

**UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA**

The morphological and physiological effects of a low-carbohydrate high-fat diet on coagulation parameters

BABALWA CYNTHIA JOBELA

BSc, BSc (Hon) (Walter Sisulu University)

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Science

In the

Department of Physiology

School Medicine

Faculty of Health Sciences

University of Pretoria

03 January

2019

The morphological and physiological effects of a low-carbohydrate high-fat diet on coagulation parameters

By

Ms Babalwa Cynthia Jobela

Supervisor. Dr P Soma, MBChB, MSc (Clin Epi), PhD

Co-supervisors: Dr Mia-Jeanne van Rooy, Dr Oore-ofe Olumuyiwa (Akeredolu)

Department of Physiology, University of Pretoria

Degree: Master of Science

Abstract

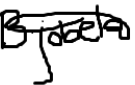
The contribution of unhealthy diets to the emergence of chronic diseases which are a burden to both the society and health care costs, greatly increased over the last decades. Starch and sugar have been linked to the development of chronic diseases and therefore the World Health Organisation is endorsing efforts to cut the intake of digestible starch and sugar. A decrease in the intake of starch and sugar will potentially decrease the risk of chronic diseases like obesity, type 2 diabetes mellitus, hypercholesterolemia, hypertension, metabolic syndrome, coronary heart disease and cancer. A low-carbohydrate high-fat diet has emerged as a treatment strategy to reduce sugar and starch-linked chronic diseases. However, it has been hypothesized that the low-carbohydrate high-fat diet stimulates inflammatory pathways. In this research study, scanning electron microscopy, flow cytometry, and thromboelastography were used to compare blood parameters in participants either on a low-carbohydrate high-fat diet or on a control diet. Healthy volunteers, eating foods without specific restrictions on intake of dietary categories were recruited to form the control group (n=32) and individuals with food intake restrictions limiting carbohydrate intake while increasing fat intake were recruited to form the low-carbohydrate high-fat group (n=32). Platelet-rich plasma, with or without thrombin, was used to study platelet-fibrin network and red blood cell morphology. Distinct changes were noted in the morphology of red blood cells, platelets and fibrin networks of individuals on a low-carbohydrate high-fat diet. Fibrin network fibers for participants in the low-carbohydrate high-fat group were mostly discontinuous, with

some regions with matted deposits. Activated and aggregated platelets were identified morphologically using scanning electron microscopy and platelet activity was further quantified with flow cytometry. Flow cytometric results showed lower mean platelet aggregation in low-carbohydrate high-fat diet participants compared to controls. Thromboelastography was used to compare coagulation parameters of whole blood in low-carbohydrate high-fat diet participants with those of controls. Thromboelastography results show that in low-carbohydrate high-fat diet participants, on average, clot initiation time was shorter, the angle of the clot was greater but there was a decrease in clot strength. The time to maximum clot strength and total clot strength was lower in low-carbohydrate high-fat diet relative to controls. The results show that a low-carbohydrate high-fat diet may induce inflammation leading to a predisposition to hypercoagulability increasing the likelihood of the formation of an abnormal clot.

Key words: Low-carbohydrate high-fat diet, red blood cells, platelets, fibrin network, inflammation, coagulation

DECLARATION

I, Babalwa Cynthia Jobela hereby declare that this research dissertation is my own work and has not been presented for another degree at another university.

Signed: 

Date: 03/01/2019

Faculty of Health Sciences

School of Medicine

Department of Physiology

University of Pretoria

South Africa

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank God Almighty as well as my mentor and supervisor Dr Prashilla Soma for her hard work and support she provided.

My co-supervisors, Dr van Rooy and Dr Olumuyiwa (Akeredolu) for their expertise and scientific input.

To my colleagues, Sulette De Villiers, Marry-Anne Phasha, Tebogo Ramoshayi thank you for all your assistance and guidance.

To the staff members of the Microscopy and Microanalysis Unit at the University of Pretoria, thank you for your support and guidance throughout my project.

My mother, Mrs N Jobela thank you for your prayers, love and support, friends from church; Kutala, Sindi and Lusanda, thank you for all the love, motivation and support. My siblings Andile, Xolisile, Anele, and Siyabonga thank you for your continuous support. To all friends and family whose names I did not mention, thank you so much and may the good Lord bless you all.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

°C	Degrees celsius
%	Percentage
µL	microlitre
µm	Micrometre
AD	Alzheimer's disease
ADP	Adenosine diphosphate
ATP	Adenosine triphosphate
APC	Allophycocyanin
CAD	Coronary artery disease
CRP	C-reactive protein
CVD	Cardiovascular disease
CD	Cluster of Differentiation
CaCl ₂	Calcium chloride
Ca ²⁺	Calcium
DMDs	Dense matted deposits
DTS	Dense tubular system
ETD	Everhart-Thornley detector
FITC	Fluorescein isothiocyanate
fL	Femtolitre
FVII, FIX, FX, FXI, FVIII, FV, FXII	Coagulation factors
FXIIIa	Activated form of FXIII
G	Grams
GP	Glycoprotein
GPCR	G-coupled receptors
HFD	High fat diet
HMDS	1,1,1,3,3,3- Hexamethyldisilazane
IL-6	Interleukin-6
IR	Insulin resistance
JNK	Jun-N-terminal kinase
Kcal	Kilocalories
Kg	Kilogram
LCHF	Low carbohydrate high fat diet
Mg	Milligrams

mL	millilitre
MPV	Mean platelet volume
MFI	Mean fluorescence index
MoAbs	Monoclonal Antibodies
NFκB	Nuclear factor kappa-beta
OCS	Open canalicular system
OSO ₄	Osmium tetroxide
P2Y ₁₂	G _i -coupled platelet receptor for adenosine
PE	Phycoerythrin
PS	Phosphatidylserine
PBS	Phosphate buffered saline
PRP	Platelet-rich plasma
PPP	Platelet poor plasma
ROS	Reactive oxygen species
Rpm	Revolutions per minute
SFA	Saturated fatty acid
SEM	Scanning electron microscopy
sP-selectin	Soluble platelet selectin
T2DM	Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus
TEG	Thromboelastography
TF	Tissue factor
TNF-α	Tissue necrosis factor alpha
TLR	Toll-like receptors
TxA ₂	Thromboxane A ₂
vWF	Von Willebrand factor
WB	Whole blood
WHO	World Health Organisation

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	iv
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	v
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....	vi
LIST OF FIGURES.....	x
LIST OF TABLES.....	xiii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background summary	1
1.2 Aims and objectives	3
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	4
2.1 Diet and Inflammation	4
2.2 Inflammation and Coagulation	6
2.3 Roles of Fibrinogen and Fibrin	9
2.4 Role of RBCs in coagulation	10
2.4.1 RBC deformability	11
2.4.2 RBC aggregation.....	11
2.5 Role of Platelets in Coagulation.....	12
2.5.1 Platelet morphology and function.....	13
2.5.2 Platelets, Inflammation and atherosclerosis	15
2.6 The Banting Diet in South Africa.....	16
CHAPTER 3: (SCANNING ELECTRON MICROSCOPY).....	17
3.1 Aims and Objectives	17
3.2 Introduction	17
3.3 Materials and Methods.....	20
3.3.1 Participants	20
3.3.2 Sample Preparation for SEM of RBCs, platelets and fibrin fibers	21
3.3.3 Statistical Analysis.	21
3.4 Results	22
3.4.1 SEM of RBCs	24
3.4.2 SEM of platelets	27
3.4.3 SEM of fibrin fibers.....	30

3.5 DISCUSSION	32
3.6 Conclusion	35
CHAPTER 4: (FLOW CYTOMETRY)	36
4.1 Aims and Objectives	36
4.2 Introduction	36
4.3 Materials and Methods.....	39
4.3.1 Participants	39
4.3.2 Flow cytometry	40
4.3.3 Statistical Analysis	41
4.4: Results	41
4.5 Discussion	44
4.6 Conclusion	46
CHAPTER 5: THROMBOELASTOGRAPHY (TEG).....	48
5.1 Aims and Objectives	48
5.2 Introduction	48
5.3 Materials and Methods.....	49
5.3.1 Participants	49
5.3.2 Clot properties using TEG.....	50
5.3.3 Statistical Analysis	51
5.4 Results	51
5.5 Discussion	56
5.6 Conclusion	58
CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION.....	59
6.1 Future perspectives and study limitations	60
7. Appendix	61
Appendix 1: Informed Consent for Controls and LCHF group	61
Appendix 2: Ethics approval letter	72
8. References	75

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure number	Figure title	Page
Figure 2.1	An outline showing potential effects of diet on inflammation and coagulation parameters. Redrawn (Esposito and Giugliano,2006)	7
Figure 2.2	A diagram showing the coagulation pathway, where thrombin initiates the conversion of fibrinogen to fibrin clot formation. "Redrawn" from (Swanepoel et al 2015)	9
Figure 2.3	Scanning electron micrograph (SEM) of WB showing a platelet from a control participant on a relatively healthy diet inclusive of carbohydrates. 100X magnification of platelet with slightly pseudopodia. Scale= 1µm.	15
Figure 3.1	SEM images of RBCs in WB smear. Images on the left (A to C) are low magnifications of the same RBCs on the right (100X magnification). (A and B) Individuals on a control diet (C) Individual on an LCHF diet. High resolution images show minimal to no differences in membrane structure of cells and no microparticle budding. (Scale = 1 µm)).	25
Figure 3.2	SEM in WB smear for controls (A) normally shaped discocytes, knizocyte (orange arrow), (B) Eryptotic echinocytes (burr cells) (green arrow), (C) A micrograph showing mostly discocytes and activated adjacent platelets, (D) Platelet attached to aggregated RBC, one of which is an echinocyte (green arrow), (E) Agglutinated RBCs (rouleaux), (F) Acanthocytes (blue arrow) attached to a boat cell.	26
Figure 3.3	SEM of a WB smear from participants on an LCHF diet showing A: Mostly discocytes but there were some leptocytes (green arrows) alongside mildly activated platelets, B: Other distinct poikilocytes identified were the stomatocyte (green arrows) and knizocyte (yellow arrow), C: A micrograph showing a dacrocyte, D: A RBC aggregate, E: An echinocyte or burr cell, F: 100X magnified image of cell in E.	27
Figure 3.4	SEM images of WB showing platelets from control participants with relatively healthy diet inclusive of carbohydrates (A) Platelet with slightly projected	28

	pseudopodia, (B) Platelet in 'A' magnified by 100X, (C) and (E) Platelets with minimally spread lamellopodia, (D) and (F) Platelets in 'C' and 'F' respectively magnified by 100X. Scale = 1 μ m.	
Figure 3.5	SEM images of WB showing platelets from participants on a LCHF: (A) Platelet with minimally projected filopodia (B) Platelet in 'A' magnified by 100X, (C) and (E) Platelets with minimally spread lamellopodia, (D) and (F) Platelets in 'C' and 'F' respectively magnified by 100X. Scale = 1 μ m.	29
Figure 3.6	SEM of platelets in WB smears, (E) Large platelet aggregate in control smear, (F) Small platelet aggregate in LCHF smear. Scale = 1 μ m.	30
Figure 3.7	SEM images of Platelet-poor plasma clots from participants on the control diet inclusive of carbohydrates: (A) Clot with relatively low fibrin fiber density embedded in matted clot deposits, (B) Clot with relatively high fibrin fiber density but no matted clot deposits, (C) Clot with relatively high fibrin fiber density with some degree of matted clot deposits, (D) Clot with relatively high fiber density and minimal matted deposits. Clot shown in B is closest to what should be detected in healthy individuals. Scale =1 μ m.	31
Figure 3.8	SEM images of PPP clots from participants with on a LCHF (A and B) Clot with relatively lower fiber density and showing some discontinuous fibers (white arrows), (C) Clot with relatively normal fiber distribution, (D) Clot with relatively less distinctive (unstable) fibrin fibers (white arrows), some matted clot regions (yellow arrows). Scale =1 μ m.	32
Figure 4.1	Graphical representation of control and LCHF group showing MFI for total CD41+ aggregates. Statistical difference: P-value = 0.0022*.	43
Figure 4.2	Scatterplot showing fraction of detected (A) Platelet-leukocyte aggregates and (B) Platelet-platelet aggregates in a participant on the control diet.	43
Figure 4.3	Scatterplot showing fraction of detected (C) platelet-leukocyte aggregates and D) platelet-platelet aggregates in a participant on the LCHF diet.	44

Figure 5.1	Median R-value was significantly shorter for LCHF participants than for the control participants (6.2 vs 7.3 minutes, P=0.0334).	53
Figure 5.2	Median K-value was not significantly greater in LCHF than for control participants (3.8 vs 3.9 minutes, P=0.7430).	54
Figure 5.3	Median alpha angle was significantly greater in LCHF participants compared to controls (63.8 vs 48.5 degrees), P<0.0001.	54
Figure 5.4	Median MA was not significantly lower in LCHF participants than in controls (49.1 vs 49.1 millimeters), P=0.0829.	55
Figure 5.5	Median MRTG was not significantly different between LCHF and control participants (3.5 vs 3.5 Dyn cm ⁻¹ s ⁻¹ , P=0.7013).	55
Figure 5.6	TMRTG was significantly shorter in LCHF participants compared to controls (8 vs 10.4 minutes, P=0.0025).	56
Figure 5.7	TGG was not significantly lower in LCHF than in control participants for TGG (388.4 vs 482.1 Dyn cm ⁻² , P=0.0918).	56

LIST OF TABLES

Table number	Table title	Pages
Table 3.1	RBC morphology with description.	18
Table 3.2	Intake of fat, protein and carbohydrates in LCHF participants, showing mean, SD, median and IQR analysed from percent.	22
Table 3.3	Demographics of study participants.	24
Table 3.4	Analysis of standard deviation of grey values of fibrin clots in LCHF participants and controls.	30
Table 4.1	Platelet parameters used to identify platelet activity.	37
Table 4.2	Analysis of participants presented as mean, standard deviation (SD), median of MFI and percentage gated platelets. (n=20 000 platelets total analysed for each participant).	42
Table 4.3	Analysis of participants presented as mean, standard deviation (SD), median of MFI and percentage gated platelet aggregates. (n=20 000 platelets total analysed for each participant). *Statistically significant difference with P < 0.005.	42
Table 5.1	TEG clot parameters studied for WB adapted from (Pretorius et al 2017).	51
Table 5.2	Clot parameters for control participants as obtained using TEG.	52
Table 5.3	Clot parameters for participants on LCHF diet as obtained via TEG	53

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background summary

Previous research indicates that certain diets can cause not only excessive glucose and lipid levels, but also increase other cardio-metabolic risk factors such as oxidative stress, inflammation, and endothelial dysfunction.¹

Nutritional excesses, specifically unhealthy foods, have contributed so much to the rise of chronic diseases, which are a burden to societal and health care costs.² There has been an urgency to explore dietary measures to prevent chronic diseases. One of these measures includes limiting the intake of carbohydrates.³ The World Health Organisation (WHO) endorses this strategy, and suggests that it is essential in decreasing the risks of non-communicable diseases such as obesity, type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM), hypercholesterolemia, hypertension, metabolic syndrome, coronary heart disease, and cancer.^{2,4} Several diets have been proposed in order to reduce the incidence of chronic diseases and specifically in the treatment of T2DM, obesity and metabolic syndrome.⁵⁻⁶ The most prominent in recent years is the low-carbohydrate high-fat (LCHF) diet. The effectiveness and safety of the LCHF diet has not been determined, with differing opinions between health care professionals despite positive outcomes such as weight loss.⁷ Also, controversy exists where some studies suggest that a high fat diet (HFD) can increase the risks of obesity, cardiovascular disease (CVD), and T2DM while other studies have documented that well controlled LCHF diets rather decrease the risk for these diseases.⁸⁻⁹ However some uncertainty remains on the long-term effects of LCHF diets. These uncertainties regarding long-term effects are significant, given the fact that some chronic diseases like T2DM take a period of ten to twenty years or more to develop.³ Some health care professionals are also concerned that vital nutrients may be lacking in the LCHF diet, increasing the risk of nutrient deficiencies, and also the possibility that a high intake of saturated fats may increase the risk of CVD.⁷

Food intake during an LCHF diet depends on individual preference and may include moderate proportions of carbohydrates with a high proportion of fat, or a very restricted low-carbohydrate diet known as the ketogenic diet. The LCHF diet is defined as restricting carbohydrate intake to less than one hundred and thirty grams per day.¹⁰ A ketogenic diet restricts carbohydrate intake to twenty to fifty grams, an

amount which constitutes less than 10% of the daily required calories.¹⁰ A ketogenic diet results in a state called ketosis. A physiological response to limited carbohydrates and decreased insulin levels may result in the body burning fat for energy leading to ketosis.¹⁰ With restriction of carbohydrates, glucose supply to the liver is reduced and less glycogenesis (glycogen formation) will take place. The depletion of glucose will consequently activate gluconeogenesis (the formation of glucose from non-carbohydrate sources like amino acids in the liver).³ The other process is ketogenesis, a metabolic process whereby the liver converts non-esterified fatty acids to ketone bodies.¹¹ When the amount of glucose being produced is not sufficient to cover the cells energy needs, ketone bodies are produced so as to substitute energy sources.³ Low-carbohydrate consumption may lead to a decrease in circulating insulin levels, a stimulus for the metabolism of fatty acids.¹² The digestion of these fatty acids lead to the formation of acetyl-coenzyme A and subsequent production of ketone bodies (acetoacetate and D- β -hydroxybutyrate).¹³ The brain, muscles and other organs can process the ketone bodies, via their mitochondria, as their source of energy (adenosine triphosphate) when carbohydrates are restricted.^{11,13}

A review of the literature has suggested that maintaining the LCHF diet over months or years is not necessarily associated with metabolic changes in the body, provided that the diet supplies sufficient energy for the body with adequate proteins.^{8,14} While it is suggested that LCHF diets reduce metabolic risk factors, there is a lack of evidence supporting the long-term efficacy, safety and health benefits of LCHF diets.⁸⁻⁹ Despite the popularity of LCHF diets, the physiological and morphological effects, in particular, on blood cells and the coagulation profile is not known. Inflammation is a key indicator of poor physiological health and platelets, red blood cells (RBCs) and coagulation profiles are very sensitive to systemic inflammatory changes and cytokine levels.¹⁵⁻¹⁶ Circulating pro-inflammatory cytokines have been shown to be elevated during systemic inflammation in most diseases. A study done by Bester and Pretorius (2016) showed that inflammatory cytokines such as interleukins (IL-1 β , IL-6 and IL-8) have visible impact on platelets and RBCs, where the *ex vivo* addition of the cytokines caused platelet hyper-reactivity, and RBCs structures resembled cells undergoing death (eryptosis).¹⁶ There was also evidence of hypercoagulability triggered in the

presence of these cytokines leading to the formation of abnormal clots, verified via thromboelastography (TEG).¹⁶⁻¹⁷

1.2 Aims and objectives

As these key inflammatory cytokines have been proven to effect visible changes to blood, the aim of our study, therefore, was to determine the effect of an LCHF diet on the morphology of RBCs, platelets and fibrin networks, and the overall coagulation profile.

