 16 clinical trials involving 3,711 patients and five different HBOCs found a significantly increased risk of death and myocardial infarction associated with the use of HBOCs.³⁷ As a result, in 2008, the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) put all HBOC trials in the United States on clinical hold due to the unfavorable outcomes.³⁵ However, Hemopure (HBOC-201) and PolyHeme are still in phase III clinical trials in the United States and Europe.³⁸ Hemopure was approved for clinical use in South Africa in 2001 to treat adult surgical patients who are anemic, and in Russia for acute anemia.³⁴ Many HBOCs have been researched; however, the majority have been discontinued due to complications of cardiac toxicity, gastrointestinal distress, neurotoxicity, renal failure, and increased mortality.³⁴ **Table 1–10** summarizes some of the many HBOCs developed.

However, some experts believe that HBOCs hold more promise than PFCs.^{33,39}

Table 1–11 lists the advantages and disadvantages of HBOCs.

Perfluorocarbons

Perfluorocarbons are synthetic hydrocarbon structures in which all hydrogen atoms have been replaced with fluorine. They are chemically inert, are excellent gas solvents, and

- Passenger lymphocytes** Donor lymphocytes in the transplanted organ or HPC (hereditary progenitor cell) product.
- Paternity index** Term that refers to a statement of “weight” concerning the probability a tested individual, who cannot be excluded as the parent of the child, is the true parent. The paternity index represents a likelihood ratio that compares two mutually exclusive hypotheses. The numerator of the ratio reflects the probability the tested alleged parent is the true parent of the child and the denominator reflects the probability someone random and unrelated to the alleged parent is the true parent.
- Patient blood management** A multidisciplinary systems-based process encompassing all processes related to blood transfusion to limit and prevent inappropriate or unnecessary transfusions while promoting strategies to reduce the overall transfusion requirements of patients. Also: a multidisciplinary process to apply strategies to avoid or at least minimize a patient’s transfusion needs from the preoperative period through discharge.
- Perfusion** Supplying an organ or tissue with nutrients and oxygen by passing blood or another suitable fluid through it.
- Perioral paresthesia** Tingling around the mouth occasionally experienced by apheresis donors, resulting from the rapid return of citrated plasma, which contains citrate-bound calcium and free citrate.
- Peroxidase** An enzyme that hastens the transfer of oxygen from peroxide to a tissue that requires oxygen; this process is essential to intracellular respiration.
- Phagocytosis** Ingestion of microorganisms, other cells, and foreign particles by a phagocyte.
- Phenotype** The outward expression of genes (e.g., a blood type). On blood cells, serologically demonstrable antigens constitute the phenotype, except those sugar sites that are determined by transferases.
- Phenylthiocarbamide (PTC)** A chemical used in studying medical genetics to detect the presence of a marker gene. About 70% of the population inherits the ability to taste PTC, which tastes bitter; the remaining 30% finds PTC tasteless. The inheritance of this trait is due to a single dominant gene of a pair.
- Phlebotomy** The procedure used to draw blood from a person.
- Phosphoglyceromutase** A red blood cell enzyme.
- Phototherapy** Exposure to sunlight or artificial light for therapeutic purposes.
- Plasma** The liquid portion of whole blood, containing water, electrolytes, glucose, fats, proteins, and gases. Plasma contains all the clotting factors necessary for coagulation but in an inactive form. Once coagulation occurs, the fluid is converted to serum.
- Plasma cell** A B lymphocyte-derived cell that secretes immunoglobulins or antibodies.
- Plasmapheresis** A procedure using a machine to remove only plasma from a donor or patient.
- Plasma protein fraction (PPF)** Also known as Plasmanate; sterile pooled plasma stored as a fluid or freeze-dried and used for volume replacement.
- Plasmid** Bacterial circular genetic element, 2 to 4 kb long, that replicates independently from the chromosome. Used as vectors in recombinant DNA technology to carry up to 15 kb foreign DNA into host cells. A vast selection of plasmids are commercially available that are useful for different purposes, such as DNA sequencing, protein expression in bacteria, and protein expression in mammalian cells.
- Plasminogen** A protein in many tissues and body fluids important in preventing fibrin clot formation.
- Plasmodium** See Malaria.
- Plasmodium knowlesi** A parasite that causes malaria in monkeys.
- Platelet** A round or oval disk, 2 to 4 μm in diameter, that is derived from the cytoplasm of the megakaryocyte, a large cell in the bone marrow. Platelets play an important role in blood coagulation, hemostasis, and blood thrombus formation. When a small vessel is injured, platelets adhere to each other and to the edges of the injury, forming a “plug” that covers the area and initially stops the blood loss.
- Platelet concentrate** Platelets prepared from a single unit of whole blood or plasma and suspended in a specific volume of the original plasma; also known as *random-donor platelets*.
- Plateletpheresis** A procedure using a machine to remove only platelets from a donor or patient.
- Platelet refractoriness** Failure to yield an increase in recipient’s platelet count on transfusion of suitably preserved platelets. HLA alloimmunization is a common cause.
- Point mutation** A change in a base in DNA that can lead to a change in the amino acid incorporated into the polypeptide; identifiable by analysis of the amino acid sequences of the original protein and its mutant offspring.
- Polarity (3' and 5' ends)** Also called DNA “directionality,” determines the direction of DNA replication and transcription. Results from the antiparallel way that the two strands of nucleotides ran in opposite directions. The labels 3' and 5' refer to the number assigned by convention to the deoxyribose carbon atom linked to either hydroxyl or phosphate group in DNA molecule.
- Polyacrylamide gel** A polymer of acrylamide, used as a matrix for gel electrophoresis that provides better resolution than agarose electrophoresis.
- Polyagglutination** A state in which an individual’s red blood cells are agglutinated by all sera, regardless of blood type.

Index

Page numbers followed by f indicate figures; t, tables, b, boxes.

A

- α -3-N-acetylgalactosaminyltransferase, 124
- AABB (American Association of Blood Banks), 3, 257, 282–283, 418, 479
 - standards, 375, 485–486t
 - Standards for Blood Banks and Transfusion Services*, 402, 533–534
 - tissue banking standards, 488, 489t
- A antigen
 - formation of, 123, 125f
 - soluble, formation of, 126–127
- AATB (American Association of Tissue Banks), 477, 485–486t, 488, 490, 490t
- ABC. *See* American Blood Commission (ABC)
- ABH antigens, 186
 - in disease, 135–136
 - formation of, 123, 124f, 125f
 - on red blood cells, comparison of, with A, B, and C soluble substances, 126–127, 127t
 - soluble, formation of, 126
- ABH-soluble substances, 126–127, 127t
- ABO antibodies, 121–122
- ABO blood group system, 57, 78, 119–148
 - Bombay phenotypes, 124b, 134–135
 - B subgroups in, weak, 132–134, 133t
 - case study on, 145
 - discovery of, 2
 - ethnic frequency of blood groups in, 121, 122t
 - forward grouping, 120, 121t, 122t
 - genes for, interaction of *Hh* genes with, 124–125, 126f
 - genotypes and phenotypes of, 123b
 - grouping/typing in
 - forward, ABO discrepancies between reverse grouping and, 143, 143–144t
 - reverse, ABO discrepancies between forward grouping and, 143, 143–144t
 - historical perspective on, 120–121
 - inheritance of, 122–127
 - introduction to, 119–120
 - molecular genetics of, 125
 - phenotype frequencies, 122t
 - reverse grouping, 121t, 122t
 - routine testing, 120–121, 121t
 - subgroups, 127–134
 - A subgroups of, 127–132, 127t, 128f, 129t, 131b
 - weak, 131–132, 131t, 133f
 - ABO discrepancies, 136–145
 - algorithm for resolving, 137b
 - categories of, 136–143
 - caused by acquired B antigen, 139t
 - caused by low-prevalence antibodies in the reagent antisera, 140t
 - caused by rouleaux formation, 140–141, 140t
 - between forward and reverse grouping, 143, 143t–144t
 - group I, 136–138, 138t
 - group II, 139–140, 139t, 140t
 - group III, 140–141, 140t, 141f
 - group IV, 141–142, 141f, 142t
 - groups IV, 142–143
 - resolution of, 136
 - simplified summary of, 145f
 - technical errors, 136, 136b
 - with weak or missing antibodies, 138t
- ABO gene, 125
- ABO grouping
 - of cord blood, 434
 - in pretransfusion testing, 259
 - selection order for transfusion, 260t
- ABO incompatibility
 - HDFN caused by, 428–429, 428t, 430, 431
 - in hematopoietic progenitor cell transplantations, 421–423, 422t, 423t
- ABO isoagglutinin, 141–142, 142t
- ABO truth table, 597f, 597t
- ABO typing
 - cold-reactive autoantibodies and, 444–445
 - warm autoantibodies and, 454
- Absorption, selective, 410–411
- ABTI antigen, 225
- Achromatin, 29
- Acid-citrate-dextrose (ACD) preservative solution, 3, 8t
- Acquired B phenomenon, 135
- Acquired immunity, 47t, 48, 50
- Acrodose PL System, 17
- Activated factor VII (factor VIIa), 348
- Acute hemolytic transfusion reaction (AHTR), 378–379, 378t
- Acute lung injury, transfusion-related, 16b, 368, 380–381, 380b, 381b, 382f, 504, 508
- Acute normovolemic hemodilution (ANH), 293–295
- Adaptive immunity, 47t
- ADCC. *See* Antibody-dependent cell-mediated cytotoxicity (ADCC)
- Additive solutions (AS)
 - in platelet preservation, 15, 16b
 - in red blood cell preservation, 9, 9b, 9t, 10t
 - improved, 11
- Adenine, 32, 33f, 80
- Adenosine deaminase, 88
- Adenosine triphosphate (ATP), 4, 6
- Administrative actions, 582, 583t
- Adsol, 9, 9t
- Adsorption
 - allogenic, 245
 - in antibody identification, 243, 245–246
 - autoadsorption, 245, 246f
 - commercial reagents for, 245
 - differential, 245–246
 - immunoabsorption, 410–411
 - phenotypically matched, 245
 - RBC, 245–246
- Adverse effects
 - of apheresis, 411–412, 412b
 - metabolic effects, 387–388
 - of tissue transplantation, 491–494
- Adverse reactions. *See* Transfusion reactions
- Advisory actions, 582, 583t
- African ethnicity, 156, 156–157t
- Agarose, 84, 85f
- Agglutination, 65
 - in ABO testing, 121–122
 - mixed-field, 455
- Agglutination reactions, 121
 - antigen-antibody ratio and, 66–67
 - antihuman globulin reagents and, 70
 - centrifugation and, 66
 - enhancement media and, 67–68
 - factors influencing, 66–70
 - immunoglobulin type and, 67f
 - low ionic strength solutions and, 68, 70
 - pH effect and, 67
 - polybrene and, 70
 - polyethylene glycol and, 70
 - protein media and, 68
 - proteolytic enzymes and, 70
 - temperature and, 67
- Agglutinogen theory, 151f
- AGT. *See* Antiglobulin test (AGT)
- AHG. *See* Antihuman globulin (AHG)
- AHG reagents, 235
- Alanine aminotransferase (ALT), 308
- Albumin, 112–113, 363, 385
- Aliquots, 345–346, 346b
- Alleles, 26, 125, 175, 500
- Allele-specific probes, 93
- Allergic transfusion reactions (ATRs), 384–385, 384t, 385b, 386f
- Alloantibodies, 46, 63, 142, 142t, 175, 501
 - clinically significant, 233
 - detection and identification of, 457–458, 460t
 - immune, 233
 - naturally occurring, 233
 - optimal phase of reactivity for common, 240t
 - providing compatible blood products in presence of, 248
- Alloantigens, 54
- Alloanti-P, 184

- Allogeneic HPC transplantation, 418–419
- Allogenic adsorption, 245
- Allograft failure, 492
- Alloimmunization, to RBC antigens, 377
- Alloimmunized patients, extensive blood group typing of donors for, 97
- Allosteric changes, 7
- Allotypic variation, 58
- Alphanumeric terminology, 151–152
- ALT. *See* Alanine aminotransferase (ALT)
- Alternative complement pathway, 59–60, 60f
- Alternative procedures, 584
- American Association of Blood Banks (AABB), 3, 257, 282–283, 418, 479
- standards, 375, 402, 533–545
- tissue banking standards, 485–486t, 488, 489t
- American Association of Tissue Banks (AATB), 477, 488, 490, 490t
- tissue banking standards, 485–486t
- American Blood Commission (ABC), 351
- American Rare Donor Program (ARDP), 163
- American Red Cross, blood banks, 3
- American Society for Blood and Marrow Transplantation (ASBMT), 418
- Amino acids, 33
- sequences of, 80
- Aminoacyl tRNA synthetases, 80–81
- Amino terminal, 56
- Amniocentesis, 97, 433
- Amorphic alleles, 175
- Amorphs, 30, 122
- Amplicon, 88
- Amplification techniques, 92–93
- AMR. *See* Antibody-mediated rejection (AMR)
- Anaerobic glycolytic pathways, 6
- Anaphase, 30, 31t
- Anaphylaxis, 72
- Anastomosis, 138
- Anemia
- autoimmune hemolytic, 97, 111t, 441–475
- correction of, 565
- HDFN and, 430, 430t
- iron deficiency, 565
- sickle cell, 80, 97
- Annealing, 80
- Antenatal, 432
- Antibiotics, used in bacterial cloning, 85b
- Antibodies, 46, 50, 51, 52
- See also* Immunoglobulins
- ABO, 121–122
- alloantibodies, 63
- anticomplement, 108
- antigen-antigen reactions, factors affecting, 46b
- anti-IgG, 107–108
- autoantibodies, 63
- blood group, 61–63
- to blood group antigens, 260t
- to compound antigens, 184, 187
- detection and identification, 3, 232–255. *see also* Antibody identification; Antibody screen
- benign cold autoagglutinins and, 446–447
- case studies, 248–252
- direct antiglobulin test and elution techniques, 246–247
- introduction to, 233
- serologic systems used in, 68t
- tube method of, 233–235
- warm autoantibodies and, 455
- in disease, 135–136
- to high-prevalence antigen, 249, 249f
- against HLA, 501–502
- immune, 62
- incomplete, 104
- to low-prevalence antigen, 250, 250f
- monoclonal, 61–62
- multiple, 248–249
- naturally occurring, 62
- passively acquired, 233
- polyclonal, 61–62
- primary, 71
- primary and secondary responses, 52, 53f
- as probes for proteins, 93
- properties, 63–64
- required in AHG, 107–108
- summary of characteristics, 205t
- unexpected, 62–63, 233
- Antibody-dependent cell-mediated cytotoxicity (ADCC), 60
- Antibody identification
- See also* Antibody screen
- adsorption in, 243, 245–246, 246f
- alterations in pH and, 246
- enzymes in, 241–242, 243t
- evaluation of panel results in, 238–241
- exclusion in, 238
- neutralization in, 242–243, 243t, 244f
- patient history in, 237–238
- reagents in, 238
- selected cell panels in, 241, 242f
- techniques for resolving, 241–246
- Antibody identification panel, 238, 238f, 239f
- Antibody-mediated rejection (AMR), 501, 505
- Antibody screen
- See also* Antibody identification
- interpretation of results, 236
- limitations of, 236–237
- other methods for, 236
- in pretransfusion testing, 259–260
- results with possible causes, 237f
- tube method of, 233–235, 234f
- Antibody titration, 247–248, 432
- titer and score of anti-D, 247t
- Anticoagulant preservative solutions
- chemicals in, 9t
- in red blood cell preservation, 8, 8t, 9t
- Anticoagulants, 2
- Anticoagulation, 398
- Anticodons, 81
- Anticomplement antibodies, 108
- Anticomplement reagents, 105
- Anti-C^w, 164–165
- Anti-D, 165
- Anti-Fy^a, 198
- Anti-Fy^b, 198
- Antigen-antibody ratio, 66–67
- Antigen-antibody reactions, 50
- characteristics of, 63–65
- detection of RBC, 65
- factors affecting, 46b
- types of, 64f
- Antigenic determinants, 50
- Antigen-presenting cells (APCs), 52
- Antigens, 46, 50
- ABH, 123, 124f, 125f, 126–127, 135–136
- antithetical, 50
- blood group, 62b
- characteristics of, 61, 61b
- compound, 165
- high-prevalence, 175
- pseudoantigens, 135
- specificity of, 50, 51
- Antiglobulin crossmatch, 261–262
- Antiglobulin test (AGT), 103–118, 141
- case studies, 115–116
- direct, 104, 109–112, 110f, 110t, 161, 163–164
- factors affecting, 112–114
- history of, 104
- indirect, 104, 112, 112t
- introduction to, 104
- modified and automated techniques, 114–115
- principles of, 109
- reaction mediums, 112–113
- sources of error in, 114, 114b
- Anti-H, 448–449
- Anti-H antiserum, 130f
- Anti-HBc, 308
- Antihemophilic factor, cryoprecipitated, 342, 343b, 358t
- Anti-H lectin, 130f
- Antihuman globulin (AHG), 104
- addition of, in antiglobulin test, 113
- antibodies required in, 107–108
- comparison of methodologies, 115, 115t
- monoclonal, 106–107
- monospecific, 107, 108–109
- polyclonal, 106f
- polyspecific, 105–106, 108–109
- preparation of, 105–107, 106f, 107f
- Antihuman globulin (AHG) reagents, 70, 104–105
- FDA licensed, 105t
- monospecific, 105, 105t
- polyspecific, 104–105, 105t
- Antihuman globulin (AHG) test, 110f
- Antihuman serum, 104
- Anti-I, 185–186, 448
- Anti-i, 186, 448
- Anti-IgG, 105, 107–108
- Anti-IH, 448–449
- Anti-Jk3, 201
- Anti-Jk^a and Jk^b, 200
- Anti-K, 194
- Anti-Ku, 195
- Anti-Lu3, 204
- Anti-Lu^a, 202–203
- Anti-Lu^b, 203
- Anti-M, 190
- Anti-N, 190
- Anti-PI, 183
- Antiparallel, 32
- Antipenicillin antibody, 463–464

- Anti-PP1P^k, 184
 Anti-S, 190–191
 Anti-s, 190–191
 Antithetical antigens, 50
 Antithrombin III concentrates, 350–351, 363
 AnWj antigen, 224
 Apheresis, 3, 15, 396–416
 adverse effects of, 411–412, 412b
 case study of, 412–413
 centrifugation methods in, 399–401, 399f, 400f
 component collection in, 402–405
 donation, 296–297
 donor, 397
 erythrocytapheresis, 397, 409
 granulocytes, 357t
 history and development of, 397
 HPC, 419
 instruments used for, 403t
 introduction to, 396–397
 leukapheresis, 397, 409
 membrane filtration in, 401–402
 methodology, 399–402
 photophesis, 411
 physiology of, 398
 plasma, 341
 plasmapheresis, 397, 408–409, 408b, 409–410, 410–411
 plateletpheresis, 397, 409
 procedure types and application, 397t
 special procedures in, 410–411
 technology, 397
 therapeutic, 397, 405–410, 406–407t
 Apparent opposite homozygosity, 522
 Application software, 593, 594–599
 Appraisal costs, 546
 ARDP. *See* American Rare Donor Program (ARDP)
 Arterioocyte, 11
 Artificial oxygen carriers, 12–13, 12b, 13t
 ASBMT. *See* American Society for Blood and Marrow Transplantation (ASBMT)
 Aseptic technique, 298
 Asian ethnicity, 156
 Assessments, 542–543
 A subgroups
 in ABO blood group system, 127–132, 127t, 128f, 129t, 131b
 weak, 131–132, 131t, 133f
 ATRs. *See* Allergic transfusion reactions (ATRs)
 Audits, 542–543, 544f
 Augustine blood group system, 221
 Autoadsorption, 245, 246f
 Autoagglutinins, 442
 See also Autoantibodies
 Autoantibodies, 46, 63, 201, 233, 462
 characterization of, 442–443
 cold-reactive, 250, 251f, 443–452, 447t, 448t
 definition of, 442
 evaluation of, 455–457
 formation of, 466–467
 warm, 251–252, 453–462. *See also* Warm autoantibodies
 Auto control, 137–138
 Autoimmune diseases, 73
 Autoimmune hemolytic anemia(s) (AIHAs), 441–475, 453f
 antibody characteristics in, 468t
 autoantibodies in, 442–462
 blood group typing of patients with, 97
 case studies of, 468–471
 comparison of warm and cold, 463t
 DAT-negative, 462
 drug-induced, 462–468
 idiopathic cold, 449–450, 450b, 450f
 introduction to, 442
 mixed-type autoantibodies, 462
 paroxysmal cold hemoglobinuria, 451–452, 453t
 positive DAT and, 111t
 secondary cold, 451
 warm, 453–462
 Autologous blood/red blood cell recovery techniques, 565–566
 Autologous donation, 292–295
 acute normovolemic hemodilution and, 293–295
 intraoperative collection, 295
 permission form, 294f
 postoperative blood salvage, 295
 preoperative collection, 293, 565–566
 Autologous HPC transplantation, 418–419
 Autologous tissue, 482–485
 implantation of, 484–485
 label requirements for, 484b
 preparation of, 483–484
 sterilization and testing of, 484
 storage of, 484
 Autologous transfusion, 10, 365, 366f
 Automated fluorescent cycle sequencing method, 90, 90f
 Autonomy, 613
 Autosomal inheritance, 28–29, 28f, 29t
 Autosomal-recessive pattern, 80
 Autosomal recessive traits, 123
 Avidity, 63–64
- B**
 β-2-mercaptoethanol (2-ME), 57, 70
Babesia microti, 322–323
 Babesiosis, 290–291, 322–323
 tests for, 327t
 BacT/ALERT, 17, 18t
 Bacterial artificial chromosomes (BACs), 86
 Bacterial cloning, antibiotics used in, 85b
 Bacterial contamination
 clinical manifestations and pathology, 320–321
 epidemiology and transmission, 321
 infection from, 320–322
 laboratory diagnosis, 321
 overview of, 320
 platelet storage and, 16–17
 prophylaxis and treatment, 321
 Bacterial infections, transfusion-transmitted, 389–390
 Bacteriophages, 80
 B antigen
 formation of, 123
 soluble, formation of, 126–127
 Barcoded information, 592, 592f
 Basophils, 53
 Battery, 609
 Baxter/Fenwal Amicus, 400f
 Beneficence, 613
 Beta globin chain, 80
 Bidirectional ABO incompatibility, 138–139
 Bilirubin, 430–431
 Biochemical barriers, 48
 Biological product manufacturing
 additional requirements of, 585–586
 contract, 584–585
 current good manufacturing practice regulations, 583–584
 enforcement actions and, 582–583, 583t
 FDA inspection process for, 581–582
 regulation of, 575–581
 short supply arrangements, 585
 Biologics (biological products)
 definition of, 577, 577t
 deviation reporting, 585, 585t
 drugs compared with, 577t
 manufacturing. *See* Biological product manufacturing
 recalls of, 585–586
 registration and licensure of, 579–580
 regulatory process for, 576–578
 Biologics Cadre, 581
 Biologics Control Act, 575
 Biology, systems, 94–95
 BioMerieux BacT/ALERT, 17, 18t
 Bio-Rad Erytype S Blood Group System, 275f
 Bio-Rad Solidscreen II, 276f
 Biotechnology, 78
 Bite cells, 4, 5f
 Blood
 administration of, 368–369, 368f
 demand for, 3
 donation. *See* Blood donation establishments handling, registration of, 579, 579t
 transfusion. *See* Transfusion(s)
 umbilical cord, 141, 419, 434
 whole. *See* Whole blood
 Blood banking
 blood group systems and, 204
 clinical effects of prolonged, 388t
 lectins used in, 129b
 as medical profession, 610
 RBC storage legion, 388t
 serologic testing for, diseases important in, 71–73, 72b
 Blood banks
 current status of, 3
 first, 3
 laboratory information systems in, 590–606
 quality management in, 531–551
 virtual, 602, 603f
 Blood bank testing technologies, 268–280, 277–278t
 Bio-Rad solid-phase protein A technology, 274–276, 275f, 277–278t
 column agglutination technology, 268–271, 277f
 comparison of, 276–279, 277–278t
 equipment in, 276
 introduction to, 268–269
 quality control and, 278

- sensitivity and specificity of, 278–279
 solid-phase technology, 272–274
 test reactions and procedures, 276
- Blood collection
 arm preparation methods, 298b
 aseptic technique for, 298
 donor identification in, 297–298
 donor reactions to, 299
 procedure for, 298, 298b
- Blood components, 357–358t
See also Blood products; *specific components*
 cellular, 325
 characteristics of, 343–344t
 CMV-negative, 364
 collection, by apheresis, 402–405
 irradiated, 342, 344, 364–365
 issuance of, 598
 labeling of, 351–352, 351f
 leukocyte-reduced cellular, 364
 management of, 595–596, 596f
 plasma derivatives, 348–351
 pooling, 346
 preparation of, 333–354
 centrifuges in, 334, 334b
 documentation of manufacturing steps, 334
 introduction to, 334
 laboratory equipment for, 334
 plasma expressors in, 334, 335f
 plasma freezers in, 335
 scales in, 334–335
 sterile connection devices in, 335
 storage devices in, 335
 tubing sealers in, 335
 regulations pertaining to, 577, 578b
 reservation, 598
 washing, 344–345
- Blood donation
 current status of, 3–4
 donor screening tests, 4t
 process, 3–4, 3b
- Blood donors. *See* Donor(s)
- Blood drives, 3
- Blood establishment computer software (BECS), 575
- Blood facilities, registration and licensure of, 579–581, 579t
- Blood group antibodies, characteristics of, 61–63
- Blood Group Antigen Gene Mutation Data Base (BGMUT), 95
- Blood group antigens, 62b
- Blood group-specific soluble substances (BGSS), 135–136, 140
- Blood group systems, 78, 96t, 173–211
 ABO, 2, 78, 119–148
 antibodies, summary of characteristics, 205t
 antithrombin III concentrates, 363
 applications to routine blood banking, 204, 225
 Augustine, 221
 case studies, 206–207, 226–227
 CD59, 221
 Chido, 36
 Chido/Rodgers, 216–217
 Colton, 215
 Cromer, 217–218
 Diego, 213–214
 discovery of, 3
 Dombrock, 215
 Duffy, 197–201
 Erytype S¹⁰, 275
 FORS, 220
 genetic basis of, 95
 Gerbich, 217, 217t
 Gill, 219
 Globoside, 182–185
 I, 185–187, 185t, 186f, 187t
 Indian, 218
 introduction to, 175
 ISBT, 176–178, 177–178t, 179t, 221–223, 221t
 ISBT 700 series, 223–224, 223t
 ISBT 901 series, 224–225, 224t
 John Milton Hagen, 219
 JR, 220
 Kell, 176t, 193–197, 193–194t, 195t, 196f, 197t
 Kidd, 29, 176t, 199–201, 200f, 200t
 Knops, 218
 LAN, 220
 Landsteiner Wiener, 166–167
 Landsteiner-Wiener, 216, 216t
 Lewis, 176t, 178–182, 179t
 Lutheran, 201–204, 202t, 203f, 203t, 204t
 MNS, 176t, 187–193
 Ok, 218
 P, 182–185, 182t, 183f
 P1Pk, 182–185
 parentage testing and, 518
 polymorphisms
 determining population frequency of, 97
 molecular basis of, 95
 Raph, 218–219
 Rh, 149–172
 Rh-associated glycoprotein, 219–220
 Rodgers, 36
 Scianna, 215
 screening for rare phenotypes, 97
 terminology, 175–178, 176t
 uncommon, 212–231
 Vel, 220–221
 with antibodies that exhibit dosage, 235b
 Xg, 214–215
 Yt, 214
- Blood group typing
 of donors for alloimmunized patients, 97
 of patients with autoimmune hemolytic anemia and other diseases, 97
- Blood loss, minimizing iatrogenic, 567
- Blood management. *See* Patient blood management (PBM)
- Blood order sets, 559–560, 559f
- Blood pharming, 11–12
- Blood preservation research, research, 2
- Blood products
See also Blood components; *specific blood products*
 albumin, 363
 cryoprecipitate, 362
 factor IX concentrates, 362b, 363
 factor VIIa concentrates, 362b
 factor VIII concentrates, 362–363, 362b
 frozen, deglycerolized RBCs, 359
 granulocyte pheresis, 361
 immune globulin, 363–364
 leukocyte-reduced RBCs, 359, 359t
 manufacturing and quality control, 335–348
 aliquots, 345–346, 346b
 cryo-poor plasma, 342
 cyroprecipitated antihemophilic factor, 342, 343b
 frozen, deglycerolized RBCs, 347–348
 granulocyte concentrates, 342
 irradiation, 342, 344
 leukoreduction, 339–341
 plasma, 341–342
 platelets, 337–339
 pooling, 346
 red blood cells, 336–337
 washing, 344–345
 whole blood, 335–336, 337b
 plasma, 361–362
 platelets, 359–361, 360b
 providing compatible, when
 alloantibody is present, 248
 red blood cells, 356, 359
 rejuvenated RBCs, 359
 thawed plasma, cryoprecipitate reduced, 361–362
 in transfusion therapy, 356–364
 whole blood, 356
- Blood shield statutes, 608
- Blood utilization management (BUM), 552–573
See also Patient blood management (PBM)
- Blood utilization review, 560–563, 599
 concurrent review, 562
 feedback, 563
 intervention strategies, 563–564
 prospective review, 562–563
 retrospective review, 561–562
 review criteria, 560–561
- Blood volume, extracorporeal, 408
- Blunt end cloning, 85
- B lymphocytes (B cells), 50–51, 53–54
- Bombay phenotypes, 134–135, 134b
- Bone marrow, 52t, 53, 419
- Boundary testing, 602
- Bromelin, 70
- Bromophenol blue dye, 85
- B subgroups
 in ABO blood group system, weak, 132–134, 133t
- Bw4, 500t
- Bw6, 500t
- C**
- Calculated PRA (cPRA), 506
- Calmodulin, 5
- Cancer
 treatments, 35
 viral causes of, 81
- C antigen, 163
- Capillary electrophoresis, 90, 520
- Carboxyl terminal, 56
- Carriers, 80