In order to achieve the stated aims, our objectives are to:

- Obtain blood samples from individuals screened into two groups - either on an LCHF diet or on a control diet inclusive of carbohydrates
- Apply techniques such as scanning electron microscopy, flow cytometry, and thromboelastography to the examination of the acquired blood samples.
- Use applicable software to convert all findings to quantifiable and analysable data associated with coagulation
- Use statistical software to compare data outcomes from both groups
- Determine any differences existing between the groups so as to draw inferences on how diet affects coagulation parameters and potential associations with inflammation.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Diet and Inflammation

Evidence suggests that one's diet can influence inflammation within the body.¹⁸⁻¹⁹ A diet containing a lot of processed starch, sugar, saturated fat and fiber from fruits, may promote inflammation.²⁰ Inflammatory indicators include: increased levels of factors such as IL-6, tissue necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α) and low levels of adiponectin.²¹ The imbalance of inflammatory and anti-inflammatory cytokines, creates a pro-inflammatory milieu in for example adipose tissue, which can lead to insulin resistance (IR) and endothelial dysfunction resulting in the formation of blood clots. This eventually predisposes affected individuals to the metabolic syndrome, T2DM and CVD.²⁰

Inflammation can also be induced by oxidative stress involving the presence of free radicals and reactive oxygen species (ROS). ROS is essential to normal physiological processes but may become pathological when their production exceeds their removal, by antioxidants. Both oxidative stress and inflammation are linked by nuclear factor- κ B (NF κ B).²² NF κ B is a primary regulator of inflammation and can be activated by ROS leading to an increase in the release of inflammatory cytokines such as IL-6.²³ Evidence has indicated that a diet rich in saturated fatty acids (SFAs) activates pro-inflammatory responses via a mechanism involving toll-like receptors (TLRs) specifically, TLR-4.²⁴⁻²⁶ SFAs are said to bind to TLRs, which then activate the NF κ B pathway.²⁷⁻²⁸ Activation of NF κ B results in impaired insulin signalling with decreased production of nitric oxide (a potent vasodilator).²⁹ Factors such as IL-6, TNF- α and SFA stimulate kinases such as Jun N-terminal kinases (Jnk) and I κ B kinase of kappa kinase (IKK), which then phosphorylate insulin receptor substrate at tyrosine serine residues thereby inactivating it, leading to IR. Thus, SFAs are implicated in the mechanisms underlying obesity, which is supposedly linked to inflammation and IR in endothelial cells. However, the mechanism linking the two is not yet known.³⁰

In addition, diets with increased proportion of saturated fat are associated with endothelial dysfunction, a precursor to atherosclerosis.³¹ Endothelial dysfunction can be induced with as little as a single high fat meal.³² A study done by Unruh and colleagues (2015) examined the effects of HFD on RBCs function in mice.³³ RBCs from HFD-fed mice showed increased levels of ROS and increased membrane phosphatidylserine (PS) externalization, a marker of RBCs aging as well as a marker

for apoptosis.³⁴ An increase of PS externalization may result in enhanced phagocytosis of RBCs by macrophages *in vitro*. These changes can lead to disruptions on RBC function. RBC dysfunction was found to contribute to endothelial dysfunction, a manifestation of diet-induced obesity, which may serve as a marker of atherosclerotic pathogenesis.³³

In obese participants, the LCHF diet was shown to influence markers of inflammation but there was no evidence to support if this was linked to oxidative stress.³⁵ Adherence to the LCHF diet (1 month) by these participants led to an increase in C-reactive protein (CRP) and IL-6 during weight loss.³⁵ A contradictory finding was made in another study of obese participants taking a much lower caloric LCHF diet and in this case, there was an improvement of inflammatory markers, CRP, total adiponectin, high density lipoprotein levels but no difference in TNF- α .^{12,36} Previous studies also showed the presence of high levels of inflammatory cytokines in obesity.³⁷⁻³⁹ Adipose tissue responds to a high intake of calories by increasing the volume and the size of adipocytes. With the increase in the size and volume of adipose tissue the blood supply becomes limited which then increases a demand for oxygen in the adipose tissue. This results in hypoxia and eventually infiltration of macrophages into the adipose tissue. The consequence of this is the increased stimulation and production of pro-inflammatory factors. The subsequent inflammation in the adipose tissue culminates into systemic inflammation. The systemic inflammation is linked to the development of obesity-related comorbidities such as metabolic syndrome and T2DM.⁴⁰ Multiple factors produced by adipose tissue can modulate inflammation, atherosclerosis, and blood coagulation. These factors are known as adipokines and include TNF- α , IL-6, CRP, plasminogen activator inhibitor, adiponectin, and leptin.

In obesity, TNF- α levels are high and decrease with weight loss. It influences metabolism of lipids and insulin signalling in adipose tissue. It also stimulates the release factors like IL-6 while suppressing the release of anti-inflammatory factors. The increased levels of TNF- α result in oxidative stress.⁴¹

IL-6, a central cytokine that functions in the immune response, activates coagulation by increasing tissue factor expression by monocytes. IL-6 also promotes the production of CRP by the liver, a protein that indicates an increased systemic

inflammatory response.⁴² Elevated levels of CRP is a predictor of coronary heart disease and diabetes.⁴¹

Plasminogen activator inhibitor is a factor that plays a key role in coagulation by inhibiting fibrinolysis of clots.⁴³

Leptin is a hormone that is increased with obesity. It stimulates oxidative stress systemically.⁴⁴

Adiponectin is an anti-inflammatory cytokine which is decreased in obesity, suppresses inflammation and counteracts insulin sensitivity.⁴⁴

Evidence from human and animal studies established an association between inflammation and IR.⁴⁵ However, mechanisms linking the two pathways are yet unknown. IR is where the body is unable to respond to the insulin it produces. People with IR are prone to develop T2DM. IR is known to be an integral aspect of metabolic syndrome, which also includes features like obesity and hypertension.⁴⁵ Insulin serves important functions in glucose homeostasis, lipid and protein metabolism. In the endothelium, insulin increases the availability of nitric oxide thereby stimulating vasodilation.⁴⁶

2.2 Inflammation and Coagulation

Inflammation and coagulation are intricately linked processes that affect each other as shown in Figure 2.1.⁴⁷ Inflammation is known to influence coagulation by increasing production of coagulation proteins, decreasing activity of anticoagulant pathways and impairing fibrinolysis.⁴⁸⁻⁴⁹ Tissue factor (TF) is a principal initiator of coagulation and seems to play an essential role in the relationship between the two. Under inflammatory conditions monocytes express TF on their surface.⁵⁰ Inflammatory cytokines like TNF- α , IL-6 act as mediators of inflammation, activating the coagulation cascade. They do this by increasing expression of TF and this results in formation of fibrin facilitated by thrombin release.⁵¹⁻⁵² Also TNF- α decreases the expression of the anticoagulant pathway and fibrinolysis is impaired. Therefore, inflammatory cytokines play a role in increased activation of coagulation. The increased activation of coagulation could lead to hypercoagulability and increased formation of clots.

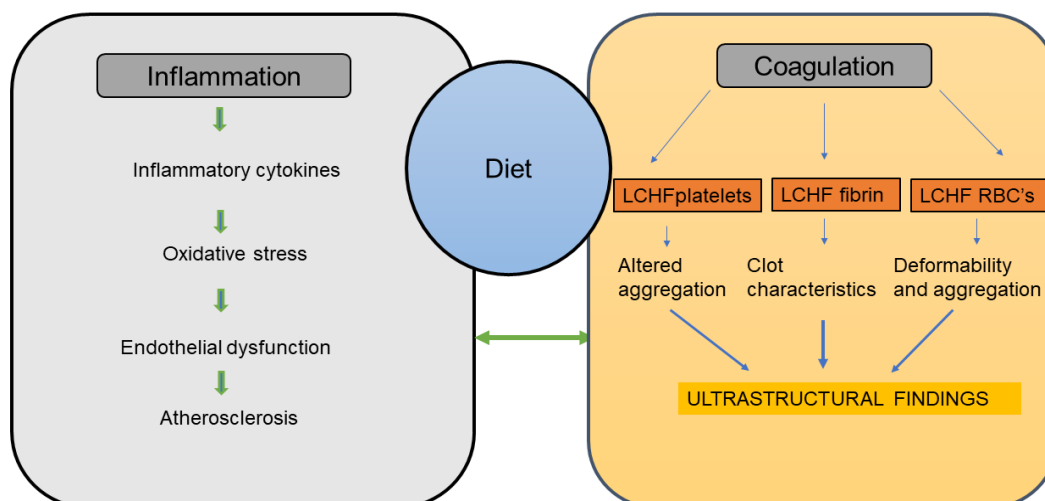


Figure 2.1: An outline showing potential effects of diet on inflammation and coagulation parameters. Redrawn from (Esposito and Giugliano,2006).²¹

Coagulation forms an important part of haemostasis and the process is well known. Haemostasis is a process that stops bleeding when there is an injury of tissue.⁵³ It has two main components, namely, primary and secondary haemostasis. Primary haemostasis refers to platelet aggregation and formation of a platelet plug.⁵⁴ The formation of the fibrin clot involves two complementary processes: coagulation, where thrombin is activated and activation of platelets at the site of injury. Activation of platelets at the injury site involves tethering, rolling, adhesion, secretion and thrombus formation.⁵⁵ At the site of injury, platelets adhere with subendothelial matrix mediated by interaction of receptors such as glycoprotein (GP) Iba and Von Willebrand factor (vWF) followed by activation of platelets by collagen through binding to its receptor GPVI.⁵⁶ This binding triggers the conversion of integrin receptors to their high affinity modes, thereby enabling binding of fibrinogen to GPIIb/IIIa which is important for platelet bridging and platelet aggregation.⁵⁷ Platelets become degranulated by secreting their granule contents like adenosine diphosphate (ADP), thromboxane A2 (TxA2) and thrombin. The secretory products such as ADP binds to G protein-coupled receptors (GPCR) and activates them which then strengthens the growing thrombus.⁵⁸ More platelet shape changes and secretion of products occurs as to recruit more platelets to a growing platelet plug.

After formation of the platelet plug, fibrin networks are formed to create a stable platelet-fibrin plug. Secondary haemostasis is initiated to heal the wound. Two

pathways can initiate the formation of fibrin clot, namely, the extrinsic and intrinsic pathway which merge to a common pathway as summarized in Figure 2.2.

In the extrinsic pathway, TF triggers thrombin generation by binding to activated form of Proconvertin (FVII) present in the blood.⁵⁹ The two form a complex (FVIIa/TF) with calcium called the tenase complex, which then activates FIX and FX.⁶⁰ Activated FX (FXa) then converts prothrombin to thrombin in the common pathway described afterwards.

In the intrinsic pathway, activated platelets trigger the conversion of FXII to its activated form, FXIIa. FXIIa, along with calcium activate FXI to FXIa. The FXIa and calcium subsequently activate FIX to FIXa (A small amount of thrombin is generated which can also convert FVII to FVIIa and FV to FVa). FIXa, in the presence of FVIII activated by platelet phospholipids and calcium, converts FX to FXa.

In the common pathway, platelet phospholipids, calcium, activated FV (FVa) as well as FXa generated from both pathways activate prothrombin,⁶¹ converting it to thrombin. Thrombin, in the presence of calcium, will then cleave FXIII (to form FXIIIa) and fibrinogen to fibrin.⁶² FXIIIa then promotes cross-link of fibrin polymers forming a stable fibrin network.⁶³

To prevent unnecessary clot formation, blood coagulation has to be regulated.⁶⁴ Activation of coagulation is regulated by three major anticoagulant pathways, including: Antithrombin (a serine protease inhibitor of thrombin, FXa and FIXa),⁶⁵ the protein C pathway (which inhibits FVa, FVIIIa) and tissue factor pathway inhibitor (a natural inhibitor of TF/FVIIa complex at the initiation phase).⁶⁶ During inflammation-induced activation of coagulation, the function of all three pathways can be impaired.⁴⁷ These alterations lead to imbalanced haemostasis and an increased risk of thrombosis.

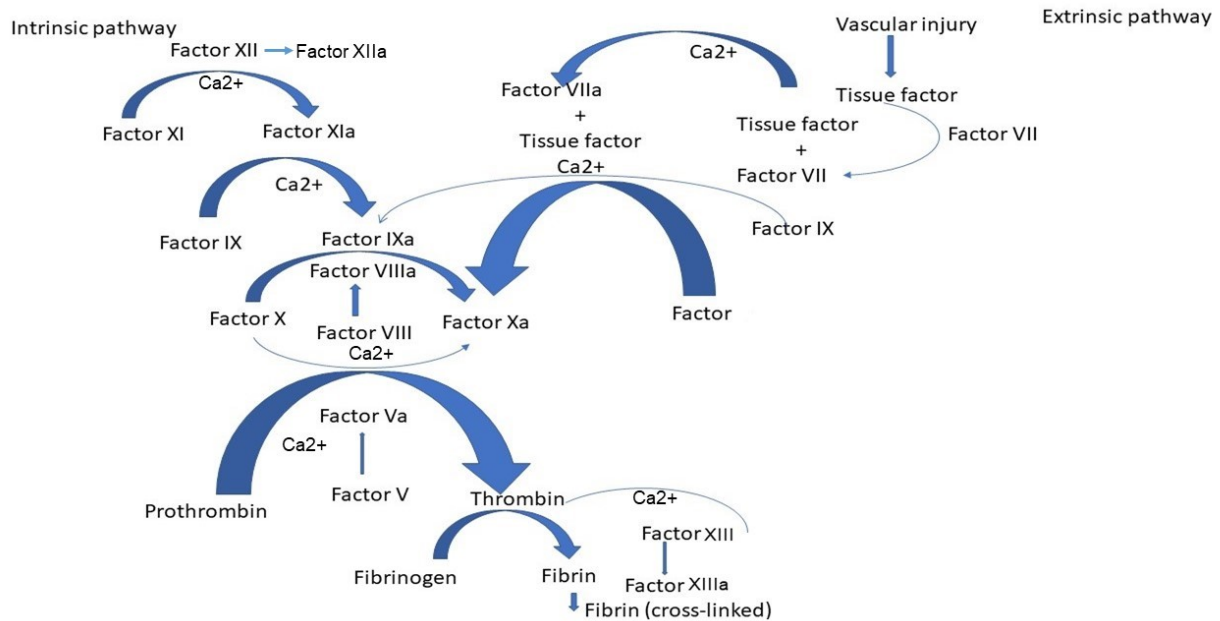


Figure 2.2: A diagram showing the coagulation pathway, where thrombin initiates the conversion of fibrinogen to fibrin clot formation. Redrawn from (Swanepoel et al 2015).⁶³

2.3 Roles of Fibrinogen and Fibrin

Fibrinogen plays a major role in thrombosis, haemostasis and inflammation.⁶⁷ Fibrinogen serves as a precursor to fibrin. For the clot to expand and to gain strength, fibrinogen must be converted to fibrin.⁶⁸ Fibrinogen circulates in plasma at a concentration of two to five mg/mL over a period of approximately for four days. However, during severe inflammation fibrinogen levels increase and exceed approximately to seven mg/mL.⁶⁹ The strength of the clot depends on thrombin cleaving fibrinogen into fibrin monomers, which then form fibrin polymers. Fibrin plays a vital role in haemostasis as both the main product of the coagulation cascade and a substrate for fibrinolysis.¹⁷

In coagulation, fibrinogen increases blood viscosity.⁶⁸ It also acts as a bridge between platelets by binding to GPIIb/IIIa receptor on platelet surface, resulting in platelet aggregation and eventually leading to thrombus formation.⁷⁰ Fibrinogen is also a substrate for thrombin which converts it to fibrin, the final step in the coagulation cascade. After tissue damage, fibrin strands cover the damage site, by protecting the tissue while it heals. Together, the platelet aggregates and cross-linked fibrin form a stable clot, which covers the site of injury, and prevent excessive blood loss. The fibrin

network also serves as a framework for the binding of endothelial cells, leukocytes, platelets, and plasma proteins to the clot.⁷¹

During inflammatory conditions, circulating fibrinogen, FVII, FVIII as well as TF are elevated which might increase predisposition to clot formation.⁷² The increased fibrinogen, FVII, FVIII as well as TF are associated with both inflammation and IR.⁷³ The concurrent increase in circulating TF and FVII might also increase risk of initiation of the coagulation cascade. FXII has been linked with clot compactness suggesting that the elevated level of FXII increases clot formation by forming a denser clot.⁷⁴

With inflammation and cardiovascular events clot resolution is impaired. During thrombotic events elevated levels of fibrinogen and oxidative stress causes formation of abnormal fibrin fibers. These abnormal fibrin fibers have been detected as dense matted deposits (DMDs) and RBCs may be trapped in the mesh of these fibers.⁷⁵ Formation of tighter clots with impaired fibrinolysis have been detected in conditions such inflammatory diseases.⁷⁶⁻⁷⁷ Evidence has shown that one of the features of inflammatory conditions is hypercoagulability, which is defined as abnormal coagulation and is a risk factor for thrombosis.⁷⁸⁻⁸⁰ Elevated levels of fibrinogen is linked with hypercoagulability and this can result in a changed clotting profile.⁷⁹ Researchers have shown how fibrin is changed in inflammatory conditions.⁸⁰⁻⁸¹ Instead of a typical net appearance seen in healthy individuals, the fibrin fibers form DMDs with fiber diameters being smaller when compared to normal healthy fibers.⁸² These DMDs may be the cause of higher prevalence of thrombotic events.⁸³ Usually with healthy fibrin clot fibers there are both thick major and thin minor fibers with the thick fibers being prominent.⁸⁴

2.4 Role of RBCs in coagulation

RBCs are responsible for oxygen transport throughout the body, however, they are also active in clotting processes.⁸⁵ RBCs contribute to coagulation in the following ways: (a) by increasing blood viscosity in shear stress and (b) aligning of platelets close to the site of injury.⁸⁶ Evidence suggests that the RBCs increase coagulation factors and platelet aggregation.⁸⁷ Mature RBCs contain a plasma membrane with proteins, lipids and carbohydrates.⁸⁸ The proteins connect the bilayer with integral membrane proteins.⁸⁸ The outer bilayer is made up of membrane lipids including phospholipids, glycolipids and cholesterol. Four major classes of phospholipids are

arranged asymmetrically, PS and phosphatidylethanolamine on the inside and phosphatidylcholine and sphingomyelin on the outside.⁸⁸ Cholesterol is distributed equally between the phospholipid bilayer. The phospholipids and cholesterol play a key role in the structural integrity and stability of RBC membrane.¹⁵ Disruption of the lipid asymmetry leads to externalization of PS, which is thought to contribute to the premature destruction of RBCs.⁸⁸ Effective blood coagulation involves an adequate prothrombotic surface for the assembly of FXa and FVa. These factors catalyse the conversion of prothrombin to thrombin. The prothrombotic surface can be provided by cells that express PS, a negatively charged phospholipid. It was thought that only activated platelets can express PS. However, in conditions like apoptosis, inflammation or oxidative stress RBCs lose their membrane asymmetry resulting in the exposure of PS.⁸⁹ Thus, a percentage of RBCs express PS on their outer surface and this helps in the assembly of coagulation factors FXa and FVa, which catalyzes formation of thrombin from prothrombin ultimately resulting in clot formation. *In vitro* studies have also shown that RBCs can support thrombin generation and promote fibrin deposition during venous thrombosis.⁹⁰ RBCs play an additional role in fibrinolysis by suppressing plasmin generation and inhibiting clot dissolution.⁹¹ They also increase the sizes of pores in the fibrin network structure but decrease fibrin network permeability.⁹²⁻⁹³

2.4.1 RBC deformability

Deformability refers to the ability of the RBC to change shape.⁹⁴ Under shear stress, healthy RBCs are flexible and can deform from biconcave-discoid shapes to elongated structures enabling them to pass through tiny capillaries. Impaired RBC deformability has been associated with inflammatory diseases like T2DM.⁹⁵ Inflammatory conditions such as T2DM, rheumatoid arthritis (RA), hereditary hemochromatosis, Parkinson's disease and Alzheimer's disease (AD), and stroke impair RBC deformability and alter RBC membrane properties such as rigidity, stiffness and elasticity.⁹⁵⁻⁹⁶ Oxidative stress and chronic inflammation are known to decrease RBCs deformability that alters RBC morphology.⁹⁷

2.4.2 RBC aggregation

RBC aggregation is associated with inflammation.⁹⁸ Increased RBC aggregation is related to increased plasma fibrinogen.⁹⁸ An increase in plasma concentration of fibrinogen can result in RBC aggregation associated with thrombosis.⁸⁶ Inflammatory

conditions are reported as examples of clinical situations with increased RBC aggregation.⁹⁸⁻⁹⁹ The fibrinogen molecules attach to the membrane surface of RBC and this encourages RBC aggregation.¹⁰⁰ The attachment of fibrinogen to the RBC membrane not only increases RBCs aggregation but also blood viscosity is influenced. An increase in blood viscosity makes it difficult for RBCs to move through microvessels, resulting in decreased blood flow in numerous clinical states.¹⁰¹⁻¹⁰² An increase in blood viscosity and fibrin concentration correlate with and are predictors of cardiovascular diseases and are key factors in the development of atherosclerosis.¹⁰³⁻¹⁰⁴ Atherosclerosis is an inflammatory disease caused by the formation of plaque inside the artery walls.⁴³ The plaque is likely to contain RBCs, fibrinogen, and platelets. The stages of atherosclerosis includes immune cells with reduced nitric oxide and increased levels of ROS which causes endothelial dysfunction.¹⁰⁵

2.5 Role of Platelets in Coagulation

Platelets are not only central to primary haemostasis but are also involved in secondary haemostasis where they assist in coagulation, thrombin generation and fibrin formation. Platelets activate coagulation by interacting with glycoprotein receptors or through exposed phospholipids on the surface of the platelets following activation. During injury, vWF binds to platelet receptor GPIb/IX/V that causes activation of platelets. The organization of the phospholipids between the inner and outer leaflets of the platelet membrane is asymmetrical and this regulates coagulation.¹⁰⁶ When platelets are in resting state PS along with anionic phospholipids are located on the inner leaflet of bilayer.¹⁰⁷ Upon platelet activation with thrombin and collagen or shear stress, PS moves from inside to outer leaflet of the platelet membrane. The movement enables thrombin generation by an increase in the activation of prothrombin to thrombin and FXI to FXIa and provides a negatively charge surface binding sites for FVa and FVIIIa.¹⁰⁸ These are both integral steps in the coagulation cascade. Also, platelets take over the initiating role of TF and FVIIa in the coagulation cascade.

When platelets adhere to high concentrations of collagen via GPVI, they expose PS at their outer surface and when the PS is exposed, there is a distinctive change in platelet shape and aggregation.¹⁰⁹ During this shape change, platelets lose most of their cytoskeletal structure, round off to balloon-like structures forming membrane

blebs. The membrane bleb is a bulging or protrusion in the plasma membrane of the cell that is caused by decoupling of the cytoskeleton from the plasma membrane.¹¹⁰ The blebbling of plasma membrane is a morphological feature of cells that are undergoing late stages of apoptosis.¹¹⁰ Platelets that undergo severe blebbing in this manner generate microparticles which also contribute to thrombin generation which increase coagulation in blood.¹¹¹

Platelets also function as storage sites for proteins involved in blood coagulation and its regulation.⁵⁹ The signalling events that are involved in platelet activation also induce a conformational change in the GPIIb/IIIa complex, enabling it to bind to vWF and fibrinogen, which strengthens the clot and induces platelet aggregation.¹¹² Platelets also provide a framework for the formation of fibrin fibers. Once the fibrin clots are formed, they regulate the process of clot dissolution.¹¹³

2.5.1 Platelet morphology and function

Platelets are the smallest blood cells with a diameter of two to three micrometers (μm), discoid in shape, anucleate with a mean cell volume of seven to ten femtolitre and live for eight to ten days. Platelets are formed from precursor cells called megakaryocytes in the bone marrow. Their normal count is $(150\text{--}400) \times 10^3$ per microliter in whole blood (WB).¹¹⁴

Platelets perform several functions in blood coagulation. When there is injury to blood vessels, platelets respond by changing shape, secreting their granule contents and progressively adhere to each other by forming aggregates.¹¹⁵ Platelets function to minimize blood loss when endothelial injury occurs and also to maintain vascular tone, participate in inflammation, host defence and tumor biology.¹¹⁶

A visible component of the plasma membrane of platelets, are indented invaginations called open canalicular system (OCS), a tunnel that is present throughout the cell and is connected with plasma membrane. OCS performs three vital functions: i) it allows external elements to enter into platelets and facilitates the release of its granule contents to the outside; ii) it is a main storage site for plasma membrane glycoproteins; iii) during platelet activation, it enables formation of filopodia.¹¹⁷ Present in platelets are a closed network channel called the dense tubular system (DTS) of residual endoplasmic reticulum which function to sequester calcium ions.¹¹⁸ The discoid shape of a resting platelet is characterized by a well-defined and highly specialized

cytoskeleton and this is maintained by three major components including the spectrin-based membrane skeleton, the actin cytoskeleton, and the marginal microtubule coil. Besides mitochondria, peroxisomes, and lysosomes, granules are also present. Platelets are characterised by a variety of biologically active molecules in their granules. These molecules are essential for coagulation and inflammation.¹¹⁹ There are two main granules namely alpha and dense granules. The most abundant granules are alpha (α) granules, and they store most proteins that are important for platelet adhesion such as fibrinogen. Dense granules function primarily to recruit more platelets to a site of injury. Also stored in the dense granules are some molecules secreted to induce further platelet activation. The molecules in dense granules include catecholamine, serotonin, calcium, adenosine 5'-diphosphate (ADP) and adenosine 5'-triphosphate (ATP).¹²⁰

Platelets contain membrane receptors that are integrated within their outermost layer of the platelet membrane. The receptors include GPIIb, GPIV, GPV and are an important component of platelet function. These receptors bind adhesive agents, aggregating agents, inhibitors and procoagulant factors essential to normal platelet function.¹²¹⁻¹²² GPIIb/IIIa is a protein that binds fibrin and fibrinogen thus facilitating platelet-platelet interaction, while GPIa/IIa facilitates adhesion to collagen.¹²³⁻¹²⁴ Platelets contain a number of active molecules stored in their granule contents. In case of tissue injury the molecules are delivered to an injury site and their role is to recruit other cells.¹²⁰ Before platelet activation, these granules are in close proximity with the OCS. With platelet activation, the granules fuse with the platelet plasma membrane and are secreted into the OCS.¹²⁵ Alpha granules contains proteins like GPIIbIIIa, P-selectin, and CD36.¹²⁵ Upon platelet activation an adhesive protein (P-selectin) redistributes from its storage site in alpha granules and is exposed at the platelet membrane surface. Once P-selectin is on platelet membrane surface, it recruits neutrophils via neutrophil receptor P-selectin glycoprotein ligand (PGSL).¹²⁶⁻¹²⁷ The increased expression of P-selectin on the membrane and in plasma occurs during thrombin-induced platelet activation.¹²⁸ CD36 reacts with oxidized lipids in hyperlipidemic mice, enhancing prothrombosis and increasing risk for atherosclerosis.¹²⁹

The organization of phospholipids between the inner and outer layer is asymmetrical and this enables platelets to regulate coagulation.¹²⁰ Present on the inner layer are an

abundance of negatively charged phospholipids, which maintain the platelet surface in a non-procoagulant state. The phospholipids also play a role in coagulation by activating coagulation FX to Xa and prothrombin to thrombin eventually leading to formation of the clot.¹³⁰ Also expressed on the membrane surface of platelet following activation are different surface receptors such as CD63 and CD9.¹¹⁴ CD63 is a lysosomal integral membrane protein. When the platelet is in an inactive state, CD63 is present on the plasma membrane of dense granules and lysosomes. Upon platelet activation, CD63 relocates to the plasma membrane where it binds with platelet integrin $\alpha\text{IIb}\beta_3$ -CD9 complex.¹³¹ CD63 enables activated platelets to spread over fibrinogen. CD63 also allows the activated platelet to form a complex with the platelet main fibrinogen receptor (GPIIb/IIIa/ $\alpha\text{IIb}\beta_3$) and CD9. Figure 2.3 is a scanning electron micrograph of a healthy platelet. The membrane of platelets is filled with surface receptors that play a role in signal-dependent platelet activation.

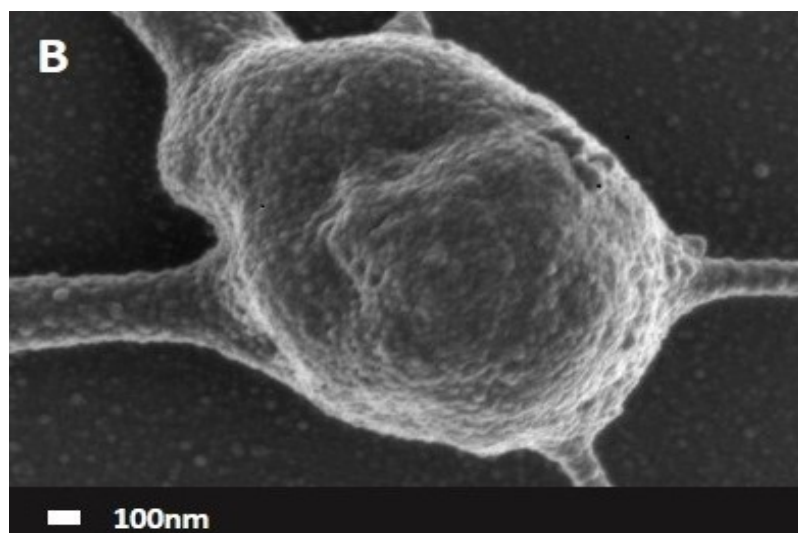


Figure 2.3: Scanning electron micrograph (SEM) of WB showing a platelet from a control participant on a relatively healthy diet inclusive of carbohydrates. 100X magnification of platelet with slightly projected pseudopodia. Scale= 1 μm .

2.5.2 Platelets, Inflammation and atherosclerosis

Platelets play an important role in conditions such as inflammation, atherogenesis and atherothrombosis as they adhere to vasculature by releasing their bioactive mediators. Studies have shown that some markers of platelet activation are elevated in diabetes and obesity.¹³²⁻¹³³ These markers include mean platelet volume (MPV), soluble CD40 ligand and P-selectin. The MPV is a marker of interest as it is linked with *in vivo* platelet activation, hence platelet activation is associated with diseases that involve thrombosis and inflammation.¹³³ Increased MPV has been observed in diabetic

patients, hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, smoking and obesity.¹³⁴⁻¹³⁵ Furthermore, a number of studies have reported MPV as a marker for predicting CVD risk.¹³⁴⁻¹³⁵ Of interest to our study is the inflammatory marker, sCD40 ligand which is released from activated platelets and is also increased in people with diabetes and CVD.¹³⁶ Also, important to our study is a protein called P-selectin, which is synthesized by platelets and stored in α -granules. During the inflammatory response, this protein is released onto the platelet surface.¹³⁶⁻¹³⁷ P-selectin and CD40L are important to the platelet's capacity to form aggregates with each other, with leukocytes and facilitates their adhesion to the endothelium.¹³⁸⁻¹³⁹ These proteins, thus facilitate platelets participation in atherothrombosis.

Research performed on rats fed a HFD, showed that the HFD alters platelet aggregation and signalling through its ADP receptors.¹⁴⁰

2.6 The Banting Diet in South Africa

In South Africa, one of the popular versions of the HFD currently trending among individuals avoiding the pitfalls of high carbohydrate intake is the Banting diet. The promoter of this diet is Tim David Noakes, a medical doctor and scientist with an extensive background in Exercise Physiology who took an interest in dietary impact on this field. Dr Noakes named the diet after an eminent Englishman who popularized the diet following successful application of it in overcoming obesity. His curricular and extracurricular advocacy for limiting carbohydrate intake via scientific publications and participation in popular sports made him a respected icon in South Africa as well as internationally. Several of his publications provide insight into research outcomes showing the impact of limiting carbohydrates (and or high fat intake) on physiological status of individuals involved in sports¹⁴¹⁻¹⁴³, affected by obesity^{10,144} or psychological health.¹⁴⁵⁻¹⁴⁶ Due to the prominence of the Banting diet, being the most common LCHF diet in South Africa, we focused on selecting individuals on this diet as participants for the LCHF group in our study.

CHAPTER 3: (SCANNING ELECTRON MICROSCOPY)

3.1 Aims and Objectives

The aim in this chapter is to demonstrate the differences between ultrastructural findings on RBCs, fibrin, and platelets in participants on an LCHF diet compared to controls.

To achieve this aim, our objectives are to:

- Apply scanning electron microscopy (SEM) to examine cells within blood samples obtained from individuals in both groups
- Generate and present findings as qualitative and quantitative data using relevant software
- Use statistical software to compare quantitative data outcomes from both groups
- Discuss differences detected between the groups so as to draw inferences on how diet may affect the morphology of red blood cells, platelets and the overall structure of fibrin fibers.

3.2 Introduction

Electron microscopy started with the new venture of electron optics first used in 1926 when Busch studied the trajectories of charged particles in axially symmetric electric and magnetic fields. In 1963, Pease and Nixon collectively put all the improvements in one instrument: the SEM V with three magnetic lenses and an Everhart–Thornley detector.¹⁴⁷ From the original instrument in 1965 a first from first commercial SEM, was developed in 1965.¹⁴⁸ Therefore the principle behind the SEM as is used now, is not very different from the first instrument except in better resolution at higher levels of magnification. Currently SEM is a widely used instrument to study in detail the surface structure of samples of interest. SEM is an evolving and a very sensitive ultrastructural technique that can convey very specific changes to individual cells and fibrin packaging, involved in clotting.^{85,149}

The SEM used in the current study can produce a very high magnification of up to 1,000,000 x magnification to and is able to reveal the details of cells up to less than ten nanometers. This allows the study of the surface properties of a cell producing an image of high quality.

RBCs are very specialized cells which are round, discoid in shape and whose main function is to transport oxygen throughout the blood. RBCs also play a vital role in coagulation and inflammation ¹⁵⁰. RBCs are different from most cells due to the fact that they are without organelles such as nuclei, mitochondria and ribosomes. Their plasma membrane serves as their most revealing feature when studying age related alterations changes in terms of structure and function. The fact that they are devoid of organelles makes them sensitive to oxidative stressors.¹⁵¹ RBCs are also sensitive to increased inflammatory cytokines and in a number of diseases this is associated with inflammation.¹⁵ The presence of inflammation alters RBC structure including shape, elasticity, structural deformability and changes in blood rheology/viscosity. In a study recently done on HFD rats, it was reported that chronic high fat feeding in mice induced structural, biochemical and functional alterations in RBCs.¹⁵² During inflammatory conditions more cells are different from the normally shaped RBCs (discocytes) due to change to their shapes and sizes. The term that is used for the diverse shapes is poikilocytosis and these include leptocytes, stomatocytes, knizocytes, echinocytes, acanthocytes and dacrocytes.

Table 3.1: RBC morphology with description.

RBC morphology	Description
Discocytes	Have a biconcave shape with round hollow depression in the center. ¹⁵³
Leptocytes	Are thin flat cells, peripheral with a large diameter, center area filled with hemoglobin. ¹⁵⁴
Stomatocyte	Are oval with cup-shaped with a c-shaped central cavity. ¹⁵³
Knizocytes.	Have a pinched appearance in the center and the area can be increased. ¹⁵⁵
Echinocytes	Have short spicules and the spicules are spaced symmetrically. ¹⁵⁶
Acanthocytes	Have irregularly shape projections which are asymmetrical. ¹⁵⁷
Dacrocytes	Have a tear-drop shape with one end round and the other one pointed. ¹⁵⁷
RBC Agglutination	RBCs are clumped together forming a stack.

Platelets perform several functions, one of their primary functions being to stop bleeding. When there is damage to blood vessels, platelet activation respond by changing shape, spreading, secreting their granule contents, progressively adhering to each other, forming aggregates and eventually forming a clot.¹⁵⁸ The formation of the clot minimizes the loss of blood at the site of injury. Activation of platelets result in platelet degranulation where different molecules are released. This is to recruit more platelets to support in the process of tissue repair.⁶³ Platelet signalling pathways involved during platelet aggregation includes G_i -coupled platelet receptor for adenosine ($P2Y_{12}$) which activate platelets by stimulating the release of ADP from dense bodies.^{72,159} The release of ADP then stimulate platelet shape change forming pseudopodia.¹⁶⁰ The anti-aggregatory effect of insulin has been demonstrated in platelets. In healthy people insulin has been shown to inhibit platelet aggregation by suppressing the $P2Y_{12}$ receptor.¹⁶¹ A recent study in rats also showed that HFD alters platelet aggregation and purinergic signalling.¹⁴⁰ Using SEM, we can detect shape changes that are associated with hyperactivity and hyper-aggregation.

Also involved in coagulation are fibrin networks that form during the secondary haemostasis where they form a network over the wound and protects it as it heals. During tissue injury, fibrin networks form a loose net-like structure that acts as a plug to seal the injured tissue.⁶³ Usually with healthy fibrin clot fibers, there are both thick major and thin minor fibers with the thick fibers being predominant.⁷² For the fibrin network to be formed, thrombin is needed to convert fibrinogen to fibrin. The concentration of thrombin is so important in fibrin formation due to its effects on the thickness and density of the clot.¹⁶² Thrombin plays a very important role in regulating blood clotting where increased levels in blood can lead to hypercoagulability, increased clot stiffness, and inhibit fibrinolysis.¹⁷ Hypercoagulability is a feature of inflammation and its presence can result in dense fibrin clots composed of abnormally highly branched thin fibers.¹⁶³⁻¹⁶⁴ Visible characteristics such as dense fibrin clots and highly branched thin fibers were shown to be related to coronary heart disease.¹⁶⁵

3.3 Materials and Methods

3.3.1 Participants

Sample population

Ethical clearance for the study was obtained from the University of Pretoria, Faculty of Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee. Sixty-four individuals volunteered as participants in this study. Thirty-two individuals on a LCHF diet were recruited from a market, selling products that are low in carbohydrates and high in fat, specifically established for people on the Banting diet (hereon termed “Banting Market”) in Pretoria, South Africa. The inclusion criteria were: (a) participants older than eighteen years willing to provide full written informed consent, (b) participants on LCHF diet for at least three months or more. Exclusion criteria included: a) smoking, b) excessive alcohol use (more than two glasses of red wine per day), c) chronic diseases (and those on medication) such as T2DM, hypertension, d) chronic and acute use of any medication. Familial hypercholesterolemia was considered a potential confounder, and so participants with the disorder were excluded from the study. All participants signed informed consent before any procedures were performed. Once LCHF diet participants were identified, they were asked to fast for at least twelve hours prior to their visit. We provided a questionnaire to obtain information on each participant’s diet history, medical history, smoking habits, alcohol intake and use of chronic medication. Height and weight were measured with the participants being in a standing position barefoot. Body mass index was calculated as weight in kilograms divided by the square of height in meters. The body mass index was categorized according to WHO cut-offs.¹⁶⁶ The systolic and diastolic blood pressure as well as heart rate were measured.

Blood sample collection

All procedures were performed on two groups: (1) Participants on a normal diet (control group) (2) Participants on the LCHF diet (LCHF group). Blood samples were collected from all individuals meeting the inclusion criteria. Blood was drawn by a qualified doctor upon completion of an informed consent form by each participant. Blood samples were collected via venipuncture from all participants. Two milliliters (ml) of blood from each participant was drawn into a citrate tube. Within thirty minutes of the collection of blood, sample preparation was performed on the samples for microscopic analysis.

3.3.2 Sample Preparation for SEM of RBCs, platelets and fibrin fibers

To prepare the WB samples for SEM analysis, ten microlitre (μL) of WB was pipetted from the sodium citrate tube and smeared onto a glass coverslip (LASEC, South Africa) and prepared in triplicate. To make smears for platelets, WB was centrifuged at $6.70 \times g$ for fifteen minutes and ten μL of supernatant platelet-rich plasma (PRP) was pipetted onto a glass coverslip. To obtain fibrin fibers, the PRP was transferred to a 1.5 ml eppendorf tube and further centrifuged for ten minutes to obtain platelet-poor plasma (PPP). The PPP was used to make fibrin smears, ten μL of PPP was pipetted onto coverslip and to induce fibrin formation, five μL of thrombin (South African National Blood Services) was added.