- Cascade, 59
Case law, 608
CAT. *See* Column agglutination technology (CAT)
Caucasian MPG, 156t–157t
CCI. *See* Corrected count increment (CCI)
CD3 complex, 54
CD34-positive cells, 52
CD59 blood group system, 221
CDC. *See* Complement-dependent cytotoxicity (CDC)
CDRs. *See* Complementary determining regions (CDRs)
Cefotetan-induced hemolysis, 464–465
Cell control, 137–138
Cell division, 30, 31–32, 32t
Cells
bite, 4, 5f
host, 86
immune system, 50–52
lineages and markers, 52–54
ratio of serum to, 112
Cellular components, 325
Cellular genetics, 29–32
cell division cycle, 31–32
meiosis, 30–31
mitosis, 30, 32
terminology, 29–30
Cellular immunity, 50
Cellular loss, in apheresis, 398
Cellular mechanisms, 46
Cellular therapy, 417–426
See also Hematopoietic progenitor cell (HPC) transplantation
viral testing requirements for, 420, 420b
Center for Biologics Evaluation and Research (CBER), 578
Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), 575
Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services (CMS), 256–257, 575, 580
Central dogma, of molecular biology, 37, 78, 81
Central processing unit (CPU), 591
Central system unit, 591
Centrifugation, 66, 114, 336b
continuous flow, 400–401, 400f
intermittent flow, 399, 399f
methods of, 399–401
Centrifuges, 334, 334b
Cephalosporins, 464, 466
CFC. *See* Continuous flow centrifugation
CGMP. *See* Current good manufacturing practice (CGMP)
Chagas disease, 290–291, 323
screening donor blood for, 303
tests for, 326t
Chain termination method, 90
Chargaff's rules, 79
Charitable immunity, doctrine
of, 611–612
Chase, Martha, 79
CHD. *See* Cold hemagglutinin disease
Chemokines, 54
Chido/Rodgers blood group system, 36, 216–217
Chikungunya virus (CHIKV), 319–320
Chimera, 64
Chimerism, 138, 138t
Chorionic villus sampling, 97
Chromatin, 29, 32
Chromosomes
bacterial artificial, 86
cell division and, 30
definition of, 29
number of, 29
structure of, 32
Chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL), 135
Circulatory overload, 3
transfusion-associated, 381–383, 382t, 383f
Cis-AB inheritance, 142–143, 143f
Citrate-phosphate-dextrose-adenine preservative solution, 3, 8t
Citrate-phosphate-double-dextrose preservative solution, 8t
Citrate toxicity, 387, 387b, 411–412
Classical complement pathway, 59, 60f
Classic genetics, 25
Classic systems, 516
Clinical Laboratory Improvement Amendments of 1988 (CLIA'88), 256, 608
Clinically significant alloantibodies, 233
Clinically significant antibodies, 57
Cloned genes, expression of, 88
Cloning
bacterial, 85b
DNA, 83–87
molecular, 81, 83
Clotting, 2
Clotting factor concentrates, 290
Clusters of differentiation (CD), 50
CMS. *See* Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services (CMS)
CMV-negative cellular blood components, 364
Coagulation factor deficiencies, 367–368
COBE Spectra, 400f
Code of Federal Regulations (CFR), 282, 402, 485, 487–488, 575
Codominant alleles, 175
Codominant inheritance, 25
Codons, 33, 81
start, 33
stop, 33
Cold agglutinin disease, 141f
Cold autoantibodies, 142t, 250, 251f, 443–452, 447t, 448t
ABO typing and, 444–445
antibody detection and identification and, 446–447
benign, 444–449, 444t, 445t
characteristics of, 444t
compatibility testing and, 447
laboratory tests affected by, 444
other, 449
pathological, 444t, 445t, 449–452
related to infection, 451
RhD typing, 445–446
specificity of, 447–448
typical reactions of, 187t
Cold hemagglutinin disease (CHD), 449–452, 450b, 450f, 453t
Collection 210 (unnamed), 222
College of American Pathologists (CAP), 16, 283, 479
standards, 375
Colloids, 68
Colloid solutions, 350b
Colony-stimulating factor (CSF), 54
Colton blood group system, 215
Column agglutination technology (CAT), 268–272, 269f, 270f, 271f
advantages and disadvantages, 271
applications of, 269
automation of, 271–272
history of, 269
introduction to, 269
principle of, 269–271
procedural steps of, 277f
Commonly used abbreviations, 575b
Compatibility tests, 259–260
See also Pretransfusion testing
cold-reactive autoantibodies and, 447
Competent bacteria, 86
Complementarity, 80
Complementary determining regions (CDRs), 58
Complementary DNA (cDNA), 81
Complement components, 46
Complement-dependent cytotoxicity (CDC), 504–505
Complements
activation of, 108
antibodies capable of binding, 108t
Complement system, 48, 59–61, 60f
alternative complement pathway, 59–60
binding of complement by RBC antibodies, 61
classical complement pathway, 59
lectin complement pathway, 60
membrane attack complex, 60–61
Complex branched chains, 129
Compliance inspections, 532
Compliance programs, 532
Component manufacturing
laboratory, 334
Components. *See* Blood components
Component therapy, 3
Compound antigens, 165
antibodies to, 184, 187
Computer crossmatch, 262–263, 263f
Computer downtime, 600
Computerized physician order entry (CPOE), 560, 611
Computer systems. *See* Laboratory information systems
Concurrent blood utilization review, 562
Conformance costs, 546–547
Constant region, 56
Continual improvement, 543
Continuous flow centrifugation (CFC), 400–401, 400f
Continuous improvement, 568–569
Continuous noninvasive hemoglobin monitoring, 565–566
Contract manufacturing, 584–585
Convulsions, in severe donor reactions, 299
Coombs' serum, 235
Coombs' test, 103–118, 141
Cord blood samples, 141
Cord blood testing, 434
Cordocentesis, 97, 433
Corrected count increment (CCI), 15

- Corrective action, 543–544
 Corticosteroids, for WAIHA, 460
 Cosmids, 86
 Cost collection 205, 222
 Cost of conformance, 546–547
 Cost of good quality (COGQ), 546–547
 Cost of poor quality (COPQ), 546
 Crawford antigen, 166
 Creutzfeldt-Jacob disease (CJD), 289–290, 290t, 324
 Crick, Francis, 32
 Cromer blood group system, 217–218
 Crossmatch tests, 261–262
 computer, 262–263, 263f
 serologic, 261–262
 virtual, 507
 Crossover, 501
 Cross-reactive groups (CREGs), 502, 502f
 Cross reactivity, 502
 Cruz-Gregurek model, 554, 555f
 Cryoprecipitate, 362
 Crystalloids, 68, 350b
 Current good manufacturing practice (CGMP), 375, 488, 537, 575, 583–584
 Cut and patch repair, 35
 C^w antigen, 164–165
 Cycle sequencing method, 90
 Cryo-poor plasma, 342
 Cryoprecipitate
 compatibility testing and, 261
 pooled, 346, 358t
 Cryoprecipitated antihemophilic factor, 342, 343b, 358t
 Cryoprecipitation, 3
 Cryoprotective agents, 10
 Cytokines, 48, 49t–50t, 54
 Cytomegalovirus, 318
 Cytomegalovirus (CMV), 364, 421
 Cytosine, 32, 33f, 80
- D**
- Damages, 609
 Dane particle, 310f
 D antigen, 158, 158t
 expression of variations of, 159–161, 159f, 160f
 partial or D mosaic, 159f, 160, 160f
 Darwin, Charles, 25
 DAT. *See* Direct antiglobulin test (DAT)
 Data archiving, 600
 Databases, 593, 593f
 DAT-negative autoimmune hemolytic anemia, 462
 DCE terminology, 150–151, 151f
 Decision support, 560
 Defendant, 609
 Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA), 11
 Define, measure, analyze, improve, control (DMAIC), 544–545, 545f
 Degeneration, 81
 Deglycerolization, 10–11, 348b
 D_{el}, 159
 Delayed hemolytic transfusion reaction (DHTR), 379–380
 Delayed serologic transfusion reaction (DSTR), 379–380
 Deletions, 166
 Denaturation, 80
 Dendritic cells, 51
 Dengue virus (DENV), 320
 Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), 25, 29, 32–37, 78
 See also DNA entries
 amplification techniques, 92–93
 cloning tools, 83–87
 complementary, 81
 as genetic material, 78–81
 hybridization, 32
 isolation, 36–37
 junk, 36
 melting point, 80
 microarrays, 91–92
 mitochondrial, 522
 mutations, 35–36, 36t, 37f
 profiling, 94
 recombinant, 81–90
 repair, 34–35, 35b
 replication, 34, 80
 sequencing, 90, 90f, 93–94
 structure of, 32–33, 33f, 79–80
 viral, 81
 Deoxyribonucleoside triphosphates (dNTPs), 80
 Department of Health and Human Services (DHHS), 575
 D epitopes on RhCE protein, 160–161, 161f
 DG Gel 8, 269, 271
 DHTR. *See* Delayed hemolytic and serologic transfusion reaction (DHTR)
 Dideoxyribonucleoside triphosphates (ddNTPs), 90
 Diego blood group system, 213–214
 Dielectric constant, 68
 Di(ethylhexyl)-phthalate (DEHP), 8
 Differential adsorption, 245–246
 Differentiated cells, 54
 DIIHA. *See* Drug-induced immune hemolytic anemia (DIIHA)
 Dimers, 35
 Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), 19
 2,3-Diphosphoglycerate, 6–7
 Diploids, 26
 Direct antiglobulin test (DAT), 63, 104, 109–112, 110f, 110t, 111t, 163–164, 268, 442
 in antibody detection and identification, 246–247
 benign cold autoagglutinins and, 446
 of cord blood, 434
 DAT panel, 109, 110t, 111
 evaluation of positive, 111–112
 organic solvent methods, 247
 pH method, 247
 in pregnancy, 161
 principle and application, 109
 temperature-dependent methods, 247
 warm autoantibodies and, 455
 Direct bilirubin, 430
 Direct Coombs' test, 63
 Directed donation, 295–296, 296f, 612
 Direct exclusion, 522
 Discontinuous prospective review, 563
 Disease, ABH antigens and antibodies in, 135–136
 Disseminated intravascular coagulation (DIC), 368
 Disulfide bonding, 56
 Dithiothreitol (DTT), 57, 70
 DMAIC (defined, measure, analyze, improve, control), 544–545, 545f
 DNA. *See* Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA)
 DNA polymerase III, 80
 DNA polymorphisms, 516, 519, 523
 DNA sequence-based typing (SBT), 503–504
 DNA typing, 93–94
 Doctrine of charitable immunity, 611–612
 Doctrine of informed consent, 609
 Documentation, of blood component manufacturing, 334
 Document control system, 540, 540f
 Documents, 539–540
 Domains, of immunoglobulins, 56
 Dombrock blood group system, 215
 Donath-Landsteiner test, 451, 452t
 Donation facility software, 594–596
 Donor apheresis, 397
 Donor management, 594–595
 Donor release form, 292f
 Donor rights, 609
 Donor(s)
 for alloimmunized patients, extensive blood group typing of, 97
 arm preparation methods, 298b
 autologous, 292–295
 deferral of, 286b, 287f
 HPC, 419–420
 identification of, 297–298
 informed consent by, 402
 minimum age for, 283t
 postdonation instructions for, 299, 302f
 processing of, 299, 301–303
 reactions of, to blood collection, 299
 records of, 299, 303f
 recruitment of, 595
 registration of, 594–595
 Rh testing requirements for, 162
 screening, 612
 screening, for rare blood group phenotypes, 97
 suitability of, 595
 testing for disease, 307–308
 Donor selection and screening, 281–306
 agencies governing, 282–283
 apheresis donation and, 296–297
 autologous donation and, 292–295
 case studies, 303–304
 directed donation and, 295–296
 informed consent in, 292, 292f
 introduction to, 282
 medical history questionnaire in, 283–284, 284–285f
 medical history questions in, 285–291
 physical examination in, 291–292
 registration in, 283
 for tissue banking, 487–488
 whole blood collection and, 297–299
 Donor-specific anti-HLA antibodies (DSA), 504
 Donor units
 ABO/Rh testing, 299, 301
 antibody screening of, 301