All the samples on coverslips were incubated at room temperature for ten minutes. The samples were placed in a twenty-four well plate and washed with phosphate buffered solution (PBS) 0.075 M (pH = 7.4) for twenty minutes. For primary fixation, samples were fixed in 4% formaldehyde for thirty minutes. Following primary fixation, the smears were then washed three times in PBS for three minutes. For the secondary fixation, the samples were placed in 1% osmium tetroxide (OsO_4) for fifteen minutes. The samples were again washed three times with PBS for three minutes. The samples were then serially dehydrated in 30%, 50%, 70%, 90% and 100% ethanol for three minutes each. The final dehydration step using 100% ethanol was repeated three times.

The samples were dried using hexamethyldisilazane and coated with carbon before being viewed with a Zeiss Ultra PLUS FEG SEM (Carl Zeiss Microscopy Europe, Germany). All the samples were viewed at the Microscopy and Microanalysis Unit, at the University of Pretoria. The software that was used to analyse fibrin fiber network was STATA.

3.3.3 Statistical Analysis.

The analyses of the fibrin clot network was performed using ImageJ (ImageJ is a public domain, Java-based image processing program developed at the National Institutes of Health (<http://rsbweb.nih.gov/ij/>)) Images of thrombi-activated PPP clot matrices (triplicates or more) were captured at a magnification of twenty-thousand times for twenty-three controls and thirty-two LCHF participants. The captured images were subjected to ImageJ Histogram analysis, which yielded standard deviation and mean gray values. Coefficient of variation values were further derived by dividing the

standard deviation by mean values. Coefficient of variation serves to ensure that any variability in picture properties (like brightness and contrast) do not affect the derived values. These generated and calculated values served as matrices for comparing differences between visual properties of images captured for control and LCHF participants. A Mann-Whitney test was used to compare standard deviation and coefficient of variation values between the control and LCHF groups with significance set at 0.05. The GraphPad Prism software (version 5.03 for Windows, GraphPad Software, San Diego, California USA, www.graphpad.com) was used for statistical analyses.

3.4 Results

The dietary composition of LCHF participants were analysed as shown in Table 3.2 to get mean, standard deviation and IQR and the mean intake of fat was high followed by low mean carbohydrates and moderate mean proteins.

Table 3.2: Intake of fat, protein and carbohydrates in LCHF participants in grams, showing mean, SD, median and IQR analysed from percent.

Dietary	Mean \pm SD	median	Median (IQR)
Fat	56.16 \pm 17.04	60	20 (70-50)
Protein	31.47 \pm 12.65	30	5.75 (30-24.25)
Carbohydrates	12.38 \pm 8.809	10	9.75 (16-6.25)

Demographic information of the participants is shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 shows demographic data of our study participants distinguishing controls and LCHF participants. Compared to controls, both female and male participants in the LCHF group were older. The mean body weight in kilograms (kg) for the LCHF group was lower in female vs male LCHF participants with a mean (76.5 vs 89.1). The body mass index in kilograms per meter squared (kg/m^2) was insignificantly different for female vs male LCHF participants with a mean of (28.5 vs 28.4). The blood pressure in millimetres of mercury (mm Hg) was within normal range, with a mean of females (125.3 vs 136.3) in males for systolic pressure while female vs male means were (80.6 vs 81.0) for diastolic pressure. The total cholesterol in millimoles per liter

(mmol/L) for LCHF participants was higher than normal with a median of 5.70 mmol/L in females compared to 5.67 for males.

Table 3.3: Demographics of study participants.

Variables		n (%)	Mean \pm SE	Median [IQR]	Min, Max
Control Age	Females	16 (50)	33.3 \pm 2.8	29 [24.5 to 42]	23, 57
	Males	16 (50)	32.8 \pm 2.6	32 [25.5 to 38]	18, 60
LCHF Age	Females	24 (75)	42.6 \pm 2.2	45 [34 to 48.5]	17, 64
	Males	8 (25)	49.9 \pm 4.5	47.5 [42 to 57]	34, 72
LCHF body weight (kg)	Females	24 (75)	76.5 \pm 16.8	74 [63.9 to 87.9]	
	Males	8 (25)	89.1 \pm 22.2	84 [77.8 to 96.9]	
LCHF height (cm)	Females	24 (75)	1.64 \pm 0.07	1.6 [1.58 to 1.69]	
	Males	8 (25)	1.77 \pm 0.08	1.7 [1.75 to 1.83]	
LCHF body mass index kg/m ²	Females	24 (75)	28.5 \pm 6.2	28 [23.9 to 31.2]	
	Males	8 (25)	28.4 \pm 7.42	26 [24.2 to 29.7]	
LCHF waist circumference (cm)	Females	20 (63)	90.7 \pm 16.9	90 [77.5 to 100.5]	
	Males	8 (25)	92.0 \pm 16.7	91 [78.8 to 104.8]	
LCHF systolic blood pressure (mm Hg)	Females	22 (69)	125.3 \pm 17.9	126 [114 to 135.3]	
	Males	8 (25)	136.3 \pm 23.7	127 [123.3 to 142.3]	
LCHF diastolic blood pressure (mm Hg)	Females	22 (69)	80.5 \pm 10.8	81 [71 to 86.8]	
	Males	8 (25)	81.0 \pm 14.6	76 [69.5 to 92.3]	
LCHF pulse	Females	21 (66)	67.4 \pm 11.3	66 [71 to 79]	
	Males	7 (22)	75.5 \pm 7.72	75 [60.5 to 78.5]	
LCHF total cholesterol mmol/L	Females	22 (69)	5.70 \pm 1.36	5.30 [4.85 to 6.23]	
	Males	8 (25)	5.67 \pm 0.98	5.72 [5.36 to 6.17]	

SE=Standard Error, IQR= Interquartile Range

The results for SEM analysis were as follows:

3.4.1 SEM of RBCs

The majority of the participants in both groups had normally shaped discocytes as shown in Figure 3.1.

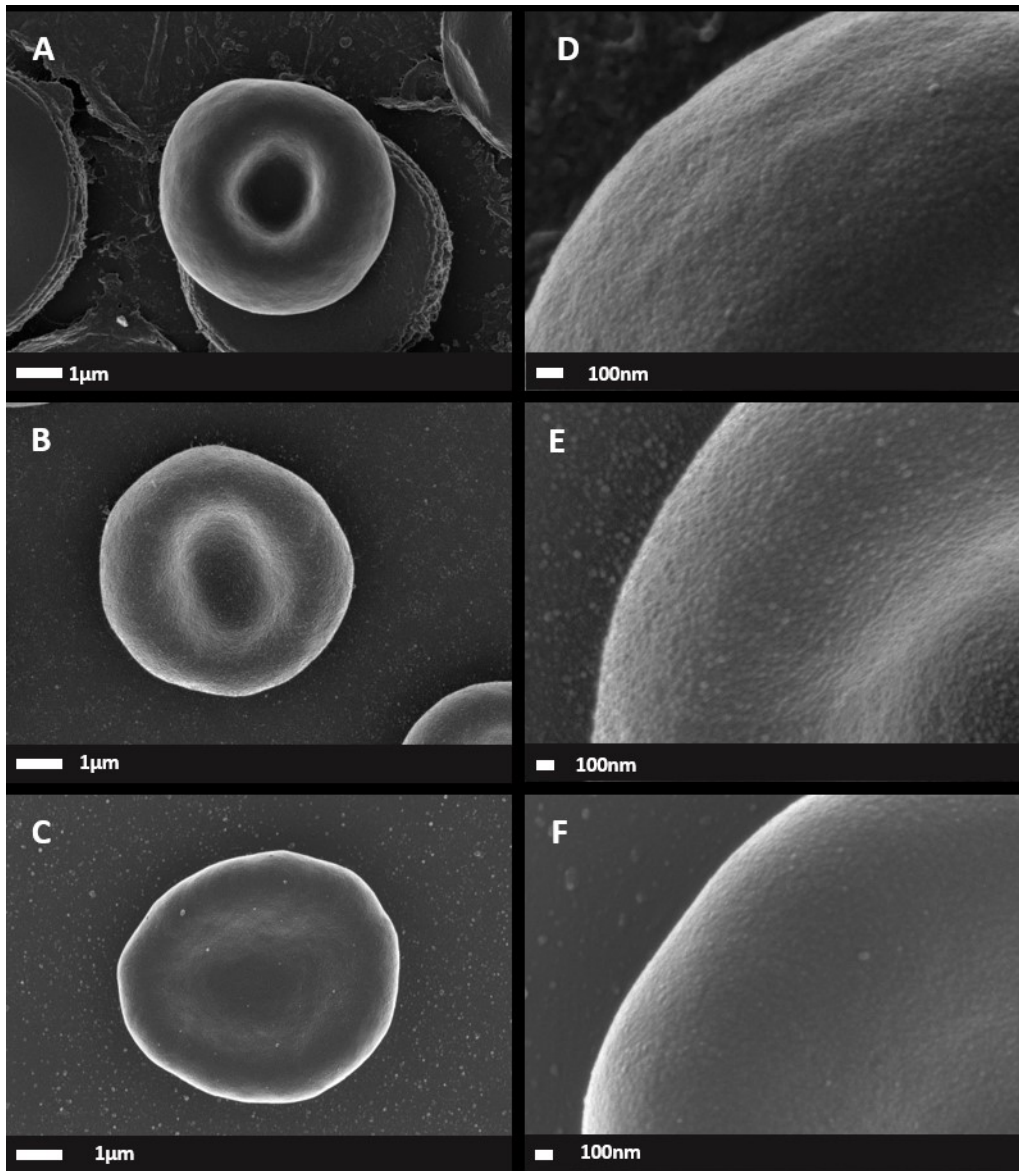


Figure 3.1: SEM images of RBCs in WB smear. Images on the left (A to C) are low magnifications of the same RBCs on the right (100X magnification). (A and B) Individuals on a control diet (C) Individual on an LCHF diet. High resolution images show minimal to no differences in membrane structure of cells and no microparticle budding. (Scale = 1 μ m).

A few poikilocytes (primarily echinocytes) were seen among RBCs from controls and these are shown in Figure 3.2.

Other distinct poikilocytes were observed in LCHF participants as shown in Figure 3.3.

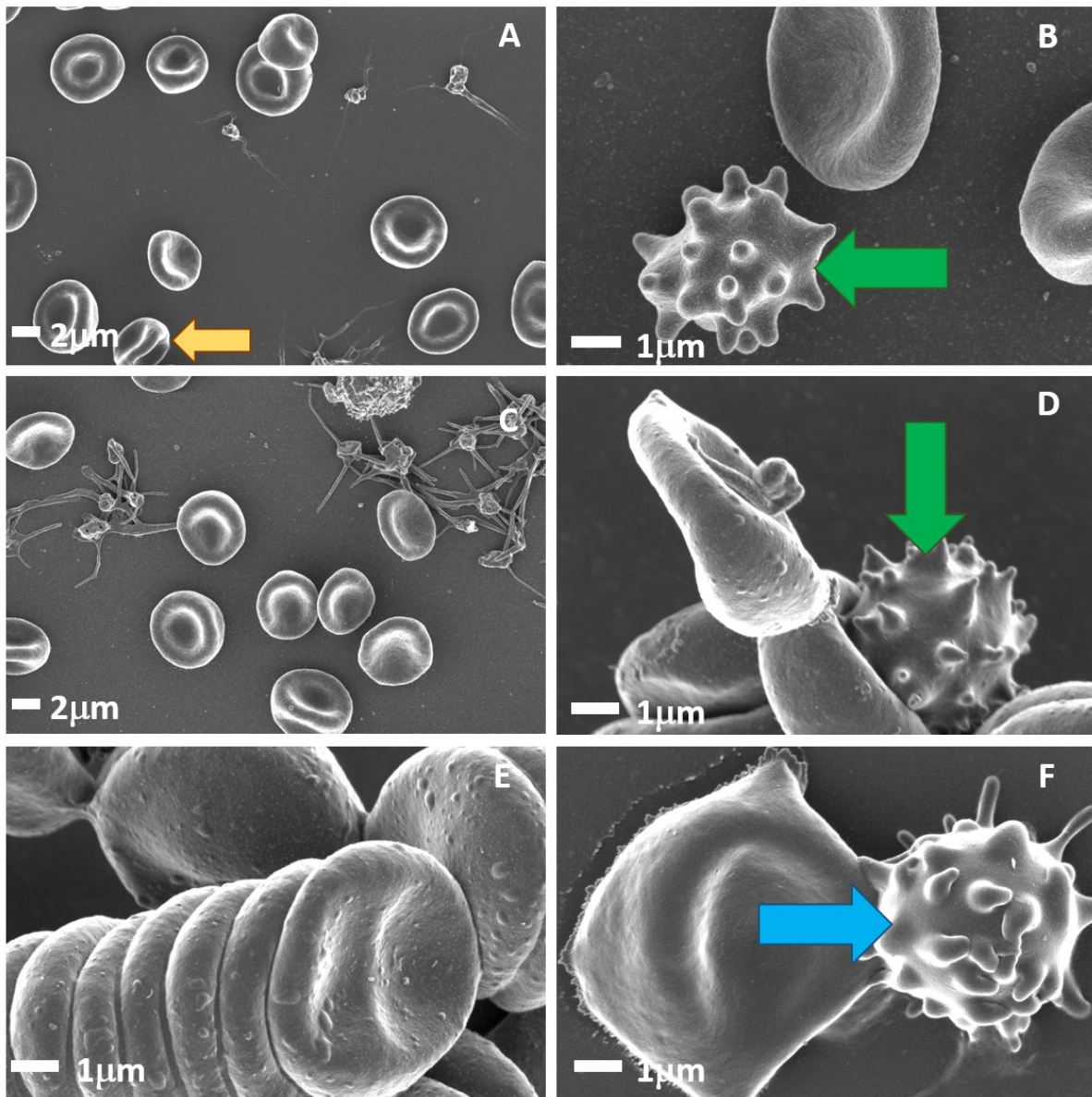


Figure 3.2: SEM in WB smear for controls (A) normally shaped discocytes, knizocyte (orange arrow), (B) Eryptotic echinocytes (burr cells) (green arrow), (C) A micrograph showing mostly discocytes and activated adjacent platelets, (D) Platelet attached to aggregated RBC, one of which is an echinocyte (green arrow), (E) Agglutinated RBCs (rouleaux), (F) Acanthocytes (blue arrow) attached to a boat cell.

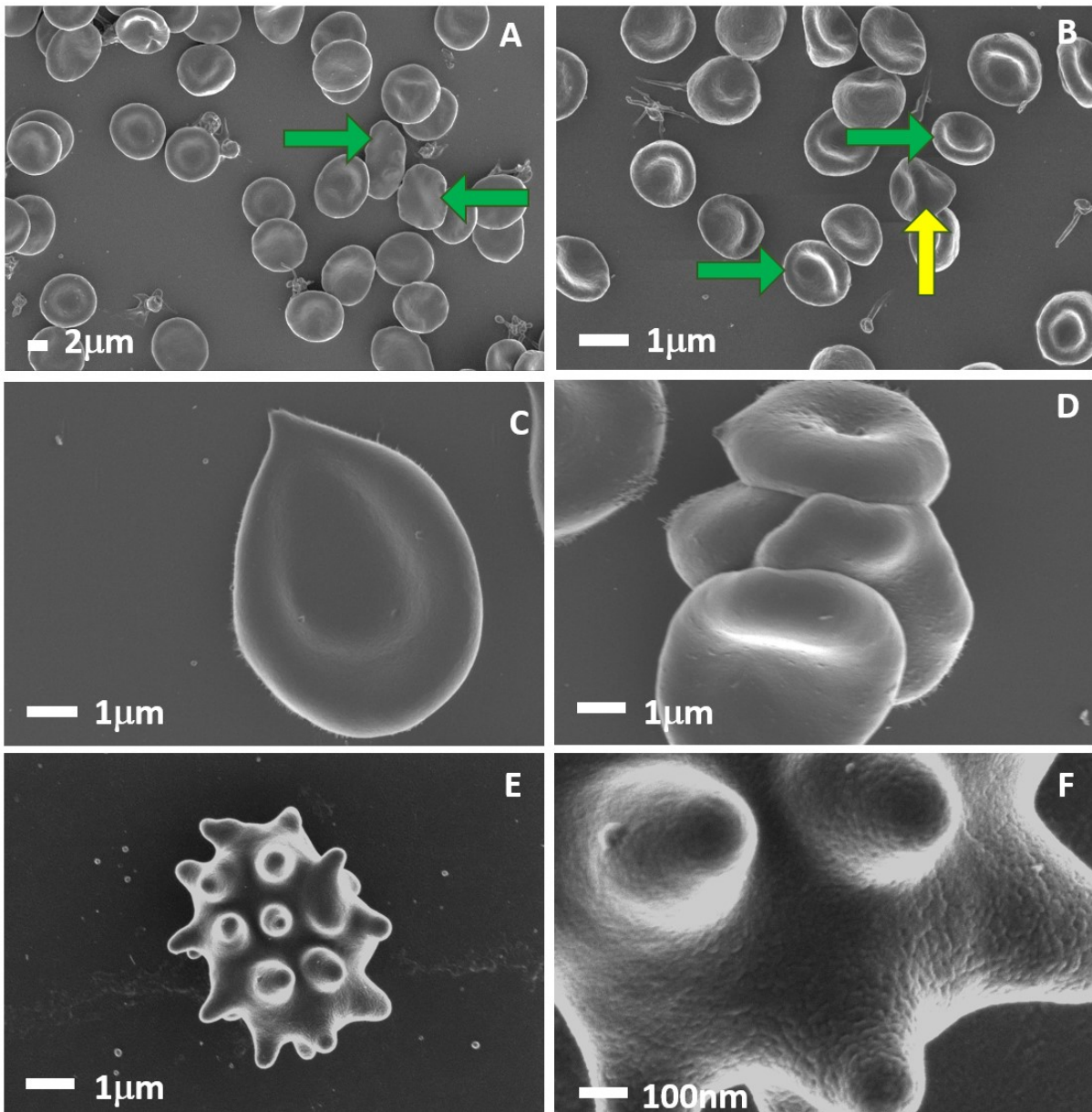


Figure 3.3: SEM of a WB smear from participants on an LCHF diet showing A: Mostly discocytes but there were some leptocytes (green arrows) alongside mildly activated platelets, B: Other distinct poikilocytes identified were the stomatocyte (green arrows) and knizocyte (yellow arrow), C: A micrograph showing a dacrocyte, D: A RBC aggregate, E: An echinocyte or burr cell, F: 100X magnified image of cell in E.

3.4.2 SEM of platelets

For participants on a healthy diet, platelets with some pseudopodia and minimally spread lamellipodia were detected as shown in Figure 3.4.