- HBV screening of, 301
 issuance of, 264
 processing of, 299, 301–303
 screening of, 301–303
 selection of, 260–261
 testing, 260
 Dosage effect, 66
 Dot blotting, 93
 Double RBC apheresis, 297
 Drug-adsorption (hapten) mechanism, 463–465, 464f, 464t
 Drug-dependent mechanism, 465
 Drug-induced immune hemolytic anemia (DIIHA), 442, 462–468
 autoantibody formation in, 466–467
 hapten mechanism in, 463–465, 464f, 464t
 immune complex mechanism in, 465, 465f
 mechanisms leading to development of, 467t
 membrane modification in, 466, 466f, 466t
 serologic reactions with, 466t
 treatment of, 467–468
 Drugs, biologics compared with, 577t
 DSTYR. *See* Delayed serologic transfusion reaction (DSTR)
 Duffy antigen group, 54
 Duffy blood group system, 197–201
 biochemistry of, 198
 common phenotypes, 198t
 genetics of, 198–199
 Dynamic files, 593
 Dyspnea, transfusion-associated, 383
- E**
- eBDS, 17, 18t
 Ebola virus, 303, 320
 Education, in utilization management, 567–568
 Effector cells, 51
 Ehrlichiosis, 322
 Electrophoresis
 definition of, 84
 gel, 84–85
 Electrostatic forces, 63
 Elution techniques, 246–247, 434
 Emergency transfusions, 365–366
 Emergent transfusions, 263
 Emm antigen, 224
 Emotional distress, intentional infliction of, 610
 En(a-) phenotype, 192
 Enhancement media, agglutination reactions and, 67–68
 Enhancement reagents, 235
 Enzyme immunoassay (EIA), 65
 Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA), 65
 Enzymes, 78
 in antibody identification, 241–242, 243t
 parentage testing and, 518
 proteolytic, 70, 241–242, 243t
 recombinant, 88
 Eosinophils, 53
 Epitopes, 50, 125
 Epstein-Barr virus (EBV), 318
 Er collection 208, 222
 Erythroblastosis, 430
 Erythrocytes. *See* Red blood cells (RBCs)
 Erythrocytopenia, 397, 409
 Erythropoiesis, 430
 Erytype S¹⁰ blood group system, 275
 Ethics, 613, 613b
 Ethidium bromide, 85
 Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA), 65
 Euchromatin, 29
 Eukaryotic organisms, 29
 E variants, 166
 Exchange transfusion, 434–435
 Excision repair, 35
 Exons, 82f, 83
 Expression libraries, 87
 External assessments, 543
 External inspections, 543
 Extracorporeal blood volume (EBV), 408
 Eye Bank Association of America (EBAA), 485t–486t, 491
- F**
- f (ce) antigen, 165
 FACS. *See* Fluorescence-assisted cell sorting (FACS)
 FACT. *See* Foundation for Accreditation for Cellular Therapy (FACT)
 Factor IX concentrates, 349, 362b, 363, 367
 Factor VIIa concentrates, 362b
 Factor VIII concentrates, 348–349, 362–363, 362b, 367
 Factor XIII concentrates, 349
 Failure modes and effects analysis (FMEA), 547–549
 Fainting, 412
 Familial hypercholesterolemia, 411
 Fatal hemolytic transfusion reactions, 120b, 120t
 Fatalities
 from apheresis, 412
 reporting, 586
 transfusion-related, 586t
 FDA. *See* Food and Drug Administration (FDA)
 FDA Amendments Act (FDAAA), 576
 Febrile nonhemolytic transfusion reaction (FNHTR), 383–384
 Federal Food, Drug, and Cosmetic (FD&C) Act, 575–576, 578, 579
 Federal laws, on tissue banking, 485, 487–488
Federal Register, 578
 Federal regulatory requirements, 574–589
 current good manufacturing practice regulations, 583–584
 enforcement actions and, 582–583
 history of, 575–576
 introduction to, 575
 registration and licensure, 579–581
 regulatory process and, 576–578
 Fetal DNA typing, 95, 97
 Fetal ultrasound, 433, 433f
 Fetomaternal hemorrhage, 429
 FFP. *See* Fresh-frozen plasma (FFP)
 Fibrinogen, 3, 362
 Ficin, 70
- Fingerprinting, DNA, 94
 Fisher-Race nomenclature, 150–151, 151f, 151t, 154t, 155t
 Flowcharts, 538, 539f
 Flow cytometric crossmatch, 505
 Flow cytometry, 54, 71, 505–506, 505f
 Fluid replacement, 409–410
 Fluid shifts, in apheresis, 398
 Fluorescence-assisted cell sorting (FACS), 71
 Fluorescent in situ hybridization, 92
 Fluosol, 13
 FMEA. *See* Failure modes and effects analysis (FMEA)
 FNHTR. *See* Febrile nonhemolytic transfusion reaction (FNHTR)
 Food and Drug Administration (FDA), 256, 308, 575
 Code of Federal Regulations, 402
 donor selection and, 282
 enforcement actions and, 583t
 enforcement actions of, 582–583
 information system regulations, 599
 inspection process of, 581–582
 labeling regulations, 351–352
 qualification of tissue vendors and, 481–482
 recalls, 493–494, 494b, 585–586
 role of, 576
 summary of fatalities issued by, 374
 transfusion safety and, 576
 Food and Drug Administration
 Modernization Act (FDAMA), 576
 Food and Drug Administration
 Safety and Innovation Act (FDASIA), 576
 Forms, 540
 FORS blood group system, 220
 Forward and reverse primers, 88–89, 89f
 Forward grouping, 120, 121t
 ABO discrepancies between reverse grouping and, 143, 143–144t
 Foundation for Accreditation for Cellular Therapy (FACT), 418
 Frameshift mutations, 36
 Franklin, Rosalind, 79
 Freezing
 platelets, 19
 of red blood cells, 10–11, 11t
 Fresenius AS-104, 401f
 Fresh-frozen plasma (FFP), 341, 358t, 361–362, 410
 FRET probes, 92
 Frozen, deglycerolized RBCs, 347–348, 359
 Fucosyltransferase, 124
 Functional affinity, 63
 Fy3 antigen and antibody, 199
 Fy5 antigen and antibody, 199
 Fy^a and Fy^b antigens, 198
 Fy^x, 199
- G**
- Galactose, 127
 Gametes, 29, 30–31
 Gamma globulin fraction, 135
 G antigen, 165
 Gatekeeping, 563–564
 Gel electrophoresis, 84–85, 85f

- Gel test, 115, 115t
 CAT, 268–271, 270f
- Gene array technology, 25
- Gene chips, 91–92
- Gene expression, 78
- Gene polymorphism, techniques for studying, 93–94
- General system applications, 598–599
- Genes, 29, 78
 cloning, 83–87, 86f, 87f
 coding sequence of, 83
 expression of cloned, 88
 hybrid, 160
 silent, 30
- Gene therapy, 88
- Genetic code, 33, 33f, 78, 80–81
- Genetic information, expression of, 80–81
- Genetics
 basic, 24–44
 cellular, 29–32
 classic, 25
 future role of, 41
 Hardy-Weinberg formulas, 24–25, 27b
 Hardy-Weinberg principle, 27–28
 immune system, 54–55
 inheritance patterns, 28–29, 28f
 introduction to, 24–25
 Mendelian, 24–25, 25–27, 26f, 27f, 122
 molecular, 32–41. *See also* Molecular genetics
 population, 25–29
 reverse, 94
 Rh blood group system, 154–157, 155f
 techniques in modern, 40–41
- Genome, 29
- Genotypes, 29–30, 175
- Genotyping
 red blood cell, 94–97
 clinical applications of, 95, 97–98
- Gerbich blood group system, 217, 217t
- Gill blood group system, 219
- Globoside blood group system, 182–185
- Gluboside collection, 222
- Glucose, as preservative solution, 2–3
- Glycans, 123, 125
- Glycerol, 10
 high-concentration vs. low-concentration technique, 10t
 removal of, 10–11
- Glycophorin A (GPA), 189–190, 190f, 191
- Glycophorin B (GPB), 189–190, 190f, 191
- Glycoprotein-soluble substances, 127
- Glycosylation, 40
- Glycosyltransferases, 123, 124t, 175
- Government agencies, regulating donor selection, 282–283
- GPA. *See* Glycophorin A (GPA)
- GPB. *See* Glycophorin B (GPB)
- Graft-versus-host disease (GVHD), 364–365, 385–387, 386f, 405, 418–419, 421
- Graft-versus-host reactions, 72
- Granulocyte pheresis, 361
- Granulocytes, 52, 53
 collection, by apheresis, 404–405
 concentrates, 342
- Griffith's transformation, 78–79, 78f
- Growth factors, 52
- Guanine, 32, 33f, 80
- Guanine triphosphate (GTP), 39
- Guidance documents, 578
- Guideline for the Uniform Labeling of Blood and Blood Components*, 351
- GVHD. *See* Graft-versus-host disease (GVHD)
- H**
- H-active antigenic structures, 130f
- Haemonetics Centrifuge Bowl, 399f
- Haemonetics eBDS, 17, 18t
- Haemonetics MCS Plus, 399f
- H antigen
 formation of, 123, 124f
 soluble, formation of, 126–127
- Haploid number, 30
- Haplotype, 501
- Hapten mechanism, in drug-induced immune hemolytic anemia, 463–465, 464f, 464t
- Haptens, 61
- Hardware, 591–592, 591f
- Hardy-Weinberg formulas, 24–25, 27b
- Hardy-Weinberg principle, 27–28
- HBOCs. *See* Hemoglobin-based oxygen carriers (HBOCs)
- HBV testing, 301
- HDFN. *See* Hemolytic disease of the fetus and newborn (HDFN)
- Health Care Financing Administration (HCFA), 580
- Health Information Technology for Economic and Clinical Health (HITECH) Act, 608, 611
- Health Insurance Portability and Accessibility Act (HIPAA), 608, 611
- Heart transplantation, 510
- Heat-shock proteins, 40
- Helix structure, of DNA, 79–80
- Hemagglutination, 65
- HemAssist, 12, 13t
- Hematomas, 299
- Hematopoiesis, 135
- Hematopoietic growth factors, 410
- Hematopoietic progenitor cell (HPC)
 transplantation, 417–426
 ABO-incompatible, 421–423, 422t, 423t
 accrediting bodies for, 418
 allogeneic, 418–419
 autologous, 418–419
 case study on, 424
 clinical uses of, 418–421
 complications of, 418–419
 donor considerations, 419–420
 introduction to, 418
 overview of, 418
 passenger lymphocyte syndrome, 423
 platelet refractoriness, 423
 processing and storage in, 420–421
 Rh incompatible, 423
 special transfusion requirements in, 421–423
 syngeneic, 418
 transfusion-associated graft-versus-host disease and, 421
 transfusion-transmitted infectious diseases and, 421
- Hematopoietic progenitor cells (HPCs), 410
 processing and storage of, 420–421
 sources of, 419
- Hematopoietic stem cells (HSCs), 11, 13, 478, 508–509
- Hematopoietic stem cell transplantation, 508–509
- Hemizygous, 30
- Hemoglobin-based oxygen carriers (HBOCs), 12, 12b, 13t
- Hemoglobinemia, 378t, 379
- Hemoglobin-oxygen dissociation curve, 6–7, 7f
- Hemoglobinuria, 379–380, 391, 443, 449
 paroxysmal cold, 184, 451–452, 453t
- HemoLink, 13t
- Hemolysis, 65–66, 378t, 430
- Hemolytic anemia, autoimmune. *See* Autoimmune hemolytic anemia(s) (AIHAs)
- Hemolytic disease of the fetus and newborn (HDFN), 57, 64, 73, 164, 233, 427–440
 bilirubin and, 430–431
 case studies of, 436–437
 caused by ABO, 428–429, 428t, 430, 431
 caused by RBC alloimmunization, 429–430, 431–433
 diagnosis of, 431–433, 431f
 ABO, RhD, and antibody screen, 431–432
 antibody identification, 432
 antibody titers, 432
 fetal DNA testing, 433
 fetal ultrasound, 433, 433f
 paternal phenotype and genotype, 432–433
 postnatal, 431
 etiology of, 428
 hemolysis, anemia, and erythropoiesis and, 430, 430t
 introduction to, 427–428
 management of
 amniocentesis in, 433
 cord blood testing in, 434
 cordocentesis in, 433
 exchange transfusion in, 434–435
 fetal ultrasound in, 433
 in fetus, 433–434
 in infant, 434–435
 intrauterine transfusion in, 433–434
 intravenous immune globulin in, 435
 phototherapy in, 435
 simple transfusion in, 435
 pathogenesis of, 428–431, 429f
 positive DAT and, 111t
 prevention of, 435–436
 RhD, 428t
- Hemolytic transfusion reaction (HTR), 368
 acute, 378–379, 378t
 delayed, 379–380
- Hemophilia V, 367
- Hemopure, 12, 13t
- Hemostasis, optimization of, 566
- HemoTech, 13t
- Hepatitis, 290
 diagnostic tests for, 311t
 transfusion-associated, 308–313