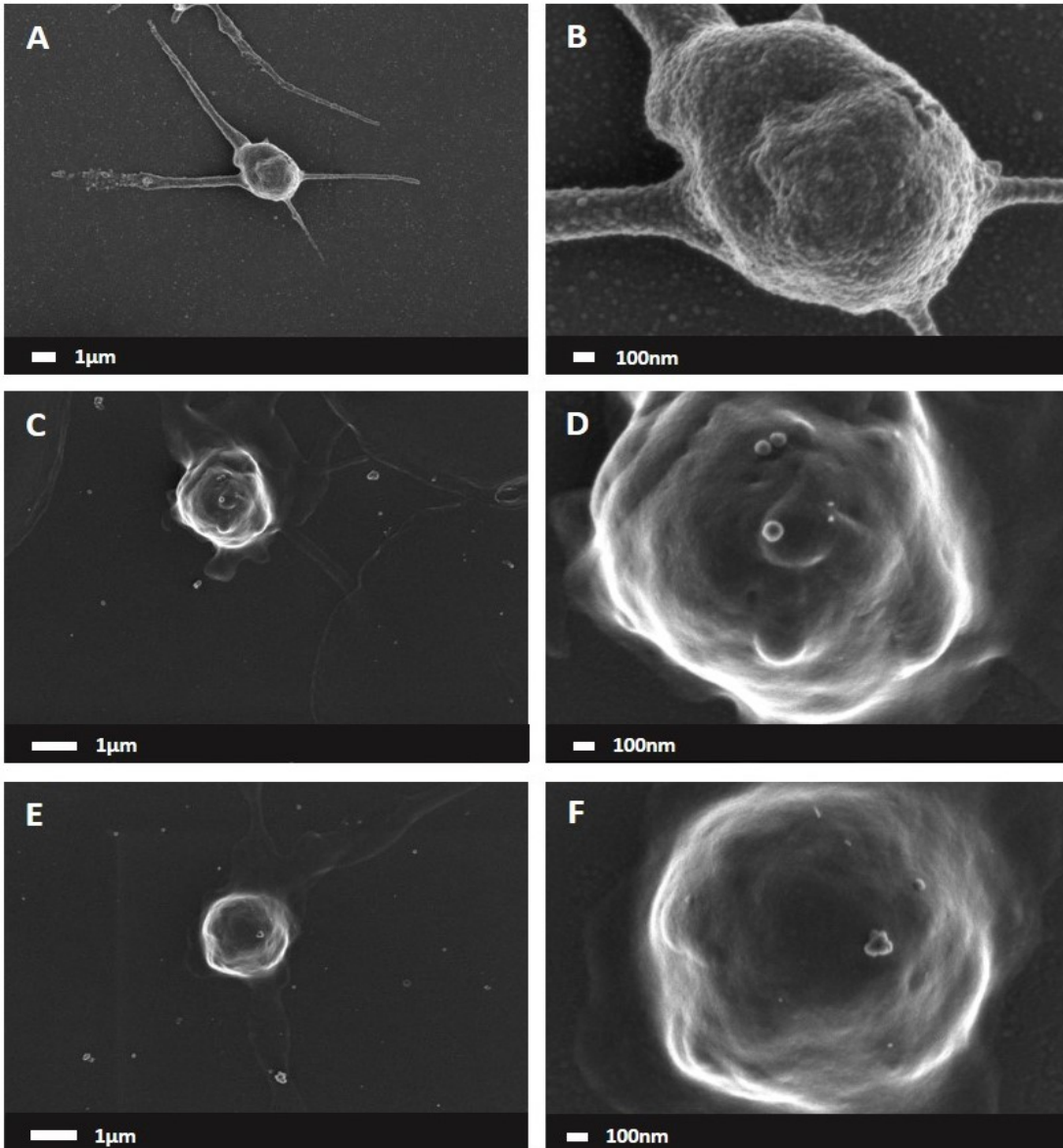


Figure 3.4: SEM images of WB showing platelets from control participants with relatively healthy diet inclusive of carbohydrates (A) Platelet with slightly projected pseudopodia, (B) Platelet in 'A' magnified by 100X, (C) and (E) Platelets with minimally spread lamellopodia, (D) and (F) Platelets in 'C' and 'E' respectively magnified by 100X. Scale = 1 μ m.

Individuals on the LCHF diet also had mostly mildly activated platelets with minimally projected filopodia and minimal spreading of lamellipodia as shown in Figure 3.5.

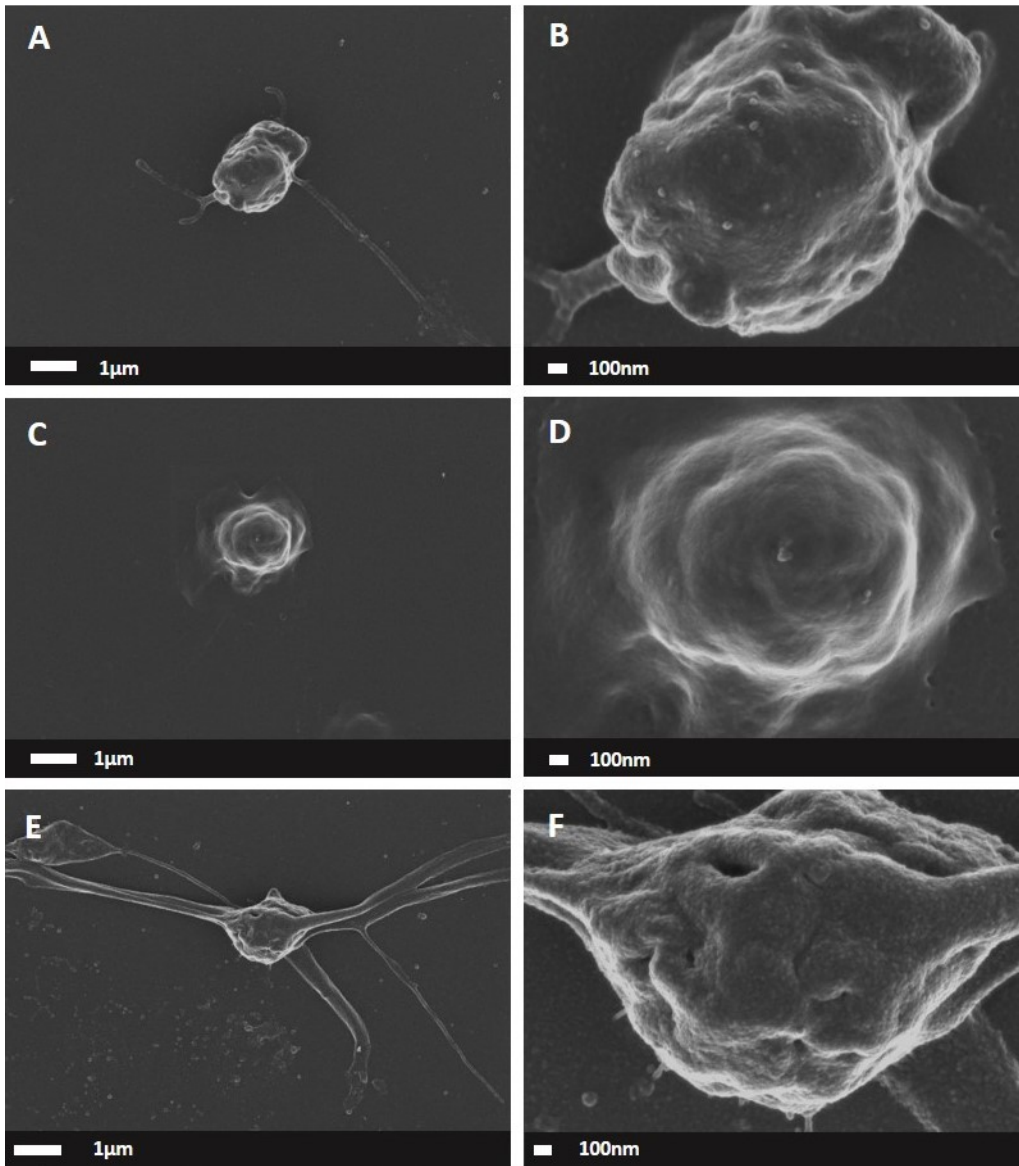


Figure 3.5: SEM images of WB showing platelets from participants on a LCHF: (A) Platelet with minimally projected filopodia (B) Platelet in 'A' magnified by 100X, (C) and (E) Platelets with minimally spread lamellopodia, (D) and (F) Platelets in 'C' and 'E' respectively magnified by 100X. Scale = 1 μ m.

Also detected were platelet aggregates that appeared smaller in LCHF participants compared to larger aggregates detected in controls as seen in Figure 3.6 and this was further explored via flow cytometry.

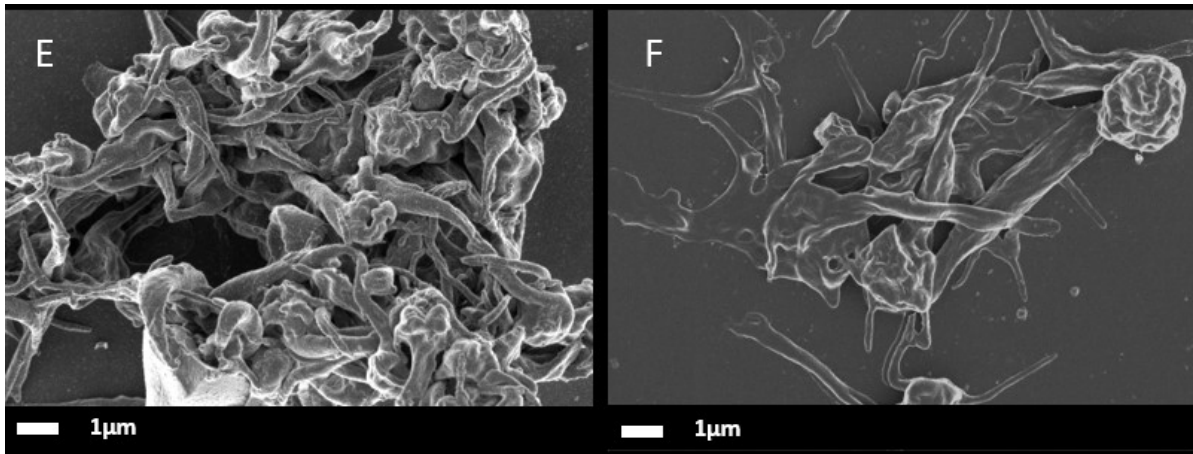


Figure 3.6: SEM of platelets in WB smears, (E) Large platelet aggregate in control smear, (F) Small platelet aggregate in LCHF smear. Scale = 1 μm .

3.4.3 SEM of fibrin fibers

The analyses of visible aspects of the clot complexity using histogram analyses showed statistically significant difference ($P = 0.0005$) between standard deviation of mean grey values of controls and LCHF participants as shown in Table 3.4. Clots from the LCHF group appeared to have greater complexity, shown in wider standard of deviation of grey values of the images captured.

Table 3.4: Analysis of standard deviation of grey values of fibrin clots in LCHF participants and controls.

Group	Mean \pm SD	Median [IQR]	Min, Max
Controls	31.4 \pm 10.7	29.8 [24.6 to 36.4]	14, 66
LCHF	33.0 \pm 9.7	32 [26.9 to 38.2]	12, 59

When comparing clots from individuals on a control diet (Figure 3.7) with those on the LCHF diet, images captured revealed some differences in the appearances of PPP fibrin networks.

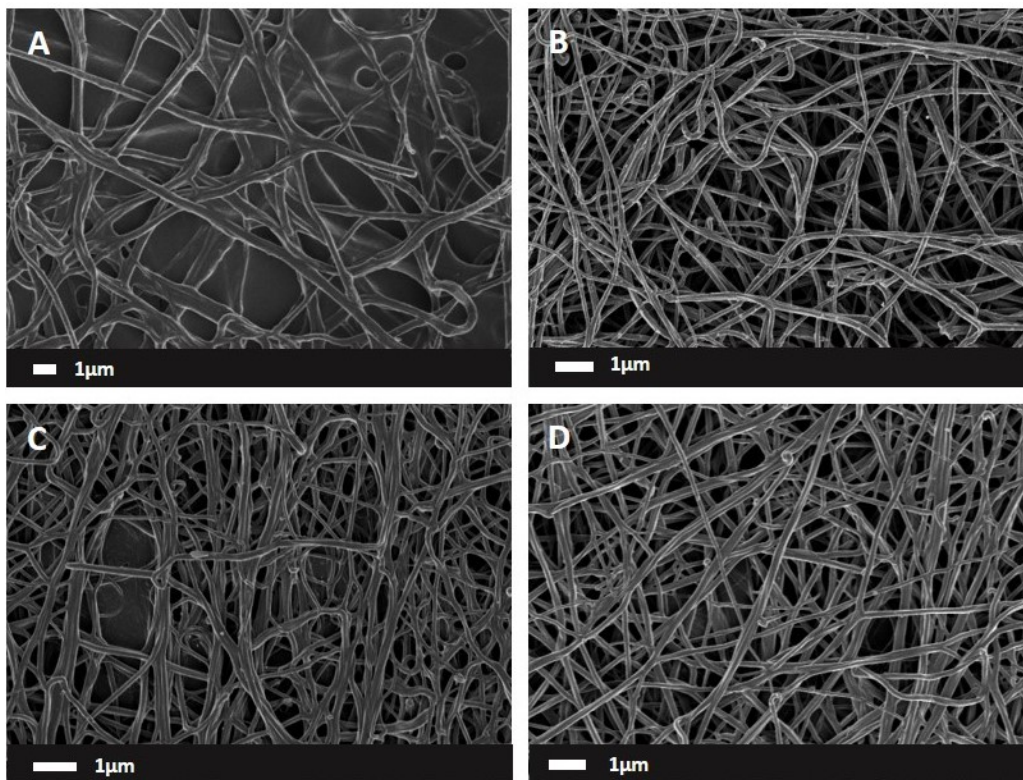


Figure 3.7: SEM images of Platelet-poor plasma clots from participants on the control diet inclusive of carbohydrates: (A) Clot with relatively low fibrin fiber density embedded in matted clot deposits, (B) Clot with relatively high fibrin fiber density but no matted clot deposits, (C) Clot with relatively high fibrin fiber density with some degree of matted clot deposits, (D) Clot with relatively high fiber density and minimal matted deposits. Clot shown in B is closest to what should be detected in healthy individuals. Scale =1 μm .

When examined more thoroughly, there appeared to be some discontinuous fibrin fibers detected in clots, and some clot matted regions for participants on the LCHF diet as shown in Figure 3.8.

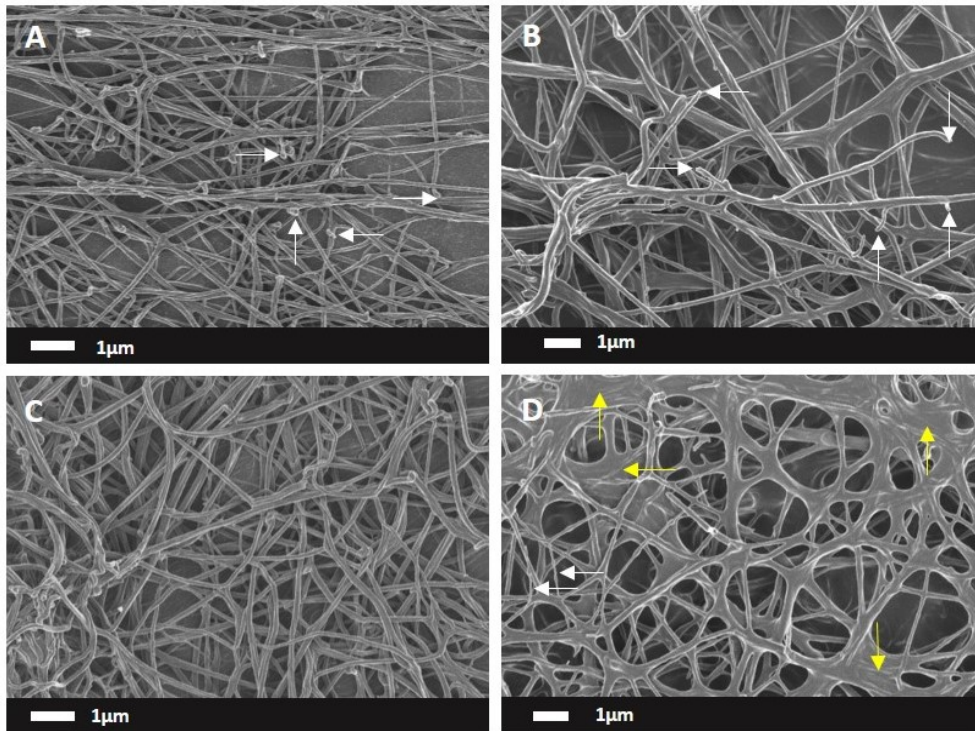


Figure 3.8: SEM images of PPP clots from participants with on a LCHF (A and B) Clot with relatively lower fiber density and showing some discontinuous fibers (white arrows), (C) Clot with relatively normal fiber distribution, (D) Clot with relatively less distinctive (unstable) fibrin fibers (white arrows), some matted clot regions (yellow arrows). Scale =1 μm .

Visual analysis suggests potential differences in the clot from fibrin-generated clots. For this reason, we decided to further investigate in more detail, the nature of the clots formed in WB using TEG to compare both groups.

3.5 DISCUSSION

SEM of RBCS

The study of RBC morphology is very important in hemorheology, since the deformability of RBCs has an impact on rheological properties of blood.¹⁶⁷

For controls, the following shapes were detected: few knizocytes (appearing pinched in the centre on one of the sides that should be invaginated). RBC agglutination (rouleaux formation), where RBCs clumps together forming a stack. We also observed few acanthocytes that appear as irregularly spaced, blunt-tipped projections, and can form due to altered membrane cholesterol or phospholipids.^{15,168} A typical discoid human RBC has a diameter of six to eight μm .¹⁶⁹ The properties of RBCs such as morphology, membrane elasticity, cell volume, protein and lipid composition can serve as biomarkers of different pathophysiological-states.¹⁶⁹ RBCs can undergo deformation changing from a normal discocyte structure to poikilocytes like

echinocytes. In this case, RBCs slowly lose deformability. RBC deformation involves a change in cell curvature or area expansion.¹⁷⁰ The changes of membrane properties which are lipid bilayer and membrane skeleton proteins can thus affect RBC deformability.¹⁷¹ A model that was proposed by Sheetz and Singer (1974) and Evans, which explains how discocytes transform to echinocytes or stomatocytes.¹⁷²⁻¹⁷³ The bilayer-coupled hypothesis, explains how convex structures, such as spicules of echinocytes, form when any factor causes the outer membrane leaflet to expand to the inner leaflet.¹⁷²⁻¹⁷³ The alteration of RBC morphology can serve as diagnosis for diseases.¹⁷⁴ However, agents which induce changes to extracellular conditions like high pH, salinity, and (ATP) depletion are also reported to induce echinocyte formation.¹⁷⁴

In this study, LCHF participants showed greater number of poikilocytes than controls. Poikilocytes that were identified in LCHF include echinocytes (with regularly spaced short projections or spicules), stomatocytes (cells with cup-shaped appearance), leptocytes (flattened cells with more surface area than volume) were also identified, and these cells are associated with oxidative stress.¹⁵⁴ Also, dacrocytes (teardrop shape) were detected and these cells have been identified in pathological conditions such as hemochromatosis (iron overload), liver disease, and heart disease.¹⁷⁵ In a study recently conducted in mice, it was reported that chronic high fat feeding in mice induced structural, biochemical and functional alterations in RBCs.¹⁵² RBC membrane cholesterol was significantly higher in RBCs from mice on a high fat diet. This suggests a role for pathologically remodelled RBC that may highlight inflammation and vascular dysfunction.³³

SEM of platelets

Platelets are important for prevention of blood loss.¹⁷⁶ Activation of platelets is the first step to initiate the coagulation cascade. In the process of activation, platelet changes shape, release their granule contents and eventually forms aggregates through adhesion with each other.¹¹⁴ The activation of platelets occurs in three stages: 1) Initiation phase: this involves rolling, adhesion and spreading of platelets to the extracellular matrix forming an activated platelet monolayer 2) Extension phase: when activated platelets adhere to the site of vascular injury and more platelet recruitment occurs through factors like ADP, TXA2 and there is formation of platelet aggregates. 3) Perturbation phase: where the clot is stabilized.^{58,160,177} In the present study, smaller

platelet aggregates made up of fewer platelets were observed in LCHF blood smears as compared to controls as shown in the SEM results. In a healthy person, platelets are mostly spherical with minimal pseudopodia formation due to contact activation.¹⁷⁸ In the present study, platelets detected in smears for some individuals in the control group showed slightly projected pseudopodia with minimally spread lamellipodia. In most other individuals in the control group, larger platelet aggregates with extensively spread pseudopodia were detected, as compared to LCHF participants. In LCHF participants, platelets with minimally projected filopodia and minimally spread lamellipodia were predominant. ADP is a potent platelet-recruiting factor that promotes platelet aggregation via interaction of P2Y₁₂ receptors.¹⁴⁰ It works alongside the main platelet receptor $\alpha_2\beta_3$ in association with secreted CD63 and CD9 to bind fibrinogen to recruit other platelets.¹⁷⁹ These receptors are important in platelet activation, aggregation and stabilization.¹⁵⁹ They also play a role in amplification of aggregation induced by other platelet activators.⁵⁵ Therefore, P2Y₁₂ receptors are very important in platelet recruitment and the coagulation cascade.¹⁸⁰ A recent study done on rats demonstrated that HFD alters platelet aggregation and signalling in platelets.¹⁴⁰ As a result of changes to platelet profiles, we anticipate that the LCHF diet also affects the coagulation process. To investigate the coagulation properties further, we subsequently compared the fibrin clot network.