- Hepatitis A, transfusion-associated, 308–309, 309t, 311t
- Hepatitis B
tests for, 326t
transfusion-associated, 308t, 309–310, 309t, 311t, 312f
- Hepatitis C, 301
tests for, 326t
transfusion-associated, 308t, 310, 311t, 312
- Hepatitis D, transfusion-associated, 311t, 312
- Hepatitis E, transfusion-associated, 311t, 312
- Hepatitis G, transfusion-associated, 313
- Hereditary spherocytosis (HS), 78
- Hershey, Alfred, 79
- Hershey-Chase phase experiment, 79, 79f
- Heterochromatin, 29
- Heterogeneous RNA (hRNA), 82f, 83
- Heterozygous inheritance, 234, 235f, 235t
- Hh* genes, interaction of ABO
and, 124–125, 126f
- High-concentration glycerol technique, 10, 10t
- High-prevalence antigens, 175
- High-protein anti-D reagents, 161–162
- High responders, 54–55
- HIPAA. *See* Health Insurance Portability and Accessibility Act (HIPAA)
- HIPAA Privacy Rule, 611
- HIPAA Security rule, 611
- Histocompatibility testing technique, 503–507
HLA antibody detection techniques, 504
HLA genotyping, 503–505, 503f
microlymphocytotoxicity, 504–507, 504f
- Histones, 29, 32
- HIV. *See* Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)
- HIV-1 Group 0 risk, 291, 291b
- HLA. *See* Human leukocyte antigens (HLA)
- HLA alleles, associated through disequilibrium, 502t
- HLA antibodies, detection techniques, 504
- HLA antigens, on RBCs, 225
- HLA genetic region, 500–501
- HLA genetics, 500–501, 500f
- HLA genotyping, 503–505, 503f
- HLA haplotype, 501, 501f
- HLA serologic specificities, 499t, 500t
- HLA system, 497–514
clinical significance of, 507–510
disease associations, 507–508, 507t
heart and lung transplantation, 510
hematopoietic stem cell transplantation, 508–509
kidney transplantation, 509–510
liver transplantation, 510
pancreas and islet cell transplantation, 510
paternity testing, 507
platelet transfusion, 508
transfusion-related acute lung injury, 508
United Network for Organ Sharing, 510
genetics, 500–501, 500f
introduction to, 497–498
nomenclature, 498–500, 500f
parentage testing and, 518–519
- Hodgkin's disease, 135
- Homozygous inheritance, 234, 235f, 235t
- Hospital tissue banks, 477–481
See also Tissue banking
acquisition of allografts and inventory
by, 479–480
common tissues in, 478
function of, 476, 477
introduction to, 476–477
oversight of, 479
record-keeping and traceability in, 480–481
standard operating procedure (SOP)
checklist, 480b
storage in, 480
- Hospital transfusion committee, 369–370
- Host cells, 86
- Host factors, 64, 64b
- HPA. *See* Hybridization protection assay (HPA)
- HPC-apheresis (HPC-A), 419, 419b
- HPC-cord blood (HPC-C), 419, 419b
- HPC-marrow (HPC-M), 419, 419b
- HPCs. *See* Hematopoietic progenitor cells (HPCs)
- HSCs. *See* Hematopoietic stem cells (HSCs)
- HTR. *See* Hemolytic transfusion reaction (HTR)
- Human genome, 93
- Human Genome Project, 87
- Human herpesvirus 6 (HHV-6), 319
- Human herpesvirus 8 (HHV-8), 319
- Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), 81, 290
blood safety and, 12
screening donor blood for, 302
tests for, 326t
transfusion-associated, 308t
types 1 and 2, 313–314, 313f, 313t
- Human leukocyte antigens (HLA), 51, 55, 78, 418
antibodies against, 501–502
function of, 498, 498f
nomenclature, 498–500, 500f
testing, 497–498
- Human T-cell lymphotropic virus (HTLV)
screening donor blood for, 302
transfusion-associated, 308t
- Human T-cell lymphotropic viruses
types I/II (HTLV-I/II), 314–315, 316f, 326t
- Humoral immunity, 50
- Humoral mechanisms, 46
- Hybrid formation, 36
- Hybrid genes, 160
- Hybridization, 32
- Hybridization-based assays, 80
- Hybridization protection assay (HPA), 92
- Hydrogen bonding, 56, 63, 79, 79–80
- Hydrophilic bonds, 63
- Hydrophobic bonds, 63
- Hyperkalemia, 387, 387b
- Hypersensitivity, 72
- Hypervariable regions, 58
- Hypocalcemia, 387, 387b
- Hypogammaglobulinemia, 135
- Hypotensive transfusion reactions, 383
- Hypovolemia, 412
- I**
- I antigen, 185–187, 185t, 186f
- i antigen, 185–187, 185t, 186f
- IAT. *See* Indirect antiglobulin test (IAT)
- Iatrogenic blood loss, 567
- I blood group system, 185–187, 185t, 186f, 187t
biochemistry and genetics of, 186
disease associations, 187
- Idiopathic cold AIHA, 449–450
- Idiotypic regions, 56
- Idiotypic variation, 58
- ID-MTS gel, 269, 271
- IgA deficiency, allergic transfusion reactions and, 385b
- IgG. *See* Immunoglobulin G (IgG)
- IgM. *See* Immunoglobulin M (IgM)
- Immediate hypersensitivity, 72
- Immediate spin crossmatch, 261
- solid-phase red cell adherence (SPRCA), 273–274, 274f
- Immune alloantibodies, 233
- Immune antibodies, 62
- Immune complex mechanism, 465, 465f
- Immune globulin, 363–364
- Immune hemolytic anemia, 442
See also Autoimmune hemolytic anemia(s) (AIHAs); Drug-induced immune hemolytic anemia (DIIHA)
- Immune response
antigens, 61
host factors, 64, 64b
innate, 46–48
tolerance and, 64–65
traditional laboratory testing methods, 65–66
- Immune serum globulin, 349
- Immune suppression, 73
- Immune system
antigen-antibody reactions, 63–65
blood group antibodies, 61–63
blood product transfusions and, 73
cells and organs of, 50–54
cellular and humoral components
of, 47t
complement system, 59–61
cytokines, 54
genetics, 54–55
major mechanisms of, 47t
maturation, 52
overview of, 46–48
- Immunetics BacTX, 18t
- Immunity
acquired or adaptive, 47t, 48, 50
cellular, 50
definition of, 46
humoral, 50
innate or natural, 47t, 48
- Immunoabsorption, 410–411
- Immunoblotting, 93
- Immunodeficiency, 71–72
- Immunodeficiency diseases, 135
- Immunodominant sugars, 124t
- Immunofluorescence (IF), 65
- Immunogen, 61, 104

- Immunoglobulin Fc receptors, 59
 Immunoglobulin G (IgG), 52, 104
 agglutination reactions and, 67–68
 chemical reduction of, 70
 domain structure of, 56, 57f
 subclasses, 57–58, 58t
 Immunoglobulin M (IgM), 52, 57, 57f, 104
 agglutination reactions and, 67–68
 chemical reduction of, 70
 Immunoglobulins, 46, 50
 See also Antibodies
 characteristics of, 55–59, 55t
 significant for blood banking, 56–58
 structure of, 55–56, 56f, 57f
 type of, agglutination reactions and, 67
 variations, 58
 Immunohematology, 58, 78, 82–83t, 92
 Immunology
 fundamentals of, 45–76
 introduction to, 46
 self vs. nonself concept in, 46
 Immunomodulatory effects, of
 transfusion, 388–389
 Immunoregulatory molecules, 54
 Immunosuppressive drugs, for
 WAIHA, 460
 Incomplete antibodies, 104
 Incubation time, AGT and, 113
 Indian blood group system, 218
 Indirect antiglobulin test (IAT), 104, 110f, 112, 112t
 polyspecific vs. monospecific AHG in, 108–109
 Indirect bilirubin, 430
 Indirect exclusion, 522
 Individual quality control plan (IQCP), 535f
 Infection, tissue transplantation and, 492
 Infectious transfusion reactions, 389–390
 Inflammation, innate immunity and, 48
 Information management, 540
 Information processing, 590
 Information storage hardware, 592
 Information systems. *See* Laboratory information systems
 Informed consent, 292, 292f, 402, 609, 613
 Ingram, Vernon, 80
 Inheritance
 of ABO blood groups, 122–127
 autosomal-recessive, 80
 cis-AB, 142–143, 143f
 codominant, 25
 genes and, 29–30
 Mendel's laws of, 24–25, 25–27, 26f, 27f, 78
 patterns, 28–29, 28f, 29t
 Initiation factor IF2, 39
 In(Jk) allele, 201
 Injunctions, 582, 583t
 Innate immunity, 46–48, 47t, 48
 Innocent bystander mechanism, 465
 Innocent VII, 2
 Input/output devices, 592
 Inspection process, FDA, 581–582
 Intentional infliction of emotional distress, 610
 Intentional tort of battery, 609
 INTERCEPT Blood System, 18, 339
 Interface software, 593–594
 Interferon (IFN), 54
 Interleukin (IL), 54
 Intermittent flow centrifugation, 399, 399f
 Intermolecular binding forces, 63
 Internal and external failure costs, 546
 Internal assessments, 542–543
 Internal audits, 542–543, 544f
 International Council for Commonality in Blood Banking Automation (ICCBBA), 351
 International Society for Cellular Therapy (ISCT), 418
 International Society of Blood Transfusion (ISBT), 95, 175
 700 series, 223–224, 223t
 901 series, 224–225, 224t
 blood group collections of, 221–223, 221t
 Committee on Terminology for Red Cell Surface Antigens, 152, 154
 labeling regulations, 351
 Interphase, 30, 31t
 Intraoperative collection, 295
 Intrauterine transfusions, 264, 433–434
 Intravenous immune globulin (IVIG), 385, 435
 Introns, 82f, 83
 Invalid test cases, 602
 Invasion of privacy, 610–611
 Ionic cloud concept, 69f
 Iron deficiency anemia, 565
 Irradiated cellular blood components, 364–365
 Irradiation, 342, 344
 ISBT. *See* International Society of Blood Transfusion (ISBT)
 ISBT blood group system, 176–178, 177–178t, 179t
 Islet cell transplantation, 510
 Isoagglutinins, 62, 135
 Isotype, 56
 Isotype variation, 58
 Isotypic class, 55
 I^T antibody, 187
 I^T antigen, 187
 IV immunoglobulins, for WAIHA, 460
- J**
 JACIE, 418
 Jk^a antigen, 199–200
 Jk(a–b–) phenotype, 201
 Jk allele, 201
 Jk^b antigen, 199–200
 John Milton Hagen blood group system, 219
 Joint Commission, 476
 HCT/P-related standards of, 485–486t
 tissue banking standards, 490–491
 JR blood group system, 220
 Js^a and Js^b antigens, 194
 Judicial actions, 582–583, 583t
 Junk DNA, 36
 Justice, in transfusion medicine, 613
- K**
 K and k antigens, 193–194
 Karyotype, 30
 Kell antibodies, 194–195
 Kell blood group system, 176t, 193–197
 antibodies, 194–195
 antigens, 193–195, 193–194t, 197, 197t
 autoantibodies, 197
 biochemistry of, 195
 common phenotypes, 194t
 genetics of, 195
 McLeod phenotype and syndrome and, 195–196
 Kidd blood group system, 29, 176t, 199–201, 200f, 200t
 Kidney transplantation, 509–510
 Kleihauer-Betke test, 436
 Knockout transgenic animals, 94
 Knops blood group system, 218
 K_o phenotype, 195
 Kp^a antigen, 194
 Kp^b antigen, 194
 Kp^c antigen, 194
 Kx antigen, 195
 Kx system, 193–197
- L**
 Laboratory information systems
 acronyms for, 591t
 backups of, 600
 in blood banks, 590–606
 blood bank software applications, 594–599
 computer downtime and, 600
 error management in, 601
 future trends for, 602
 hardware maintenance and, 600
 introduction to, 590–591
 personnel training for, 601
 regulatory and accreditation requirements for, 599–600
 security maintenance and, 600–601
 software validation, 601–602
 system components, 591–594
 hardware, 591–592, 591f
 people, 594
 software, 592–594
 system management, 600–602
 types of, 591
 virtual blood banks and, 602, 603f
 Laboratory testing
 flow cytometry, 54, 71
 nontraditional, 71
 traditional methods, 65–66
 Lambda vectors, 86
 LAN blood group system, 220
 Landsteiner-Wiener blood group system, 166–167, 216, 216t
 Large granular lymphocytes, 54
 Latency period, of immune response, 52
 Lattice-type structure, 65, 66f
 Laws, 577
 See also Medicolegal issues in transfusion medicine
 case, 608
 sources of, 608
 LEAN approach, 545–546, 550
 Lectin complement pathway, 60
 Lectins, used in blood banking, 129b
 Legal issues, in transfusion medicine, 607–616
 Leishmaniasis, 290
 Leukapheresis, 297, 397, 409