SEM of fibrin fibers

Fibrin fibers of healthy individuals consist of both thick and thin fibers. In the present study, normal fibrin fibers were present with thick and thin fibers for both LCHF and control groups. In the control group an extensive fibrin network with both thick and thin fibers and dense matted deposits in some participants were observed. However, for participants on the LCHF diet, we also observed some discontinuous fiber networks in addition to a few regions with the matted deposits. In majority of individuals in the LCHF group, some long thin discontinuous fibers, masses of thin and thick fibers forming a net like structure and some dense matted regions were detected. An altered fibrin structure can occur in inflammatory diseases such as stroke.¹⁸¹ In previous research on T2DM, net and matted appearance of fibrin fibers were reported, suggesting hypercoagulability.¹⁸² These outcomes such as dense matted fibrin deposits seen in the mentioned diseases suggest that inflammation induces coagulation.⁶³

3.6 Conclusion

Evidence from this study suggests that LCHF diet may increase poikilocytosis, the formation of dense matted clots and discontinuous fibrin fibers and reduce platelet aggregation. These findings may not be adequate for quantitative comparisons and so we decided to further investigate platelet aggregation in participants on the LCHF diet to participants on the control diet. We achieved the quantification of platelet aggregates using flow cytometry as follows in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4: (FLOW CYTOMETRY)

4.1 Aims and Objectives

The aim of this chapter is to measure platelet activity in WB obtained from participants on the LCHF diet and compare them to those of participants on a normal diet.

To achieve this aim, our objectives are to:

- Apply flow cytometry to examine platelet markers expressed within blood samples obtained from individuals in both groups
- Generate and present findings as quantifiable data using relevant software
- Use statistical software to compare data outcomes from both groups
- Discuss differences detected between the groups so as to draw inferences on how diet may affect the expression of activation, aggregation, and adhesion receptors in platelets.

4.2 Introduction

Flow cytometry is a powerful technique that has been recognized in research and in clinical investigation.¹⁸³ Historically, the first established flow cytometry was a single parameter instrument that could only detect the size of cells.¹⁸⁴ Between the 1980s and 1990s the instrument improved and a highly sophisticated instrument was developed.¹⁸⁵ These instruments were able to detect 14 parameters at the same time. It was possible to measure different cell characteristics with their functions using new antibodies and probes. It became easy to apply new clinical and research methods. The markers that are used in flow cytometry may give us valuable information regarding cellular activity and since 1989 flow cytometry has been used as an important tool to examine platelets.¹⁸⁶ It delivers statistical numbers which are both objective and quantitative to measure platelet function.¹⁸⁷

The principle guiding flow cytometry is that platelets are labelled with fluorescent monoclonal antibodies (MoAbs). The cells are suspended in a fluid which allows them to pass aligned one by one in front of light detectors; at the same time they are illuminated by a focused laser beam that activates bound fluorophores.¹⁸⁸ To identify platelets, the fluorescence is measured. The emitted fluorescence and scattered light are detected so that the intensity of the emitted light is directly proportional to the number of antibodies attached to the platelet receptors or antigens.¹⁸⁹ Thus, it is possible to determine absolute number of antibody-labelled cells using flow cytometer.

The analysis of platelet function in whole blood using flow cytometry has advantages: One is that, within a short amount of time, flow cytometry can measure specific characteristics of a large number of platelets (such as 5000 or 10,000) in each sample.¹⁹⁰ Flow cytometry is a quick, reliable and sensitive technique which can be used to detect genetic and developed platelet disorders.¹⁸⁹ The detection of MoAbs is an important tool to assess platelet function by using flow cytometry as shown in Table 4.1.¹⁸⁸ The membrane surface of platelets contains a number of glycoprotein receptors. The platelets interact with each other via these glycoprotein receptors.

Table 4.1: Platelet parameters used to identify platelet activity.

Platelet Parameters	Moiety that the probe reacts with
CD41a	Platelet membrane GPIIb, is a receptor for fibrinogen, von Willebrand factor, fibronectin, and vitronectin which are essential for platelet aggregation intercellular aggregation via fibrinogen. ¹⁹¹
CD62P	Alpha-granule membrane protein (P-selectin) expressed on the surface of activated platelets. It mediates adhesion of activated platelets to monocytes and neutrophils. ¹⁹²
CD63	Member of tetraspanin superfamily and is found on dense and Lysosomal membrane and can be expressed on surface of activated platelet. ¹⁷⁹

Platelets play crucial roles in haemostasis by being a first line of defence against the loss of endothelial integrity.¹⁹³ Upon vascular injury, platelets prevent bleeding at the site of injury. However, platelets are also involved in pathological conditions such as inflammation, atherogenesis and atherothrombosis.¹⁹⁴ Platelets respond to endothelium damage through adherence to sub-endothelial proteins via glycoproteins receptors on the platelet surface.¹⁹³ Upon activation, platelets secrete adhesion molecules such as P-selectin/CD62P, CD40 ligand and CD63. In the next paragraph is a description of these important platelet proteins namely CD41, CD62P, CD63 and CD40 ligand.

CD41 is a calcium dependent compound of GPIIb/IIIa. It is bound on the membrane surface of the GP component (GPIIb) with a molecular weight of 135-95 kDa, which constitutes a precursor for the fibrinogen receptor.¹⁹⁵ Also present on platelets is CD61 (GPIIIa), and it forms a complex with CD41 resulting to CD41/CD61 (GPIIb/IIIa). Both CD41 and CD61 are expressed on resting platelets.⁵⁶ When platelets are in a resting

state, GPIIb/IIIa is unable to bind fibrinogen, as it has a low binding affinity for it. Upon platelet activation, this integrin receptor (GPIIb/IIIa) undergoes a conformational change which then increases its affinity for binding fibrinogen.^{56,196} Upon activation, platelets bind to fibrinogen via the activated GPIIb/IIIa (CD41/CD61) receptor complex on the platelet surface. Hence, CD41 is a reliable marker to identify platelets and has been used to differentiate between platelets and other cells.¹⁸⁶

CD62P or GMP140- also known as P-selectin, is a member of selectin with a mass of 140kDa. P-selectin is stored in the alpha granules of a resting platelet and is expressed on the surface of platelets upon platelet activation.^{136,189,197} The MoAb that is specific for CD62P is unable to bind to a resting platelet but can only bind to activated platelets. CD62P acts as an adhesion receptor between platelets and white blood cells or endothelial cells via PSGL and GPIb.¹⁹⁸ The expression of P-selectin is said to be increased on the surface of platelets with patients with coronary artery disease or systemic inflammation.¹⁹⁹

CD63 also known as GP63 with a mass of 53kDa is a membrane protein of platelet lysosomes and dense granules.²⁰⁰ It is only expressed on platelet outer surface membrane after platelet activation whereby lysosomal granule fuses with platelet membrane and is secreted. After secretion, it relocates to membrane surface of platelets where it binds with integrin α IIb β 3-CD9 complex.¹³¹ The role of CD63 is to help in platelet adhesion and enables activated platelets to spread over fibrinogen.¹⁷⁹

CD40L is a transmembrane protein with a similar structure as an inflammatory cytokine (TNF- α).²⁰¹ Upon platelet activation, this protein is expressed on platelets. On platelets, CD40L triggers an inflammatory response of endothelial cells by stimulating the cells to secrete chemokines.¹³² CD40L stimulates the monocytes expressing TF, an initiator of extrinsic coagulation cascade.²⁰² It is also present in cells like monocytes, endothelial cells and, where it influences binding of neutrophils to monocytes.^{56,133} CD40L also binds to integrin α IIb β 3, a receptor for fibrinogen and vWF thus contributes to stabilization of the thrombi.²⁰³⁻²⁰⁴ Therefore, it plays a role in both inflammation and thrombosis, crucial in atherosclerosis.¹³⁸

It is indicated that platelets play an essential role in inflammation as well.²⁰⁵ The presence of inflammation results in an imbalance between procoagulant and anticoagulant properties of the endothelium leading to local stimulation of the

coagulation cascade.²⁰⁶ TF is a principal initiator of inflammation-induced thrombin generation. In the unstable plaque, TF is expressed by inflammatory cells and may initiate activation of coagulation and the generation of thrombin which then activate platelets and result in the formation of platelet-fibrin thrombus.⁴⁷ Another feature of inflammation is the interaction between leukocytes, endothelial cells and platelets. The linkage of thrombosis and inflammation is highlighted at molecular and cellular levels in the endothelium. In the case of tissue injury, platelets adhere to the injured area and by doing so more platelets and leukocytes are recruited. In order to stop bleeding, platelets provide a surface for the binding of leukocyte-derived micro-particles holding TF, an initiator of the coagulation cascade. Upon activation, platelets enhance adhesion of leukocytes to the endothelium and thus promote leukocyte activation through release of chemokines on the endothelium. Leukocytes are now empowered to attach firmly to the vessel wall and to transmigrate into sub-endothelial tissue to form the atherosclerotic plaque.^{194,206} Once inside, these cells can turn into “angry” giant cells called foam cells, which inflame the surrounding area and contribute to the build-up of the plaque. Thus, platelets role in chronic inflammatory diseases such as atherosclerosis have been demonstrated.²⁰⁶

Therefore, flow cytometry is a tool that can be used to establish both the number of activated and non-activated platelets.¹⁸⁷

4.3 Materials and Methods

4.3.1 Participants

Thirty-two healthy individuals were recruited as controls for the study. These individuals were non-smokers who were not using any medication for chronic illness and females participants were not on contraceptives. These control participants were recruited from University of Pretoria’s Departments of Physiology, Anatomy and Pharmacology. Thirty-two individuals who were on LCHF diet were recruited from the Banting market in Pretoria, South Africa. Inclusion criteria for these participants were: (a) Individuals older than eighteen years and willing to provide full written informed consent, b) Urine ketones must be present, c) LCHF diet must have been maintained for at least three months or longer. Exclusion criteria were: a) Smoking, b) Excessive alcohol use (more than two glasses of red wine per day), c) Chronic diseases (and medication) such as diabetes, hypertension, d) medicines for acute conditions, such

as antibiotics and chronic medication for diet pills, herbal extracts, etc. Familial hypercholesterolemia was considered a confounder during screening and recruitment, and so, participants with the disorder were excluded from the study.

Informed consent was signed by all participants before any procedures were performed. Once LCHF diet participants were identified, they were asked to fast for at least twelve hours prior to their visit. We provided a questionnaire to obtain information on each participant's diet history, medical history, smoking habits, alcohol intake and use of chronic medication. Height and weight were measured with the participants in a standing position barefoot. Body mass index was calculated as weight in kilograms divided by the square of height in meters. The body mass index was categorized according to WHO cut-offs.¹⁶⁶ The systolic and diastolic blood pressure as well as heart rate were measured. Ethical clearance was obtained for the study from the University of Pretoria's Faculty of Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee (Ethical Clearance number: 366/16).

Blood Sample collection

All procedures were performed on two groups: (1) Healthy volunteers, eating foods without specific restrictions on intake of dietary categories (the control group) and (2) individuals with food intake restrictions limiting carbohydrate intake while increasing fat intake (the LCHF group). Blood samples were collected from all individuals meeting inclusion criteria. Blood was drawn by a qualified doctor upon completion of informed consent form by each participant. Blood samples were collected via venipuncture from all individuals. Two ml of blood was drawn into a citrate tube from each participant. Within thirty minutes of the collection of blood, sample preparation was performed prior to flow cytometry analysis to analyze the platelet specific antigens. The platelet markers used to study platelet function were platelet identifier CD41 and markers of platelet activation and intercellular aggregation, CD62 and CD63.

4.3.2 Flow cytometry

For each blood sample taken, two tubes were prepared. The first tube was stained with five μ l of the three fluorescent-conjugated probes: CD41-FITC (Fluorescein Isothiocyanate), CD62P-APC (Allophycocyanin) and CD63-PE (Phycoerythrin). A second tube containing 1 ml of sheath fluid and twenty μ l of blood. From the second

tube hundred μl was taken and added to the first tube containing all the different probes. The samples were incubated in the dark for twenty minutes. After twenty minutes six hundred μl of the mixed sample was analysed using a flow cytometer model (Gallios 3 Laser, 10 colour configuration).

Platelets were distinguished from RBCs and white blood cells based on their forward and side-light scatter characteristics by gating. The first gate was set according to platelet size and the second gate was set according to the fluorescence of platelet markers, which identify platelets forming aggregates. The intensity or fluorescence of each antibody was presented on a histogram. The results were expressed using the arbitrary unit, mean fluorescence index (MFI). The software used to analyse the data was STATA.

4.3.3 Statistical Analysis

For each participant, percentage gated (%Gated) for single platelets and platelet aggregates, as well as MFI was calculated in a large sample of 20 000 platelets per individual. To analyse the data, Wilcoxon rank-sum test (non-parametric statistical test) was used to compare platelet populations of LCHF and control groups. P-value of less than 0.05 was considered significant.

4.4: Results

The percentage gated for single platelets and platelet aggregates was calculated for both controls and LCHF participants. The analyses include: % gated CD41+/62P+, CD41+/63+ and CD63+/62P+ (single) platelets. There was no statistical difference in platelet activation indicated by detected platelet expression of CD62P and CD63 between LCHF and control group as shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Analysis of participants presented as mean, standard deviation (SD), median of MFI and percentage gated platelets. (n=20 000 platelets total analysed for each participant).

MoAb	Controls n=32	Median	LCHF n=32	median	P-value
% Gated CD41 FITC/CD62P APC (platelets only)	3.28±4.77	1.24	2.55±4.38	1.54	0.640
% Gated CD41 FITC/CD63 PE (platelets only)	0.65±0.51	0.49	0.66±0.88	0.36	0.588
% Gated CD63 PE/CD62P APC (platelets only)	0.36±0.43	0.15	0.48±0.90	0.15	0.963

Results of the flow cytometry analyses show that compared to healthy controls, total CD41+ aggregates MFI was significantly lower for the LCHF group compared to controls, mean (32.31±9.14* vs 38.97±6.94) as shown in Table 4.3. Also calculated for the controls and LCHF groups were % gated CD41+/CD63+, CD41+/CD62P+, CD63+/CD62P+ aggregates. The results showed no statistically significant difference between controls and LCHF participants except when in total CD41+ platelets (detected due to gating by size) and this is shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Analysis of participants presented as mean, standard deviation (SD), median of MFI and percentage gated platelet aggregates. (n=20 000 platelets total analysed for each participant).

*Statistically significant difference with P < 0.005.

MoAb	Controls n=32	Median	LCHF n=32	median	P-value
% Gated Total CD41+ aggregates	1.61±0.53	1.55	1.71±0.38	1.75	0.345
Total CD41+ aggregates X-median	38.97±6.94	39.05	32.31±9.14*	33.98	0.002*
% Gated CD41 FITC/CD62P APC (aggregates)	0.04±0.05	0.03	0.04±0.06	0.03	0.807
% Gated CD41 FITC/CD63 PE (aggregates)	0.02±0.02	0.01	0.02±0.02	0.01	0.662
% Gated CD63 PE/CD62P APC (aggregates)	0.01±0.02	0.01	0.01±0.02	0.01	0.024

A graphical summary illustrating the significant difference identified between numbers of platelet aggregates in control versus LCHF participants is presented in Figure 4.1

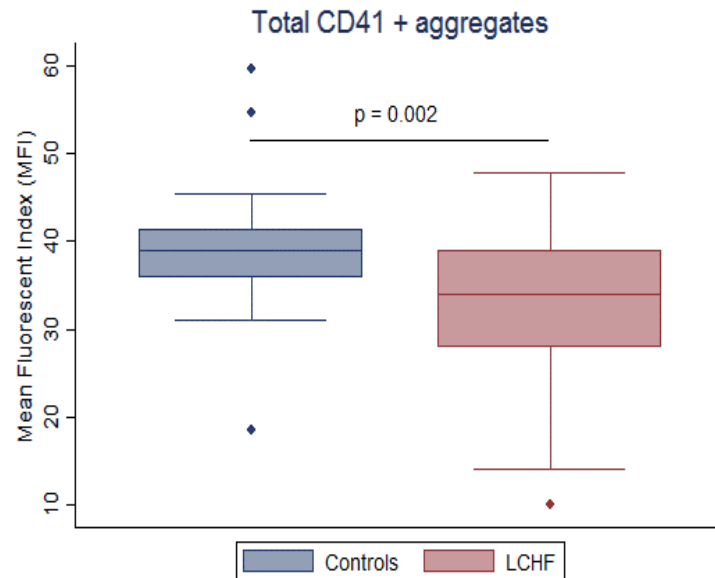


Figure 4.1: Graphical representation of control and LCHF group showing MFI for total CD41+ aggregates. Statistical difference: P-value = 0.0022*

A representative of platelet-leukocytes (CD41/CD62P) and platelet-platelet aggregates (CD41/CD63) is shown in Figure 4.2 and 4.3 for both controls and LCHF group.

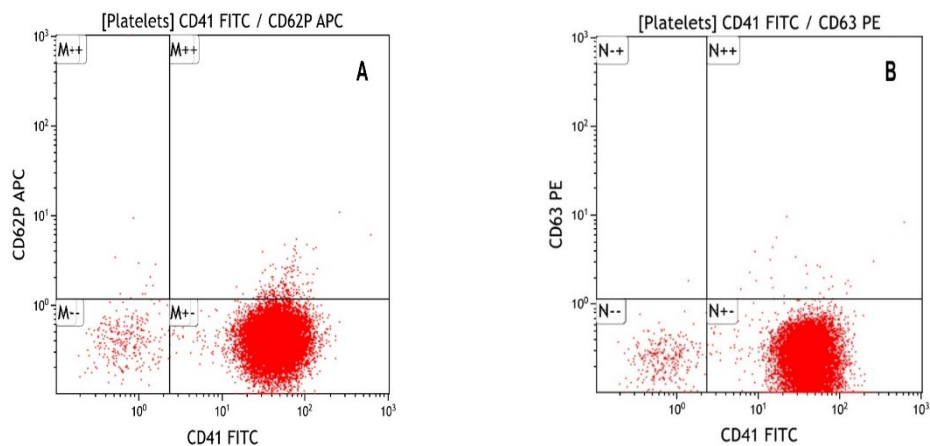


Figure 4.2: Scatterplot showing fraction of detected (A) Platelet-leukocyte aggregates and (B) Platelet-platelet aggregates in a participant on the control diet.

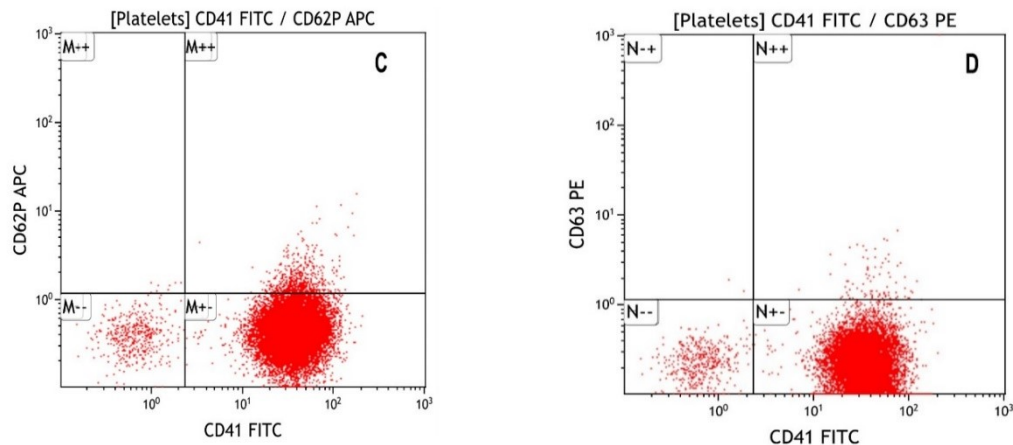


Figure 4.3: Scatterplot showing fraction of detected (C) platelet-leukocyte aggregates and D) platelet-platelet aggregates in a participant on the LCHF diet.

4.5 Discussion

Flow cytometry is an important technique that has been used clinically and in research for immunophenotyping platelet glycoproteins.²⁰⁷ It provides quantitative assessment of the physical and antigenic properties of platelets. Flow cytometry has been used to study surface expression of receptors, bound ligands, components of granules, interactions of platelets with other platelets via aggregation, and platelets with other blood cells like leukocytes.¹⁸⁹ Studying these surface expressions may help in diagnosis of acquired and inherited diseases. It also helps to study platelet activation pathology associated with diseases such as acute coronary syndromes, cerebrovascular ischemia and peripheral vascular disease.²⁰⁸

The markers that were used for this study include CD41 FITC, a platelet identifier, CD62P APC and CD63PE markers that indicates platelet activation.

The flow cytometry results for this study as shown in Figure 4.1, indicates a statistically significant difference between the total number of CD41+ (platelet) aggregates detected in controls compared to the LCHF group with a mean of (38.97±6.94 vs 32.31±9.14*). As shown in Figure 4.1, the graph indicates that the total CD41+platelet aggregates were lower in the LCHF participants compared to controls. Our findings contrast with research that was recently completed on rats fed a HFD, which showed that platelet aggregation was increased prior to the administration of α -tocopherol, which significantly decreased aggregation.¹⁴⁰ In another study that was done on diabetic mice fed high fat diet for four months, platelets showed less aggregation and lower CD61 expression.¹⁹⁷

It is important to understand platelet activation and aggregation, which are driven by receptor-ligand interactions.²⁰⁹ Upon vascular damage, activation of platelets occurs. Platelets interact with vWF bound within the sub-endothelial extracellular matrix via their GPIb receptor. This is followed by binding of platelets to collagen via collagen receptor GPVI.⁵⁵ Further adhesion of additional platelets is enabled by fibrinogen binding to platelets via activated GPIIb/IIIa (CD41/CD61) integrin complex to form a platelet aggregate.²¹⁰ This in turn activates intracellular signalling cascade which leads to synthesis and release of platelet agonists TxA2, ADP and thrombin, which activate GPCR on platelet membrane surface.⁵⁵ Among the platelet agonists, thrombin is the most potent activator of platelets. Thrombin assists in the formation of fibrin from fibrinogen, which then contributes to the formation of the haemostatic plug and platelet thrombus growth. The release of TxA2 and ADP strengthens the adherence of platelets and also induces platelet change, release of granule contents and increases expression of pro-inflammatory molecules on the platelet surface including P-selectin. Platelets need to be fully activated and adhered as more platelets aggregate to form a thrombus. ADP and TxA2 then act on nearby platelets by recruiting them into the growing thrombus. ADP nucleotides are secreted from dense granules after platelet activation signal through purinergic receptors on platelet membrane.²¹¹ Once these receptors are activated, they initiate a complex of signalling cascade that eventually result in platelet activation and thrombus formation.²¹²

The research study using rats fed HFD that showed that HFD alters platelet aggregation and purinergic signalling in platelets suggests that purinergic signalling may have been altered in our LCHF group through similar mechanisms.¹⁵² Altered receptor function may influence haemostatic profile by reducing platelet aggregation and this may also influence the coagulation cascade.

In this study, participants on a LCHF diet showed that although there was greater expression of CD63 by single platelets in the LCHF group as shown in Table 4.2 and 4.3, the differences from the control group were not significant. However, overall aggregation was found to be significantly lower in the LCHF group. Mild or low platelet activation (detected as slight pseudopodia and aggregate expression) was also confirmed by SEM in platelets of most individuals on the LCHF diet. Multiple pathways involving ADP, TxA2 and thrombin are involved in platelet activation as described above. One of the functions of agonists (ADP and TxA2) is to contribute to the

formation of haemostatic plug and platelet thrombus growth, as well as to strengthen the adherence of platelets which also induces platelet change that initiates release of alpha granule contents by increasing an expression of P-selectin. A study on coronary artery disease patients showed no significant difference in expression of CD63 by their platelets.²¹³ Comparatively, a study done in diabetic patients showed an increase of CD63 by their activated platelets.²¹⁴ However, a study has also confirmed that it is possible for CD63 to be more highly expressed in platelets in the absence of aggregation.²¹⁵ CD63 associates with the platelet's main aggregation receptor (GPIIb/IIIa) which forms aggregates with other platelets via fibrinogen. It plays a subtle role as a negative regulator of platelet aggregation *in vitro* but has no demonstrable effect on thrombus formation *in vivo*.²¹⁶ Increased platelet expression of the CD63 protein in the LCHF group appears to affect platelet signalling variably in different conditions. Hence, the presence of reduced aggregation in the LCHF group may influence their contribution to clot formation.

4.6 Conclusion

LCHF diet not only affects the metabolic profile of individuals but may also impact on their haemostatic profile. The platelet aggregates were significantly lower in LCHF participants compared with controls in spite of greater activation signified by CD63 expression. Upon vascular damage, platelets become important mediators that trigger the coagulation cascade pathway.²¹⁷ They facilitate haemostasis through activation, adhesion and aggregation. Platelets adhere to the endothelium and undergo degranulation where they secrete their granule contents.²¹⁸ Platelet activation is followed by aggregation. The aggregation of platelets requires an integrin receptor for fibrinogen.⁵³

Activation of platelets occurs prior to recruitment of additional platelets, leading to aggregation. The activation is mediated by agonists like ADP which are released by activated platelets and these agonists act on GPCR.^{53,55} Aggregation of platelets promotes formation of platelet plug. Once the plug is formed it needs to be stabilized and strengthened by the formation of fibrin network.⁵⁵ In order for fibrin network to be formed blood coagulation must be initiated, where tissue factor an initiator of coagulation binds to FVII, eventually generating thrombin. Thrombin binds to circulating fibrinogen and converts it to fibrin network. The formation of fibrin then

strengthens the initial platelet plug.¹⁵⁹⁻¹⁶⁰ Therefore activation of platelets followed by aggregation triggers the coagulation cascade.

As we detected comparatively greater numbers of CD63+ platelets (suggesting higher influence on platelet-leukocyte associations) and fewer CD41+ (platelet-platelet) aggregates in our LCHF group, we decided to investigate if this would affect the overall clot properties in this group using TEG.

CHAPTER 5: THROMBOELASTOGRAPHY (TEG)

5.1 Aims and Objectives

The aim of this chapter is to assess the coagulation parameters in WB from the control group and the LCHF diet group.

To achieve this aim, our objectives are to:

- Apply TEG to examine whole blood samples obtained from individuals in both groups
- Generate and present findings as quantifiable data using relevant software
- Use statistical software to compare data outcomes from both groups
- Discuss differences detected between the groups so as to draw inferences on how diet may affect specific parameters associated with clotting in whole blood.

5.2 Introduction

Platelets, fibrin and coagulation factors play a vital role in balanced haemostasis and are also involved in inflammation.⁶³ Functional fibrinogen, along with platelets, influence clot formation and stability. Fibrin formation is the final end-product of the intricate coagulation cascade. The strength and expansion of a clot is dependent on fibrinogen being converted to fibrin alongside crosslinking processes.⁶³ An important step in the conversion of fibrinogen is when fibrin is catalysed by the enzyme thrombin. Upon tissue injury, fibrin forms a loose netlike meshwork which acts as a plug that seals the tissue and protects it as the wound heals.⁶² As the clot forms, circulating RBCs, white blood cells and platelets are incorporated into the clot structure. The entrapped RBCs gives a red appearance to the clot with fibrin forming the foundation of the clot. The activated platelets act as a stimulus to initiate conversion of fibrinogen to fibrin. Thrombin also activates FXIII which then facilitates the cross linkage of fibrin polymers to form a stable fibrin clot.²¹⁹

TEG, is a technique that was developed by Hartet in 1948.²²⁰ It gives the whole picture of haemostasis by quantitatively measuring the viscoelastic changes occurring during coagulation.²²¹⁻²²² It assesses the viscoelastic properties of the evolving clot in patient's WB by giving out information about fibrin formation, platelet activation, and breaking down of the clot. ²²³ TEG measures the speed of fibrin polymerisation and

the strength of the clot by generating parameters and giving out values that are associated with each step of blood clotting.²²⁴ The values obtained are represented graphically giving information about the start of clot, progress, and maximum clot strength and stability. Coagulation parameters measured by TEG have been shown to predict haemorrhage and mortality after traumatic injury.²²⁵⁻²²⁶ The clotting parameters of the TEG give information about the overall haematological health of a person.²²⁷ These parameters can be used as a tool to measure the degree of pathology in the coagulation status of the individual.²²⁸ TEG is a quick test to be used to assess coagulation in individuals.²²⁹

The principle behind TEG is that it measures the viscoelastic properties of blood as it clots.²³⁰ TEG consist of a torsion wire, a pendulum, and a cup to hold the sample.²²³ The device has two operable channels; for each channel, there is a pin suspended by a torsion wire. The pin is suspended in the cup that can hold citrated whole blood and calcium chloride (CaCl₂), which can be heated to 37° C.²³¹ The CaCl₂ is added to detect clotting times for the extrinsic and intrinsic coagulation pathways and fibrinolysis after clot formation. The cup oscillates back and forth constantly at a set speed through an arc of 4° 45'.²³⁰ As the clot begins to form, it attaches to the pin followed by fibrin-platelet interaction.²²³ The mechanical energy generated by the clot is converted into an electrical signal. This signal is analysed by a computer, which generates symmetrical tracing whose magnitude corresponds with the clot's strength.²³²

5.3 Materials and Methods

5.3.1 Participants

1) Healthy volunteers, eating foods without specific restrictions on intake of dietary categories, not smoking or on chronic medications or contraceptives (the control group) and (2) individuals with food intake restrictions limiting carbohydrate intake while increasing fat intake (the LCHF group). The inclusion criteria for the LCHF group were: (a) participants older than eighteen years, willing to provide full written informed consent, b) participants who had been on the LCHF diet for at least three months or more. Exclusion criteria for the LCHF group were: a) Smoking, b) excessive alcohol use (more than two glasses of red wine per day), c) Chronic diseases (and medication) such as diabetes, hypertension, d) medicines for acute conditions, such as antibiotics and chronic medication for diet pills, herbal extracts. Familial hypercholesterolemia

was considered a potential confounder during recruitment of participants and so individuals with the disorder were excluded. Ethical clearance was obtained for the study from the University of Pretoria's Faculty of Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee, (Ethical clearance number: 366/16).

Blood sample collection

Upon completion of informed consent, two ml of blood was drawn into sodium citrate tube, from each participant blood was left to stand for thirty minutes before using for TEG. The test was performed to obtain TEG clot parameters which are: Reaction time (R value), kinetic (k-value), Angle, maximal amplitude (MA), maximum rate of thrombus generation (MRTG), time till maximum rate of thrombus generation (TMRTG), and total of thrombus generation (TTG).

5.3.2 Clot properties using TEG

To study TEG clot parameters, only WB was used. A small sample of three hundred and forty μL of WB was pipetted in a TEG cup followed by addition of twenty μL of 0.2 M CaCl_2 to initiate clot formation, this was heated to 37°C . The CaCl_2 is needed to reverse the effect of the sodium citrate that acts as an anticoagulant to prevent coagulation. The samples were placed into a hemostasis analyser system (TEG 5000 Hemostasis Analyzer System by Haemonetics) for analysis. The different parameters that were studied for the study for each person are explained in Table 5.1. The software that was used to analyse the data was STATA.

Table 5.1: TEG clot parameters studied using WB adapted from (Pretorius et al 2017).²²⁷

Parameters	Explanation
R value: reaction time measured in minutes	Time of latency from start of test to initial fibrin formation (amplitude of two mm); i.e. initiation time
K: kinetics measured in minutes	Time taken to achieve a certain level of clot strength (amplitude of twenty mm); i.e. amplification
A (Alpha): Angle (slope between the traces represented by R and K) Angle is measured in degrees	The angle measures the speed at which fibrin build up and cross linking takes place, hence assesses the rate of clot formation; i.e. thrombin burst
MA: Maximal Amplitude measured in mm	Maximum strength/stiffness of clot. Reflects the ultimate strength of the fibrin clot, i.e. overall stability of the clot
Maximum rate of thrombus generation (MRTG) measured in Dyn cm ⁻² s ⁻¹	The maximum velocity of clot growth observed or maximum rate of thrombus generation using G, where G is the elastic modulus strength of the thrombus in dynes per cm ⁻²
Time to maximum rate of thrombus generation (TMRTG) measured in minutes	The time interval observed before the maximum speed of the clot growth
Total thrombus generation (TTG) measured in Dyn.cm ⁻²	The clot strength: the amount of total resistance (to movement of the cup and pin) generated during clot formation. This is the total area under the velocity curve during clot growth, representing the amount of clot strength generated during clot growth

5.3.3 Statistical Analysis

To determine the viscoelastic clots properties and differences between the control group and LCHF diet group, statistical analysis was performed. The two-sample Wilcoxon rank-sum (Mann-Whitney) test was used to analyse TEG parameters using GraphPad Prism version 5.03 for Windows, GraphPad Software, San Diego, California USA, www.graphpad.com; a P-value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

5.4 Results

The following parameters showed a significance difference between LCHF diet group and controls:

The R value, which represent the start of the clot was significantly shorter in participants on the LCHF diet as compared to controls (P=0.0334). Alpha angle was significantly higher in LCHF participants compared to controls (p<0.0001). The

TMRTG which is time to maximum rate of thrombus generation, was significantly lower in LCHF groups as compared to controls (p=0.0025) as shown in Tables 5.3 and 5.4.

The following parameters showed no significant difference when comparing between LCHF participants and controls:

The K value representing time taken to achieve clot strength, was shorter in LCHF participants compared to controls. MA which represents the clot stability was lower in LCHF participants as compared to controls. MRTG representing the maximum rate of clot formation, was higher in LCHF compared to controls And TTG which is the total thrombus formation was lower in LCHF as compared to controls.

Table 5.2: Clot parameters for control participants as obtained using TEG.

	Mean ± SD	Median [IQR]	Min, Max	95% Confidence Interval
R	7.6 ± 2.1	7.3 [6.2 to 8.2]	4.5, 12.7	[6.8, 8.4]
K	4 ± 1.5	3.9 [3 to 4.7]	1.7, 8.5	[3.4, 4.6]
Angle	47.9 ± 12.42	48.5 [37.9 to 57]	28.3, 71.6	[43.4, 52.5]
MA	48.6 ± 9	49.1 [41.1 to 55.3]	28.2, 67.9	[45.2, 52]
MRTG	3.9 ± 1.9	3.5 [2.7 to 4.6]	1.4, 9.6	[3.3, 4.6]
TMRTG	10.4 ± 3.6	9.0 [8 to 12.5]	6.4, 20.2	[9.1, 11.8]
TTG	504.9 ± 192	482.1 [348.6 to 621.6]	196.1, 1060	[433.3, 576.6]

R = clot initiation time, K = time till change in clot formation speed, Angle = rate of clot formation, MA = clot stability, MRTG = maximum rate of clot formation, TMRTG = time till maximum clot growth, TTG = total clot strength

Table 5.3: Clot parameters for participants on LCHF diet as obtained via TEG

	Mean \pm SD	Median [IQR]	Min, Max	95% Confidence Interval	P-value
R	6.4 \pm 1.6	6.2 [5.6 to 7.5]	2.2, 10.5	[5.7, 7]	0.0334 *
K	4.2 \pm 1.7	3.8 [3.2 to 5.2]	1.5, 9.8	[3.5, 4.8]	0.7430
Angle	63.2 \pm 6.9	63.8 [59 to 67.9]	42.3, 77.6	[60.5, 66]	<0.0001 **
MA	48.6 \pm 9	49.1 [41.1 to 55.3]	28.2, 67.9	[40, 48]	0.0829
MRTG	3.6 \pm 1.2	3.5 [2.8 to 4]	1.8, 8.1	[3.1, 4.1]	0.7013
TMRTG	8 \pm 2.6	9 [8 to 12.5]	6.4, 20.2	[6.9, 9]	0.0025 **
TTG	427.4 \pm 181.8	388.4 [295.9 to 570]	161.9, 823.9	[355.5, 499.3]	0.0918

R = clot initiation time, K = time till change in clot formation speed, Angle = rate of clot formation, MA = clot stability, MRTG = maximum rate of clot formation, TMRTG = time till maximum clot growth, TTG= total clot strength. * = P-value < 0.05, ** = P-value < 0.005.

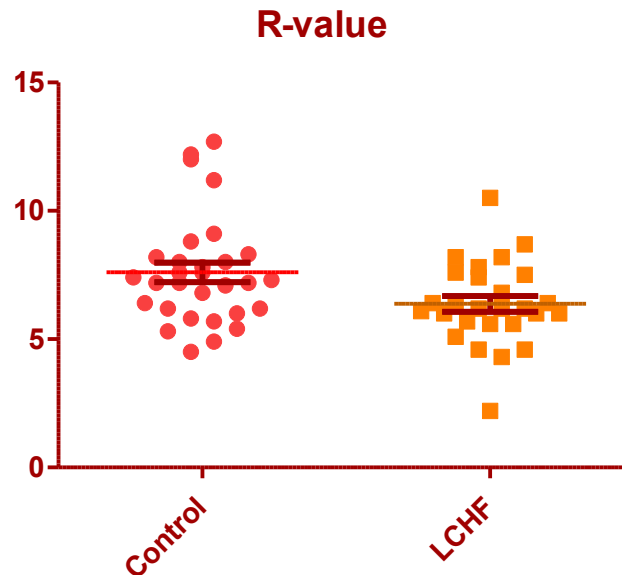


Figure 5.1: Median R-value was significantly shorter for LCHF participants than for the control participants (6.2 vs 7.3 minutes, P=0.0334).

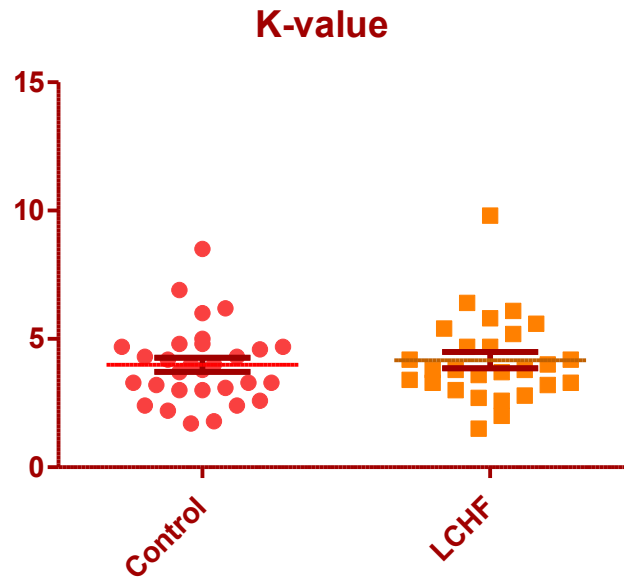


Figure 5.2: Median K-value was not significantly greater in LCHF than for control participants (3.8 vs 3.9 minutes, $P=0.7430$).