- Leukemia, 135
 serologic reactions typical of, 139t
- Leukocyte-reduced cellular blood components, 364
- Leukocyte-reduced RBCs, 359, 359t, 364
- Leukocytes, 48
- Leukoreduction, 339–341
- Level 2 guidance documents, 578
- Level I guidance documents, 578
- Lewis antibodies, 180
- Lewis antigens, 179–180, 180t, 181f
 development of, 181–182
- Lewis blood group system, 176t, 178–182
 antibodies, 180
 antigens, 179–180, 180t, 181–182, 181f
 genetics and biosynthesis, 180–181, 180f
 phenotypes of, 179t
- Lewis's substances, 244f
- L-fucose, 124
- Liability
 basis of, 608–611
 HIPAA and, 611
 strict, 610
- License suspension/revocation, 582, 583t
- Licensure, 579–580
- Li collection 207, 222
- Ligands, 7
- Ligases, 83
- LightCycler, 92
- Linkage disequilibrium, 501
- Linnaeus, Carolus, 25
- LISS. *See* Low ionic strength solutions (LISS)
- LISS-tube testing, 115t
- Liver transplantation, 510
- Lock and key mechanism, 50
- Locus, 29, 175
- Long-term memory, 592
- Look-back, 325–326
- Low-concentration glycerol technique, 10, 10t
- Low ionic strength solutions (LISS), 68, 70, 113
- Low-melting-point agarose, 85
- Low responders, 54–55
- Lu^a antigen, 202
- Lu(a–b–)phenotypes, 203–204, 204t
- Lu^b antigen, 202
- Luebering-Rapaport shunt, 6
- Luke (LKE) antigen, 184–185
- Luminometer, 92
- Lung transplantation, 510
- Lutheran blood group system, 201–204, 202t, 203f, 204t
- Lyme disease, 322
- Lymph nodes, 52t
- Lymphocytes, 50–51, 53–54
- Lymphocytic cells, 53
- Lymphocytotoxicity, 504–507
- Lymphoid lineage, 52–53
- Lymphoid organs, 52, 52t
- Lymphokines, 50, 54
- Lysis, 119
- M**
- MAC. *See* Membrane attack complex (MAC)
- Macrophages, factors affecting activity of, 454b
- Major ABO incompatibility, 138
- Major histocompatibility complex (MHC), 51–52, 55, 500
- Malaria, 289, 289f, 323–324
- Malignancy, tissue transplantation and, 492
- MAM antigen, 225
- Management assistance software, 599
- Mandatory standards, 610
- M antigen, 189
- Manufacturers, 576–577
See also Biological product manufacturing
 registration and licensure of, 579–581
 regulatory oversight of, 576–577, 581t
- Massive transfusions, 263–264, 366, 366t
- Maternal factors, in HDFN, 429
- McLeod phenotype and syndrome, 195–196
- Medical devices, 586
- Medical history questionnaire, for donors, 283–284, 284–285f
- Medical history questions, for donors, 285–291
- Medical laboratories, quality management system for, 546, 546f
- Medical malpractice, 613
- Medication deferral list, 286, 287f
- Medicolegal issues in transfusion medicine, 607–616
 case studies, 614–615
 current, 607–608
 emerging issues in, 613
 ethics and, 613, 613b
 HIPAA and, 611
 introduction to, 607
 liability as, torts as basis of, 608–611
 restrictions on plaintiff suits and recovery as, 611–612
 risk management as, 612–613
 sources of law on, 608
- Meiosis, 30–31, 31f, 31t
- Melting curve analysis, 92
- Melting point (T_m), 80
- Membrane attack complex (MAC), 60–61
- Membrane filtration, 401–402
- Membrane modification, 466
- Memory cells, 52
- Mendel, Gregor, 25
- Mendelian genetics, 122
- Mendel's laws of inheritance, 24–25, 25–27, 26f, 27f, 78
- Messenger RNA (mRNA), 33, 38, 80, 81
- Metabolic effects, adverse, to transfusion, 387–388
- Metabolic pathways, of RBCs, 5–7
- Metaphase, 30, 31t
- Methemoglobin reductase pathway, 6
- MHC. *See* Major histocompatibility complex (MHC)
- MHC class I, 51–52
- MHC class II, 51–52
- Microarrays, DNA polymerase III, 91–92
- Microlymphocytotoxicity, 504–507, 504f, 518–519
- Micro-RNA, 38
- Microsatellites, 94
- Middle cerebral artery peak systolic velocity (MCA-PSV), 433, 433f
- Miniprep, 86
- Minisatellites, 94
- Minor ABO incompatibility, 138
- Mismatch repair, 34–35
- Missense point mutations, 36
- Mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA), 522
- Mitomycin C, 35
- Mitosis, 30, 30f, 31t, 32
- Mixed-field, 132
- Mixed-field agglutination, 135, 455
- Mixed-type autoantibodies, 462
- M^k phenotype, 192
- Mn CHO collection 213, 222–223
- MNS antigens
 M and N, 189
 S and s, 189–190
 summary of, 188t–189t
- MNS blood group system, 176t, 187–193
 antigens, summary of, 188t–189t
 anti-M, 190
 anti-N, 190
 anti-S and anti-s, 190–191
 autoantibodies in, 193
 biochemistry of, 191
 disease associations, 193
 genetics of, 191, 191f, 192f
 GPA- and GPB-phenotypes, 191–192
 other antibodies in, 192–193
 prevalence of common MN and Ss phenotypes, 188t
- Molecular beacons, 92
- Molecular biology
 advances in, 41, 94–95
 central dogma of, 78, 81
 concepts in, 77–101
 introduction to, 78
 systems biology, 94–95
- Molecular cloning, 81, 83
- Molecular diagnostics, 78
- Molecular genetics, 32–41
See also Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA); Genetics
 of ABO, 125
 deoxyribonucleic acid, 32–37
 ribonucleic acid, 37–40
- Molecular immunohematology, 82–83t
- Molecular techniques, features relevant to, 79–80
- Monoclonal AHG production, 106–107, 107f
- Monoclonal antibodies, 61–62
- Monoclonal anti-D (MAb-D), 160
- Monoclonal gammopathies, 72–73
- Monoclonal reagents, 70–71
- Monocytes, 53
- Monokines, 54
- Mononuclear phagocytic system (MPS), 52, 53
- Monospecific antiglobulin reagents, 443
- Monospecific antihuman globulin, 70
 in IAT, 108–109
- Monospecific antihuman globulin reagents, 105, 105t, 107
- Most probable genotypes, 156–157, 156t, 156–157t
- MP4OX Hemospan, 13t
- M phase, 32
- MPS. *See* Mononuclear phagocytic system (MPS)
- Mucosa-associated tissues, 52t
- Multiplex assay, 92

- Multiplex single-antigen bead immunoassay (SAB), 506–507, 506f
- Mutagens, 35
- Mutations
DNA, 35–36, 36t, 37f
duplications, 36
frameshift, 36
missense point, 36
nonsense, 36
transversions, 36
- Myeloid lineage, 52–53
- N**
- N-acetyl-D-galactosamine (GalNAc) sugar, 124, 128
- NANEX technology, 11
- N antigen, 189
- National Blood Collection and Utilization Survey (NBCUS), 3
- National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI), 93
- National Institutes of Health (NIH), 41, 575
- Natural immunity, 47t
- Natural killer (NK) cells, 48, 51
- Naturally occurring alloantibodies, 233
- Naturally occurring antibodies, 62
- Natural selection, 25
- Negligence, 609–610
- Neonatal transfusions, 264, 366–367, 367b
- Neutralization, in antibody identification, 242–243, 243t, 244f
- Neutrophils, 53
- NIH. *See* National Institutes of Health (NIH)
- Nonagglutinating antibodies, 104
- Nonconformance costs, 546
- Nonconformance management, 541–542, 541t, 542f
- Nonsel, 46
- Nonsense mutations, 36
- Normal serum albumin (NSA), 350
- Normal testing, 602
- Northern blotting technique, 91
- NSA. *See* Normal serum albumin (NSA)
- Nucleic acids, 32, 78
detection of, 91–93
hybridization, 91–92
- Nucleic acid testing (NAT), 92–93
- Nucleosomes, 32
- Nucleotides, 79–80
- Nutricel, 9, 9t
- O**
- Obstetric patients, Rh testing requirements for, 162
- Office of Blood Research and Review (OBRR), 578
- Okazaki fragments, 34
- Ok blood group system, 218
- Oligo-dT nucleotides, 83
- Oligonucleotides, 87
- Oligosaccharide chain, 124
- Oncology, transfusion in, 367
- On the Origin of Species* (Darwin), 25
- Operating system software, 593
- Opsinins, 48
- Opsonization, 48
- Optisol, 9, 9t
- Ordinary standard of care, 609–610
- Origin of replication, 85
- Ortho Gel Matrix, 270f
- O type RBCs, formation of, 11
- Oxyglobin, 13t
- P**
- P1 antibody, 184
- P1 antigen, 183, 184
- PIPk blood group system, 182–185
- Packed RBCs, 3
- PAGE. *See* Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE)
- Palindromic sequences, 83
- Pancreas transplantation, 510
- Panel-reactive antibody (PRA), 505
- Pan Genera Detection (PGD) test, 17
- Papain, 56, 70
- Para-Bombay phenotypes, 135
- Paragloboside, 123
- Parentage index (PI), 523
- Parentage testing, 515–530
accreditation and quality issues in, 527
advantages and disadvantages of genetic systems in, 526–527
case studies, 528
classical systems in, 518–519, 522
criteria for selection of genetic systems in, 517
DNA polymorphisms and, 519, 523
genetic systems and technology used in, 517–522, 517b, 518f, 518t
goals of, 517
history of, 516–517
HLA system and, 518–519
inclusionary calculations, 523–526
introduction to, 515–516
nonclassic situations, 526
RFLP analysis, 519–520, 519f, 520t
single nucleotide polymorphisms, 522
social and legal issues in, 527
STR analysis, 520–522, 521f
terminology and interpretation of results, 522–523
- Paroxysmal cold hemoglobinuria (PCH), 184, 451–452, 453t
- Partial-D antigens, 159f, 160, 160f
- Parvovirus B19, 319
- PAS-C (Intersol), 15
- PAS-F (Isoplate), 15
- Passenger lymphocyte syndrome, 423
- Passively acquired antibodies, 233
- PASSPORT study, 339
- Paternity, 507
See also Parentage testing
- Paternity index, 524–525
- Pathogen inactivation (PI), 18, 325
- Pathogens, procedures to reduce and inactivate, 11
- Pathological cold autoagglutinins, 449–452
- Patient blood management (PBM), 264, 552–573
blood order sets, 559–560, 559f
case studies, 569
continuous improvement in, 568–569
decision support and computerized order entry, 560
education, 567–568
goals of, 552t
intervention strategies, 563–564, 564f
introduction to, 552–555
key players in, 556–559, 556t
transfusion committee, 557
transfusion guidelines, 557–559, 558t
transfusion safety officer, 556–557
patient-focused care and, 564–567
tools, 552t
utilization auditing and review, 560–563
- Patient-focused care, 564–567
- Patient history, in antibody identification, 237–238
- Patient management, 596–597
- Patient testing, 597–598
- Pauling, Linus, 80
- P blood group, 182–185, 182t, 183f
biochemistry of, 183
disease associations, 185
genetics of, 183–184
- PBM. *See* Patient blood management (PBM)
- PCH. *See* Paroxysmal cold hemoglobinuria (PCH)
- Pedigree analysis, 28
- Peer review, 479
- PEG-tube testing, 115t
- PEL antigen, 225
- Penicillin-induced hemolysis, 463–464
- Pentose phosphate pathway, 6
- Peptide bond synthesis, 40, 40f
- Peptides, 39
- Perfluorocarbons, 12–13, 14t
- Peripheral devices, 591
- Peripheral proteins, 4
- Perlmuter v. Beth David Hospital*, 608
- Personalized medicine, 41, 264
- pH, agglutination reactions and, 67
- Phagocytic cells, 48, 53
- Phagocytosis, 48, 53
- Pharmacogenomics, 41
- Phenotypes, 29–30, 175
writing, 175–176
- Phenotypically matched adsorption, 245
- Photopheresis, 411
- Photoreactivation, 35
- Phototherapy, 435
- Physical barriers, 48
- Physical examination, of donors, 291–292
- Plaintiffs, 608
restrictions on plaintiff suits and recovery, 611–612
- Plasma, 3, 357t
apheresis, 341
collection, by apheresis, 403–404
compatibility testing and, 261
cryo-poor, 342
fresh-frozen, 341, 358t, 361–362, 410
manufacturing and quality control, 341–342
PF24, 358t, 361–362
PF24RT24, 358t
pooled, 346
preparation of, from whole blood, 338b
thawed, 358t, 361–362
in transfusion therapy, 361–362

- Plasma cells, 51
- Plasma derivatives, 325, 348–351, 357t–358t
- activated factor VII, 348
 - adverse reactions to, 385
 - antithrombin III concentrates, 350–351
 - factor IX concentrates, 349
 - factor VIII concentrates, 348–349
 - factor XIII concentrates, 349
 - immune serum globulin, 349
 - normal serum albumin, 350
 - plasma protein factor, 350
 - Rh₀(D) immune globulin, 350
 - synthetic volume expanders, 350
- Plasma expressors, 334, 335f
- Plasma freezers, 335
- Plasmapheresis, 296–297, 397, 408–409, 408b, 409–410, 410–411
- Plasma protein factor, 350
- Plasma protein interactions, 412
- Plasmids
- in DNA cloning, 85–86
 - isolation of, 86–87
- Plasmodium* species, 323–324
- Plastic storage bags, 15b
- Platelet functional disorders, 368
- Plateletpheresis, 296, 359–361, 397, 409
- Platelet refractoriness, 423
- Platelets, 3, 357t
- clinical use of, 15
 - collection, by apheresis, 404
 - compatibility testing and, 261
 - frozen, 19
 - manufacturing and quality control, 337–339
 - pathogen reduction in, 18–19
 - performance criteria for concentrate collections, 16t
 - pooled, 346
 - preparation of, from whole blood, 338b
 - preservation of, 14–19
 - additive solutions, 16b
 - refractoriness to transfusion and alloimmunization, 387
 - screening for bacterial contamination, 17, 17b, 18t
 - storage lesion, 14–15, 15t
 - substitutes, 19
 - testing and quality control monitoring, 15–16
 - in transfusion therapy, 359–361, 360b, 508
 - uses of, 14
 - viability and functional properties of stored, 16
 - in vitro assays, 15b
- Platelet swirl, 14, 16
- PMNs. *See* Polymorphonuclear cells (PMNs)
- Polarity, 79
- Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE), 520
- Poly-A tail, 83
- Polybrene, 70
- Polyclonal AHG production, 105–106, 106f
- Polyclonal antibodies, 61–62
- Polyclonal gammopathies, 72–73
- Polyclonal reagents, 70–71
- Polyethylene glycol (PEG), 70, 113
- PolyHeme, 12, 13t
- Polylinkers, 85
- Polymerase chain reaction (PCR), 25, 80, 517
- allele-specific probes and, 93
 - in DNA replication, 88–90, 89f
 - real-time, 92
 - reverse transcriptase, 92
 - sequence-specific, 93
- Polymorphonuclear cells (PMNs), 52
- Polyspecific antiglobulin reagents, 443
- Polyspecific antihuman globulin, 70, 106f
- in IAT, 108–109
 - preparation of, 105–106
- Polyspecific antihuman globulin reagents, 104–105, 105t
- Pooling, blood components, 346
- Population genetics, 25–29
- Porcine factor VIII, 349
- Postdonation instructions, 299, 302f
- Posterior probability of parentage or relatedness, 525–526
- Postoperative blood salvage, 295
- Post-transfusion purpura (PTP), 387
- Postzone effect, 66
- Potassium toxicity, 387, 387b
- Potentiators, 69t
- PRA. *See* Panel-reactive antibody (PRA)
- Precipitation reaction, 65
- Precision medicine, 41
- Predictive modeling, 567
- Pregnancy
- Rh antibodies in, 161
 - Rh testing requirements for, 162
- Pre-mRNA, 82f, 83
- Preoperative collection, 293
- Prescription Drug and Device User Fee programs, 576
- Preseroconversion, 52, 92–93
- Preservation
- early research on, 2–3
 - of platelets, 14–19
 - at 1°C to 6°C, new approaches to, 19
 - additive solutions, 15
 - bacterial contamination and, 16–17, 17b, 18t
 - current trends and research, 19
 - freezing, 19
 - pathogen reduction and, 18–19
 - viability and functional properties of stored platelets, 16
 - of red blood cells, 7–12
 - additive solutions, 9, 10t
 - anticoagulant preservative solutions, 8, 8t, 9t
 - current trends and research, 11–14
 - freezing, 10–11, 11t
 - rejuvenation, 11
- Preservative solutions, development of, 2–3
- Prestorage pooled WBD platelets, 17
- Presurgical autologous blood donation (PAD), 565–566
- Pretransfusion testing, 256–267
- ABO grouping in, 259
 - antibody screening in, 259–260
 - case studies, 264–265
 - causes of positive, 262–263t
 - compatibility tests, 259–260
 - crossmatch tests, 261–262
 - donor unit selection in, 260–261
 - introduction to, 256
 - issuance of blood components and, 264
 - platelets, thawed plasma, and cryoprecipitate, 261
 - recipient testing in, 259–260
 - regulatory and accreditation requirements for, 256–257
 - review of records for, 259
 - Rh testing requirements for, 162
 - Rh typing in, 259
 - special circumstances in, 263–264
 - specimen collection in, 257–259
 - steps in, 257t
- Preventive action, 543–544
- Primary antibodies, 71
- Primers, 34
- Printers, 592
- Prion disease, 324
- Privacy
- HIPAA Privacy Rule, 611
 - invasion of, 610–611
- Probability of exclusion (PE), 523, 526
- Probability of paternity (PP), 523, 525–526
- Process, 537
- Process control, 537, 538–539, 538f, 599t
- Process improvement, 543–546
- LEAN, 545–546, 550
 - Six Sigma, 544–545
- Processing hardware, 591–592
- Product recalls, 585–586
- Proenzymes, 48
- Professional standard of care, 610
- Proficiency testing, 538, 543
- Profiling, DNA, 94
- Progenitor cells, 478
- Prokaryotic organisms, 29
- Prophase, 30, 31t
- Prosecution, 582–583, 583t
- Prospective blood utilization review, 562–563
- Protein media, agglutination reactions and, 68
- Proteins, 80
- antibodies as probes for, 93
 - detection of, 91–93
 - heat-shock, 40
 - parentage testing and, 518
 - peripheral, 4
 - recombinant, 88, 88b
 - transmembrane, 157, 157f
- Protein synthesis, 40, 40f
- Proteolytic enzymes, 70, 241–242, 243t
- Provirus, 81
- Prozone effect, 66
- Pseudoantigens, 135
- Pseudo-B antigen, 139
- Pseudogenes, 36
- Public Health Service Act, 575, 578, 579
- Purines, 32, 33f
- PX2 antigen, 185
- Pyrimidines, 32, 33f
- ## Q
- Quality
- cost of, 546–547
 - foundation of, 532–534
 - in relationship testing, 527

- Quality assessment, 533
 Quality assurance, 533, 598–599
 Quality control (QC), 532–533, 532f, 583–584
 blood bank testing and, 278
 blood product manufacturing and, 335–348
 for deglycerolization, 348b
 platelets, 15–16
 in tissue banking, 481
 Quality control plan (QCP), 533
 Quality management
 in blood bank, 531–551
 vs. compliance, 532
 introduction to, 532
 structure of, 532–534, 532f
 Quality management system, 533–546, 536f
 case studies, 547–549
 documents and records, 540f
 essentials for, 534–543, 536b
 assessments, 542–543
 continual improvement, 543
 customer focus, 535
 documents and records, 539–540
 equipment, 537
 facilities and safety, 536
 information management, 540
 organization, 534–535
 personnel, 536–537, 537b
 process management, 537–539
 purchasing and inventory, 537
 importance of, 547
 for medical laboratories, 546, 546f
 nonconformance management, 541–542
 process improvement and, 543–546
 Quality reviews, 584
 Quality system essentials (QES), 533–534, 534b
 Quarantine, 325–326
- R**
- Radio frequency identification (RFID), 602
 Random access memory (RAM), 591
 Random hexamers, 83
 Raph blood group system, 218–219
 RBC reagents, 234–235
 RBCs. *See* Red blood cells (RBCs)
 Reaction mediums, for AGT, 112–113
 Read-only memory (ROM), 591
 Reagents
 See also specific types
 for adsorption, 245
 in antibody identification, 238
 enhancement, 235
 monoclonal vs. polyclonal, 70–71
 RBC, 234–235
 Rh typing, 161–162
 saline reactive, 161
 Real-time PCR, 92
 Recalls, 493–494, 494b, 585–586
 Recessive traits, 28
 Recipient tracing, 325–326
 Recombinant DNA, 81–90
 in clinical use, 88
 libraries, 87
 Recombinant enzymes, 88
 Recombinant factor VIII, 349
 Recombinant proteins, 88, 88b
 Recombination repair, 35
 Reconstituted whole blood, 346
 Records, 539–540
 Records management, 540
 Red blood cell agglutination, 65
 Red blood cell alloimmunization, HDFN
 caused by, 429–430, 431–433
 Red blood cell antibodies, binding of
 complement by, 61
 Red blood cell antibody specificity, 429, 429t
 Red blood cell exchange, 409
 Red blood cells (RBCs), 357t
 adsorption, 245–246
 antigen-antibody reactions in,
 detection of, 65
 antigens, formation of, 123
 biology of, 4–7
 collection, by apheresis, 403
 deformability of, 4
 freezing, 10–11, 10t, 11t, 347t
 frozen, deglycerolized, 347–348, 359
 genotyping, 94–97
 clinical applications of, 95, 97–98
 hemolysis of, 453–454
 laboratory creation of, 11–12
 leukocyte-reduced, 359, 359t, 364
 manufacturing and quality control,
 336–337
 membrane of, 4–5, 5f
 metabolic pathways, 5–7, 6f
 O type, formation of, 11
 packed, 3
 permeability of, 4–5
 preservation of, 7–12
 rejuvenated, 11, 359
 substitutes, 12–13, 12b, 12t, 13t, 14t
 tissue engineering of, 13
 in transfusion therapy, 356, 359
 washed, 113, 359
 zeta potential of, 66, 67–68
 Red blood cell storage lesion, 7, 7t
 Registration
 of blood establishments, 579, 579t
 donor, 283
 Regulations
 federal, 574–589, 578b
 on information systems, 599–600
 as source of laws, 608
 Regulatory overview, of tissue banking,
 485–491, 485–486t
 Regulatory process, 576–578
 Rejuvenated RBCs, 11, 359
 Relationship index (RI), 523, 524–525,
 525t
 Relationship testing, 515–530
 accreditation and quality issues in, 527
 advantages and disadvantages of
 genetic systems in, 526–527
 case studies, 528
 classical systems in, 518–519, 522
 criteria for selection of genetic systems
 in, 517
 DNA polymorphisms, 523
 genetic systems and technology used
 in, 517–522, 517b, 518f, 518t
 goals of, 517
 history of, 516–517
 inclusionary calculations, 523–526
 introduction to, 515–516
 nonclassic situations, 526
 social and legal issues in, 527
 terminology and interpretation of
 results, 522–523
 Relevant transfusion-transmitted
 infections (RTTIs), 575
 Replication, 80
 DNA, 34
 semiconservative, 34, 80
 Respiratory movement, 7
Respondeat superior, 609–610
 Responders, 54–55
 Restriction endonucleases, 83–84, 84t
 Restriction enzyme mapping, 84
 Restriction fragment length
 polymorphism (RFLP), 84,
 93, 93f
 analysis, 519–520, 519f, 520t
 testing, 516–517, 516f
 Restriction mapping, 25
 Retrospective blood utilization review,
 561–562
 Retroviruses, 81
 Reverse genetics, 94
 Reverse grouping, 121t
 ABO discrepancies between forward
 grouping and, 143, 143t–144t
 Reverse transcriptase PCR (RT-PCR), 92
 Reverse transcription, 81, 82f
 RFLP. *See* Restriction fragment length
 polymorphism (RFLP)
 Rh17 (Hr₀) antigen, 165
 Rh23 antigen, 165
 Rh30 antigen, 165
 Rh32 antigen, 166
 Rh33 (Har) antigen, 165
 Rh40 antigen, 165
 Rh43 (Crawford) antigen, 166
 Rh52 antigen, 165
 RHAG gene, 154–155, 164
 Rh antibodies
 case study on, 167–168
 characteristics of, 161
 detecting and identifying, 162–163
 in hemolytic disease of the fetus and
 newborn, 164
 in pregnancy, 161
 testing for, 161–163
 in transfusion reactions, 163–164
 Rh antigen D (RhD), 158, 158t, 427
 Rh antigens, 158t
 biochemistry of, 157–158
 characteristics of, 158
 common (C, E, c, e), 158, 158t, 159t
 D antigen, 158, 158t, 427
 frequency of, 158t
 rare, 164–166
 testing for, 161–163
 Rh-associated glycoprotein (RHAG),
 154–155
 Rh-associated glycoprotein blood group
 system, 219–220
 Rh blood group system, 149–172
 antigens of, by four nomenclatures,
 153–154t
 biochemistry of, 157–158
 case studies, 167–169
 clinical considerations for, 163–164
 D antigen expression variations in,
 159–161, 159–160f, 161f
 genetics of, 154–157, 155f

- history of, 150
 introduction to, 150
 Rh deficiency syndrome and, 164
 terminology, 150–154, 152t, 153–154t
 alphanumeric, 151–152
 DCE, 150–151, 151f
 Rh-Hr, 151
 updated numeric, 152
 unusual phenotypes and rare alleles, 164–166
RHCE gene, 154, 164
 RhCE protein, D epitopes on, 160–161, 161f
 Rh deficiency syndrome, 164
RHD gene, 154, 155–156
 RhD hemolytic disease of the fetus/newborn, 428t
 RhD typing
 cold-reactive autoantibodies and, 445–446
 of cord blood, 434
 warm autoantibodies and, 454–455
 Rh genes, 154, 155f
 Rh-Hr terminology, for Rh blood group system, 151, 151f, 152t, 153–154t
rh_i (Ce) antigen, 165
 Rh immune globulin (RhiG), 363–364, 427, 435–436, 436f
Rh_{mod} syndrome, 164
 Rh-negative phenotypes, 155–156
Rh_{null} syndrome, 164
Rh_o(D) immune globulin, 350
 Rh-positive phenotypes, 155
 Rh transplant incompatibility, 423
 Rh typing, in pretransfusion testing, 259
 Rh typing reagents, 161–162
 false reactions with, 163t
 Ribonucleic acid (RNA), 25, 37–40, 78, 80
 heterogeneous, 82f, 83
 isolation, 37
 messenger, 33
 ribosomal, 38
 structure of, 37
 transcription, 29, 38–39, 39f
 translation, 39–40, 39f, 40f
 types of, 37–38
 Ribosomal RNA (rRNA), 38
 Ribosomes, 38, 39, 80
 Risk assessment (RA), 533, 601
 Risk management, 612–613
 medical malpractice and, 613
 processing, labeling, and distribution, 612–613
 specific donor issues, 612
 RNA. *See* Ribonucleic acid (RNA)
 RNA virus, 303
 RNC antigens, alloimmunization to, 377
 Rocky Mountain spotted fever (RMSF), 322
 Rodgers blood group, 36
 Rouleaux formation, 140t
 RTTIs. *See* Relevant transfusion-transmitted infections (RTTIs)
- S**
 SAB. *See* Single-antigen bean immunoassay (SAB)
 Safety. *See* Transfusion safety
- Saline, for washing, 113
 Saline reactive reagents, 161
 Saline-tube testing, 115t
 S antigen, 189–190
 s antigen, 189–190
 Satellite bags, 9
 Scales, 334–335
 Scianna blood group system, 215
Sd^a antigen, 224–225
 SDS-PAGE electrophoresis, 93
 Secondary cold AIHA, 451
 Secretor ABH glycoprotein substances, 126f
 Secretory studies, 65
 Security
 HIPAA Security Rule, 611
 information system, 598, 600–601
 Sedimented blood sample, 397f
 Seizure, 582, 583t
 Selected cell panels, in antibody identification, 241, 242f
 Selective absorption, 410–411
 Self, 46
 Semiconservative replication, 34, 80
 Sensitization, 104
 Sensitizing events, 501
 Sequence-specific oligonucleotide probe (SSOP), 93, 93f
 Sequence-specific oligonucleotides (SSO), 503
 Sequence-specific PCR (SSP), 93, 94f
 Sequence-specific primers (SSP), 83, 503
 Sequencing, 25
 Serologic activity, 498, 499–500
 Serologic crossmatch, 261–262
 Serologic systems, 68t
 Serologic testing, diseases important in, 71–73, 72b
 Serum, ratio of, to cells, 112
 Short supply arrangements, 585
 Short tandem repeats (STRs), 94, 517
 Sick cell anemia, 80, 97
 Sick cell disease (SCD), 377
 Sigmoid-curve relationship, 7
 Silent genes, 30
 Single-antigen bean immunoassay (SAB), 506–507, 506f
 Single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP), 25, 92, 522
 Six Sigma, 544–545
 Small tandem repeats (STRs), 517
 SNP. *See* Single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP)
 Society for the Advancement of Blood Management (SABM), 555
 Sodium citrate, 2
 Sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), 86
 Sodium hydroxide, 86
 Sodium phosphate, 2
 Software, 592–599
 backup of, 600
 validation, 601–602
 Solid-phase technology, 114–115, 115t, 272–274
 Bio-Rad solid-phase protein A technology, 274–276, 275f, 277–278t
 ImmuCor solid-phase red cell adherence, 273–274, 274f, 277f, 277–278t
 introduction to, 272
- Solidscreen II assay, 275–276
 SOLX, 9, 9t
 Somatic gene therapy, 881
 SOS repair, 35
 Southern blotting technique, 91, 91f
 Species, 25
 Specificity, 64
 Specimen collection
 patient identification and specimen labeling in, 257–258, 258f
 in pretransfusion testing, 257–259
 specimen requirements in, 258–259
 Spectra Optia, 401f
 Spectrin, 78
 Spherocytes, 4, 5f
 Spleen, 52t
 Splenectomy, for WAIHA, 460
 SSO. *See* Sequence-specific oligonucleotides (SSO)
 SSP. *See* Sequence-specific PCR (SSP)
 Standard of care, 609–610
 Standard operating procedures, 538
Standards for Blood Banks and Transfusion Services, 402, 533–534
 Start codons, 33
 State laws, on tissue banking, 488
 Static files, 593
 Statutes, 577, 608
 blood shield, 608
 of limitations, 611
 Stem cells, 419, 478
 hematopoietic, 11, 13
 Sterile connection devices, 335
 Stop codons, 33
 Storage devices, 335
 Storage lesion, 388t
 platelet, 14–15, 15t
 RBC, 7, 7t
 Storage time, 388t
 STR analysis, 520–522, 521f
 Strict liability, 610
 Substitutes
 platelet, 19
 RBC, 12–13, 12b, 12t, 13t, 14t
 Superantigens, 54
 Surgical blood order schedule, type, and screen, 365, 365b
 Surrogate markers, 308
 SYBR Green, 85
 Syngeneic HPC transplantation, 418
 Synthetic volume expanders, 350
 Syphilis, 321–322
 screening donor blood for, 302–303, 308t
 tests for, 326t
 System index (SI), 524–525, 525t
 System management, 600–602
 System managers, 594
 Systems biology, 94–95
- T**
 TA. *See* Therapeutic apheresis (TA)
 TACO. *See* Transfusion-associated circulatory overload (TACO)
 TaqMan, 92
 Targeted prospective review, 562–563
 T cell-independent antigens, 54
 T-cell receptor (TCR), 54
 TCP/IP protocol, 592
 T cytotoxic cells, 51–52

- Team Biologics, 581
 Telophase, 30, 31t
 Temin, Howard, 81
 Temperature
 agglutination reactions and, 67
 AGT and, 113
 Terminal galactose, 124
 Test cases, 601–602
 Test plan, 601
 Thalassemia, 135
 Thawed plasma, cryoprecipitate reduced, 361–362
 T helper cells, 51–52
 Therapeutic apheresis (TA), 397, 405–410
 erythrocytapheresis, 409
 fluid replacement, 409–410
 general considerations for, 405–406, 408
 indication categories for, 406–407t
 leukapheresis, 409
 physiological considerations for, 408
 plasmapheresis, 408–409, 408b, 409–410, 410–411
 plateletpheresis, 409
 vascular access in, 406, 408
 Therapeutic plasma exchange (TPE), 408–409, 408b, 410–411
 Thermocycler, 89
 3' and 5' ends, 80
 Thrombocytopenia, 15
 Thymine, 32, 33f, 35, 80
 Thymus, 52t, 53
 Tick-borne bacterial agents, 322
 Tissue, 491
 Tissue banking, 476–496
 See also Tissue transplantation
 acquisition of allografts and inventory, 479–480
 autologous tissue, 482–485
 case studies on, 494
 common tissues in, 478
 hospital tissue bank for, 477–481
 introduction to, 476–477
 oversight of, 479
 qualification of vendors
 in, 481–482, 482t
 quality assurance in, 481
 record-keeping and traceability, 480–481
 regulatory overview of, 485–491, 485–486t
 state laws governing, 482t
 storage in, 480
 tissue dispensation, 481
 Tissue dispensing service, 476
 Tissue engineering, of RBCs, 13
 Tissue transplantation
 adverse events involving, 491–494
 allograft failure, 492
 infection, 492
 malignancy, 492
 recalls, 493–494, 494b
 reporting and investigation
 of, 492–493
 case studies on, 494
 history and overview of, 477
 Titers, 121–122
 T lymphocytes (T cells), 50–51, 53–54
 TMA. *See* Transcription-mediated amplification (TMA)
- Tolerance, 64–65
 Torts, 608–611
 battery, 609
 negligence, 609–610
 reform, 612
 Total process control, 537, 538f
 Traceability, in tissue banking, 480–481
 Transcription, 29, 78
 reverse, 81
 RNA, 38–39, 39f
 Transcription factors, 78
 Transcription-mediated amplification (TMA), 92–93
 Transfer RNA (tRNA), 38, 38f, 80
 Transformation, 86
 Transfusing facility software, 596–598
 Transfusion-associated circulatory overload (TACO), 368, 381–383, 382t, 383f
 Transfusion-associated dyspnea (TAD), 383
 Transfusion-associated fatalities, 374, 375t
 Transfusion-associated graft-versus-host disease (TA-GVHD), 364–365, 385–387, 386f, 421
 Transfusion-associated hepatitis, 308–313
 Transfusion-associated parasites, 322–324
 Transfusion audit, 369–370, 369–370t
 Transfusion committee, 557
 Transfusion guidelines, 557–559, 558t
 Transfusion medicine
 ethics and, 613
 future of, 264
 medicolegal issues in, 607–616
 types of waste in, 554, 555f
 Transfusion reactions, 373–395
 acute hemolytic, 378–379, 378t
 adverse metabolic effects, 387–388
 allergic, 384–385, 384t, 385b, 386f
 alloimmunization to RBC antigens, 377
 case studies, 390–392
 delayed hemolytic and serologic, 379–380
 fatal hemolytic, 120b, 120t
 fatalities, 374, 375t
 febrile nonhemolytic, 383–384
 hypotensive, 383
 immunomodulatory effects, 388–389
 incidence of, 374, 374b
 infectious, 389–390
 introduction to, 374
 noninfectious, 377–389
 to plasma-derived products, 385
 post-transfusion purpura, 387
 recognition and evaluation
 of, 374–375, 375f, 376f
 refractoriness to platelet transfusion and alloimmunization, 387
 regulatory and accreditation requirements related to, 375, 376t, 377b
 Rh blood group system and, 163–164
 signs and symptoms of, 375f
 transfusion-associated circulatory overload, 381–383, 382t, 383f
 transfusion-associated dyspnea, 383
 transfusion-associated graft-versus-host disease, 385–387, 386f
 transfusion-related acute lung injury, 380–381, 380b, 381b, 382f
- Transfusion-related acute lung injury (TRALI), 16b, 368, 380–381, 380b, 381b, 382f, 504, 508
 Transfusion-related fatalities, 586, 586t
 Transfusion-related immunomodulation (TRIM), 73
 Transfusion(s)
 ABO-incompatible, 120b
 adverse effects of, 373–395. *see also* Transfusion reactions
 autologous, 10, 292–295, 365, 366f
 blood administration, 368–369, 368f
 coagulation factor deficiencies and, 367–368
 compatible blood for, selecting, 163
 current status of, 3–4
 donor selection for, 281–306
 agencies governing, 282–283
 case studies, 303–304
 informed consent in, 292, 292f
 introduction to, 282
 medical history questionnaire in, 283–284, 284–285f
 medical history questions in, 285–291
 physical examination in, 291–292
 registration in, 283
 whole blood collection
 and, 297–299
 emergency, 365–366
 emergent, 263
 exchange, 434–435
 fatalities, 369t
 general practices for, 368–370, 368f
 historical overview, 2–3
 immune system and, 73
 incompatible, 2
 intrauterine, 264, 433–434
 massive, 263–264, 366, 366t
 neonatal, 264, 366–367, 366b
 in oncology, 367
 rapid, 369
 risk mitigation strategies, 553–554, 554f
 risks of, 374
 surgical blood order schedule, type, and screen, 365, 365b
 in WAIHA, 458, 460
 Transfusion safety, 574–589
 See also Federal regulatory requirements
 enforcement actions and, 582–583
 FDA inspection process and, 581
 introduction to, 575
 Transfusion safety officer, 556–557
 Transfusion therapy, 355–372
 blood products in, 356–364
 case studies, 370–371
 introduction to, 356
 in special conditions, 365–368
 special considerations for, 364–365
 Transfusion-transmitted AIDS (TTAIDS), 608, 613
 Transfusion-transmitted bacterial infections (TTBIs), 389–390, 389t, 390t
 Transfusion-transmitted diseases (TTDs), 307–332
 babesiosis, 322–323
 bacterial, 320–322, 389–390, 389t, 390t

- Chagas disease, 323
chikungunya virus, 319–320
Creutzfeldt-Jacob disease, 324
cytomegalovirus, 318
dengue virus, 320
donor testing and, 307–308
Ebola virus, 320
Epstein-Barr virus, 318
hepatitis as, 308–313, 309f, 309t, 310f, 311t
herpesvirus 6 and 8, 319
HIV, 313–314, 313f, 313t
HPC transplantation and, 421
human T-cell lymphotropic viruses types I/II (HTLV-I/II), 314–315, 316f
introduction to, 307
laboratory tests for, 326–327t
malaria, 323–324
parasites, 322–324
parvovirus B19, 319
pathogen inactivation and, 325
prion disease, 324
quarantine and, 325–326
recipient tracing and, 325–326
required tests for, 308b
syphilis, 321–322
tick-borne, 322
West Nile virus, 315–317
Zika virus, 317–318
- Transfusion-transmitted infectious diseases, 421
Translation, 39–40, 39f, 40f, 78, 80–81
Transmembrane proteins, 157, 157f
Transmissible spongiform encephalopathies (TSE), 289
Transplantation
 hematopoietic progenitor cell. *see* Hematopoietic progenitor cell (HPC) transplantation
 tissue. *See* Tissue transplantation
Transversions, 36
TRICC trial, 264
Trima Accel Automated Collection System, 402f
True chimerism, 138
Trypanosoma cruzi, 323, 323f
 screening donor blood for, 303, 308t
Trypsin, 70
TTDs. *See* Transfusion-transmitted diseases (TTDs)
Tube antibody detection
 screen, 233–235, 234f
Tubing sealers, 335
Tumor necrosis factor (TNF), 54
Tumor viruses, 81
21st Century Cures Act, 576
Type 2 precursor chain, 124, 124f
Type H oligosaccharide (glycan) chains, 125
Type III reactions, 72
Type II reactions, 72
Type I reactions, 72
- U**
Ultraviolet (UV) radiation, 35
Umbilical cord blood, 141, 419, 434
Unbranched straight chains, 129
Unexpected antibodies, 233
United Network for Organ Sharing (UNOS), 510
Unregistered transfusion services, 580–581
U- phenotype, 192
Urticarial reactions, 72
U.S. Food and Drug Administration. *See* Food and Drug Administration (FDA)
Utilization management, 552–573
 See also Patient blood management (PBM)
- V**
Valency, 55, 64
Validation, 538
Van der Waals forces, 56
V antigens, 166
Variable number of tandem repeats (VNTRs), 94, 516
Variable regions, 56
Variances, 584
Vascular access, in therapeutic apheresis, 406, 408, 412
Vasovagal reactions, 412
Vasovagal syncope, 412
vCJD, 289–290, 290t
Vectors, 85–86
 viral, 88
Vel blood group system, 220–221
Vendors, tissue, 481–482, 482t
Verax PGD test, 18t, 339
Viral vectors, 88
Virtual blood banks, 602, 603f
Virtual crossmatch, 507
Virtual private networks (VPNs), 592
Viruses
 provirus, 81
 retroviruses, 81
 tumor, 81
Viscoelastic blood testing, 566
Vitamin K, 367–368
VNTRs. *See* Variable number tandem repeats (VNTR)
Voluntary standards, 610
Von Willebrand's disease, 367
VS antigens, 166
- W**
WAIHA. *See* Warm autoimmune hemolytic anemia (WAIHA)
Warm autoantibodies, 251–252, 453–462
 IgM, warm autoimmune hemolytic anemia with, 462
 with underlying alloanti-E, 459t
 with underlying alloanti-K and -Jk^a, 461t
- Warm autoimmune hemolytic anemia (WAIHA), 453–462
 clinical findings in, 453–454
 compared with cold, 463t
 diseases associated with, 453b
 RBC hemolysis in, 453–454
 serologic characteristics and laboratory tests affected by, 454–458, 456t
 transfusion in, selection of blood for, 458, 460
 treatment of, 460
Warning Letters, 582, 583t
Washing, 344–345
Watson, James, 32
Watson-Crick base pairing, 32
Weak A subgroups, 131–132, 131t, 133f
Weak B subgroups, 132–134
Weak D antigen, 159f
 D antigen, expression of variations of, 159–161
Weiner haplotype terminology, 152t
Western blotting (WB), 65, 93
West Nile virus (WNV), 315–317
 screening donor blood for, 302, 308t
 tests for, 327t
Whole blood, 357t
 components of, 3
 fractionation procedure, using centrifugation, 336b
 manufacturing and quality control, 335–336, 337b
 reconstituted, 346
 in transfusion therapy, 356
Whole blood collection, 297–299
 arm preparation methods, 298b
 aseptic technique for, 298
 donor reactions to, 299
 procedure for, 298, 298b
Whole blood-derived platelets (WBD), 15
Wiener terminology, 151, 151f
Wilkins, Maurice, 79
Window period, of immune response, 52
Work process, 538
World Health Organization Nomenclature Committee for Factors of the HLA System, 498–499
World War II, 2–3
- X**
Xg blood group system, 214–215
X-linked inheritance, 28–29, 28f, 29t
- Y**
Yt blood group system, 214
- Z**
Z-DNA, 32
Zeta potential, 66, 67–68
Zika virus, 317–318
 screening donor blood for, 303, 308t
 tests for, 327t
Zone of equivalence, 66
ZZAP reagent, 70