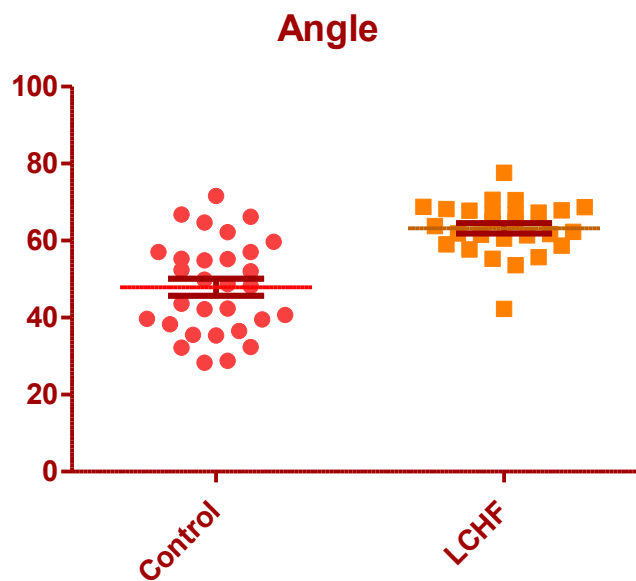


Figure 5.3: Median alpha angle was significantly greater in LCHF participants compared to controls (63.8 vs 48.5 degrees), $P<0.0001$.

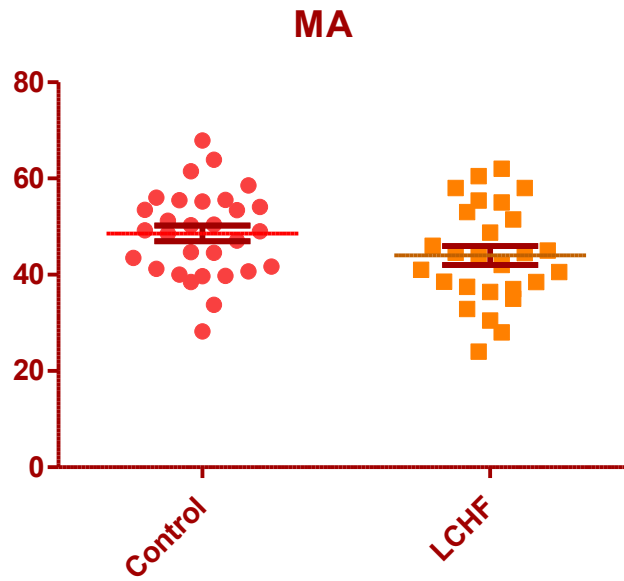


Figure 5.4: Median MA was not significantly lower in LCHF participants than in controls (49.1 vs 49.1 millimeters), $P=0.0829$.

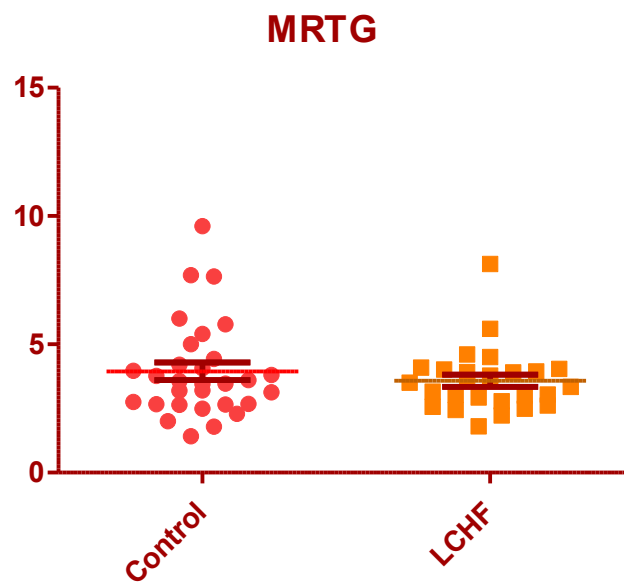


Figure 5.5: Median MRTG was not significantly different between LCHF and control participants (3.5 vs 3.5 $\text{Dyn cm}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$, $P=0.7013$).

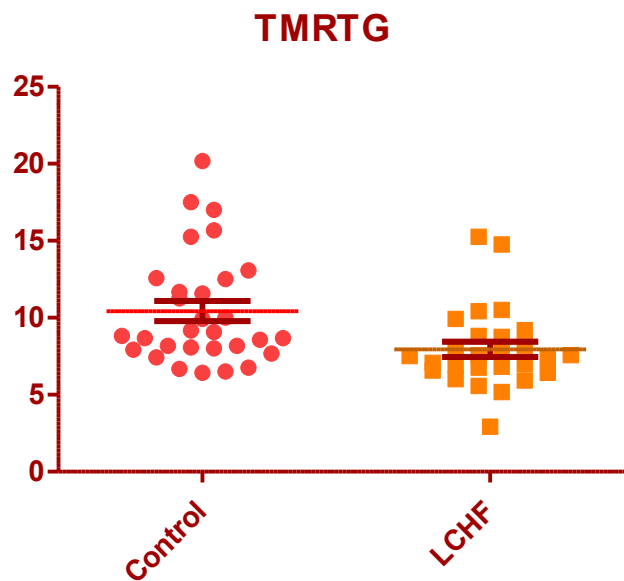


Figure 5.6: TMRTG was significantly shorter in LCHF participants compared to controls (8 vs 10.4 minutes, $P=0.0025$).

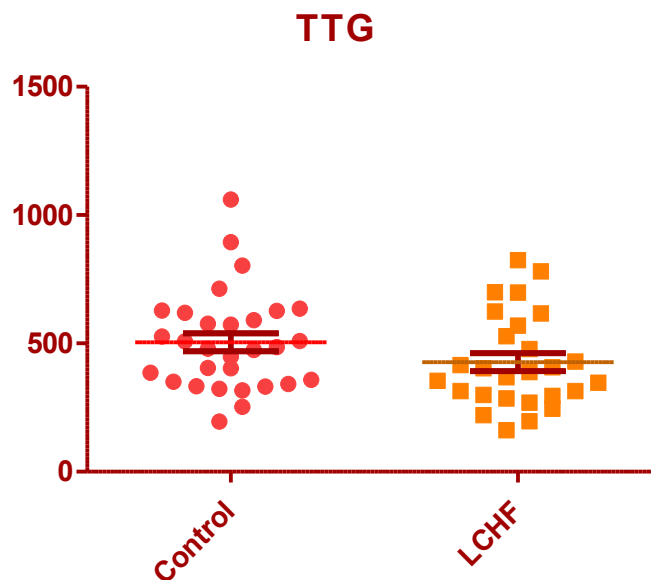


Figure 5.7: TGG was not significantly lower in LCHF than in control participants for TGG (388.4 vs 482.1 Dyn cm^{-2} , $P=0.0918$).

5.5 Discussion

TEG is an important tool that is used to measure the stability of the clot and it gives clinically valuable information about the entire coagulation process. It is known as a point-of-care method as well as a research technique.²²⁷ TEG can be used to detect

hypercoagulable and hypocoagulable states. The following clotting parameters were measured in the study: R, K, MA, Alpha angle, MRTG, TMRTG, TGG and these parameters are able to give information about the haemostatic activities within a person.^{17,63} The clotting parameters such as R value, K value and MA are also used to measure pathology of the clots formed.²²⁷ TEG allows continuous monitoring of the clotting process from its steps of initiation, amplification, propagation, and termination by, generating parameters and producing values related to each step.²³³⁻²³⁴ In the sample, the following parameters showed significance in LCHF participants compared to healthy individuals:

- Reaction time (R value) is the time taken from start of the test to initial fibrin formation.
- Alpha or angle representing, the speed in time for fibrin build up and cross-linking of fibrinogen fibers.
- Time to maximum rate of thrombin generation (TMRTG) a time observed before maximum velocity of clot growth.

Using TEG we looked at the coagulation of whole blood of LCHF participants and controls. We suggest that LCHF diet may affect coagulation, as the initial clot formation (R value) was significantly shorter and TMRTG was also shorter. An increase in alpha or angle indicates that the fibrin build -up occurs faster and cross-linking of fibrinogen fibers is increased. Also decrease in MA though, it was non-significantly indicates that the clot is weaker, yet stable. The shorter clot formation and a shorter time to maximum thrombus generation have been reported to show hypercoagulability or an increased coagulability.¹⁴⁹ Hypercoagulability is a feature of inflammation. The results indicate an increased rate of clot initiation and growth in LCHF participants although the formed clot may be insignificantly weaker, yet stable. We also suggest that hypercoagulation may be due to increased TF, which is also a cytokine. In the study that was done in normal human plasma with the addition of TF, the results demonstrated a significant decrease in clot initiation.²³⁵ Also, patients with atherosclerosis have been reported to have higher concentration of TF. TEG-based measures of clot initiation and speed of clot formation have confirmed hypercoagulability and increase risk of thromboembolic events to such patients.²³⁵

FXIII, platelets and fibrinogen are known to be key players in coagulation and WB clot strength.²³⁶ An increase in FXIII is associated with increased cross-linking of fibrin fibers forming denser clots, which are relatively more difficult to break down.²³⁷ Platelet function influences the progression of the coagulation cascade, while increase in fibrinogen levels were found to facilitate atherosclerosis in mouse models of CVD.⁶⁷ An increase in FXIII has been linked to metabolic syndrome, possibly indicating a link between FXIII and CVD.⁷² .

In a study that was done on mice which were fed a HFD, plasma levels of the following were measured; fibrinogen, thrombin, FVII, FVIII, FIX, FXI and FXII. In two weeks', time, the plasma levels of fibrinogen, FII and FVIII were increased, and this continued throughout sixteen weeks of HFD feeding.²³⁸ FVII, FIX, FXI and FXII showed an increase at two weeks. FXII has been linked to clot compactness.²³⁹ An increased formation of fibrin clots composed of compact, highly-branched networks with thin fibers has also been observed in patients with venous or arterial thrombosis.²⁴⁰

In this study, with the help of SEM, we have observed fibrin fibers in individuals on the LCHF diet where some clots were comprised of thin discontinuous fibers while others show matted regions. The DMDs are usually seen in patients with inflammatory conditions. This suggests that the LCHF diet may be inducing an inflammatory state, which then promotes hypercoagulability. Future studies may ascertain whether the nature of the clots formed in individuals on this diet change over time.

5.6 Conclusion

Clot formation occurs faster in LCHF participants compared to controls. A shorter reaction time usually occurs in hypercoagulability and this a feature of inflammation. The speed of the clot increased in LCHF participants although the strength of the clot may be slightly weaker in LCHF participants. The procoagulable feature may be due to changed presence of fibrinogen as well as increased platelet activation detected via flow cytometry. The slightly weaker clot formed may also be due to reduced platelet aggregation detected via flow cytometry. Future studies may verify these contributions of plasma components like fibrin and platelets to less stable clots as detected in this study.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION

The objectives of this study were to investigate the morphological and physiological effects of the LCHF diet on blood components and coagulation parameters using different techniques. Based on the results obtained from this study, using flow cytometry we showed lower platelet aggregation in LCHF individuals. Using TEG, it was shown that the clot formation was faster, but weaker and less stable in LCHF participants. Using SEM, the morphological analysis of RBCs has shown that in LCHF individuals, more poikilocytes were detected. We also observed less prominent platelet aggregation and the fibrin fibers for LCHF participants were shown to be discontinuous with some regions of DMDs.

We thus suggest that LCHF diet may reduce the expression of platelet receptors which influence platelet aggregation. This was confirmed by using TEG where the clot formation in LCHF participants although formed faster, was weaker and less stable. Pathophysiology of RBCs, platelets and fibrin fibers all contribute to impaired coagulation. The results observed in this study, using SEM, shows changes to RBC morphology of LCHF participants and this alteration was confirmed by an increased number of poikilocytes such as leptocytes, echinocytes and stomatocytes. In another study by Ciccoli et al (2012), leptocytes which were prominent in our LCHF group were found to be induced by oxidative stress.¹⁵⁴ The latter is an important feature of inflammation. An increase in the lipid distribution in the RBC's outer layer has been found to induce echinocyte shapes.¹⁷⁴ This may be applicable to our LCHF group. On the other hand, the stomatocyte transformation was found to occur after phosphorylation of intracellular spectrin and depletion of plasma cholesterol.²⁴¹⁻²⁴² Both inflammation and oxidative stress can affect RBC deformability, aggregation and blood viscosity. SEM findings of platelet aggregation was quantified using flow cytometry and confirmed lower aggregation in the LCHF diet group. Fibrin fibers in some LCHF participants were discontinuous and in addition, clots in some participants showed regions of DMDs. The DMDs have been identified in many other inflammatory conditions such as diabetes, RA, hemochromatosis and Alzheimer's.^{80,175,243-244} It is also important to note that all male and most female participants on the LCHF diet had borderline high or high cholesterol levels. These changes to plasma composition may also have increased inflammatory signalling.

As concluding remarks, we suggest that the LCHF diet induces an inflammatory response, which then can lead to changes in overall RBC and whole blood morphology. There, however, appears to be a change in the expression of receptors on platelets, which lowers platelet aggregation, potentially influencing clot properties in individuals on this diet. The morphological abnormalities visualized and described in RBCs, platelets and fibrin fibers in participants on a LCHF diet are novel findings.

6.1 Future perspectives and study limitations

Due to financial constraints, the study sample was confined to thirty-two LCHF participants. It is also noteworthy that strict adherence to the diet could not be ascertained leading to a wider distribution of data outcomes for the LCHF group in this study. A larger sample size within a more controlled setting may have reduced the spread of data and potentially more statistically significant results.

There are distinct morphological changes in the ultrastructure of RBCs, platelets and fibrin fibers caused by a LCHF diet. Therefore, sophisticated techniques that provide much more detailed information such as atomic force microscopy, could be employed, in addition to SEM to quantify the degree of change in the biophysical properties of the RBCs. Measurement of platelet aggregation markers using assays such as ELISA may add significant information to collaborate findings obtained with flow cytometry and TEG. Furthermore, additional tests measuring oxidative stress with ROS markers will be useful. Studies that investigate platelet signalling pathways may also provide substantial information on influences of diet on platelet activity.

More importantly, there appears to be a dearth of research regarding the long-term effects of a LCHF diet on haematology and haemostasis. Taking into consideration findings on the coagulation parameters obtained in this study, it can be postulated that results obtained from a long-term study will impact significantly on the outcome of clinical medicine, in particular cardiovascular diseases.

7. Appendix

Appendix 1: Informed Consent for Controls and LCHF group

Information leaflet and Informed consent form for study participants

[Control Group]

Ethics No: 366/16

Title of the Project: The morphological and physiological effects of a low-carbohydrate high-fat diet on coagulation parameters

Principal Investigator: Babalwa Jobela, Department of Physiology University of Pretoria (under the supervision of Dr P Soma, who will perform all the clinical work)

Introduction (invitation to participate in a Research study)

You are invited to volunteer for the above research study. You must be eighteen years or older to participate in this study. This information leaflet is to help you to decide if you would like to participate. The researcher will explain the reason for the drawing of blood. Blood will be drawn to view your cells in the blood under the microscope. ten ml of blood will be drawn (four ml for SEM and two ml for flow cytometry and four ml for TEG which will be used for microscopic work. Your blood will be used for this study only, remaining blood will be stored in the -80°C freezer in case the experiments needs to be repeated. If you have any questions, which are not fully explained in this leaflet, do not hesitate to ask me. You should not agree to take part unless you are completely happy about all the procedures involved.

Purpose of the study?

The purpose of the study is to investigate the effect of a low-carbohydrate high-fat diet on the structure of red blood cells, platelets and fibrin (cells within your blood) and measuring your cholesterol. Low-carbohydrate, high-fat diet is the eating of fewer carbohydrates with a higher proportion of fat. High-fat diet is known to disturb red blood cell function and lead to increase platelet activity which can both lead to narrowing of

your blood vessels. In order to do the study, blood samples will be needed. The blood will be analyzed via three procedures: (1) SEM (looking under a microscope that looks at the structure of the cells in your blood), (2) TEG which is a method of testing the efficiency of blood clotting and (3) Flow cytometry, which measures functions of the platelets.

Who will draw the blood?

Dr Prashilla Soma will draw the blood.

Description of your involvement

If you agree to be part of the research study, I will ask you to provide personal details like your name, surname gender and your age. I will also ask about your health e.g. are you on chronic medication, smoking and alcohol intake. You will be asked to confirm that you not on Banting diet.

Has the study received ethical approval?

The Faculty of Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee, University of Pretoria, approved this protocol (366/16) and written approval has been granted by that committee. The study has been structured in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki (last update: October 2013), which deals with the recommendations guiding doctors in biomedical research involving human/participants. A copy of the Declaration may be obtained from the investigator should you wish to review it.

Risks and Discomforts of Participation

There may be some risks or discomfort from your participation in this research. The risks of taking blood include pain, a bruise at the site where the blood is taken, redness and swelling of the vein and infection, and a rare risk of fainting and bleeding from the site. For your protection, the procedures will be performed under sterile conditions by a qualified medical doctor.

What are your rights as a patient/participant in this study?

Participating in this study is completely voluntary. Even if you decide to participate now, you may change your mind and stop at any time without stating any reason. Even if you decide to withdraw before the study is completed, it will be acceptable. The investigator retains the right to withdraw you from the study if it is considered to be in your best interest.

Confidentiality

I plan to publish the results of this study in medical journals. I will not include any information that would identify you. Your privacy will be protected, and your research records will be confidential. Once we have analysed the information no one will be able to identify you. Research reports and articles in scientific journals will not include any information that may identify you.

Contact information for the study

For the duration of the study, should you have any questions during the study, please do not hesitate to contact me. My telephone number is 078 025 2326 through which you can reach me or contact REC secretary on 012-356 3085)

Informed Consent

I hereby confirm that I have been informed by my doctor about the nature, conduct, benefits and risks of this study. I have also received, read and understood the above written information (Patient Information Leaflet and Informed Consent) regarding the study. By signing this document, you are agreeing to be in the study. I am aware that the results of the study, including personal details regarding gender, age, date of birth, initials and diagnosis will be anonymously processed into a research report. I may, at any stage, without prejudice, withdraw my consent and participation in the study. I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and (of my own free will) declare myself prepared to participate in the trial.

Patient's name.....

(Please print)

Patient's signature.....**Date**.....

I, Dr,.....herewith confirm that the above patient has been informed fully about the nature, conduct and risks of the above trial.

Investigator's name (Babalwa Jobela)

Investigator's signature

.....**Date**.....

Information filled by the Investigator

Age	Gender
Education/ occupation	
Height	Weight BMI Blood pressure (BP)....
Do the patient smoke?	Y / N
Any other chronic condition?	Y / N
Are you taking any medication?	Y / N
Contact details	

Twenty-four-hour dietary data of which two will be weekdays and one a weekend

Day	Details of diet (What is your diet consists of :)
1. Weekday	
2. Weekday	
3. Weekends	

Information leaflet and Informed consent form for study
participants

[LCHF Group]

Ethics number: 366/16

Title of the Project: The morphological and physiological effects of a low-carbohydrate high-fat diet on coagulation parameters

Principal Investigator: Babalwa Jobela Department of Physiology, University of Pretoria (under the supervision of Dr P Soma, who will perform all the clinical work)

Introduction (invitation to participate in a Research study)

You are invited to volunteer for the above research study. You must be eighteen years or older to participate in this study. This information leaflet is to help you to decide if you would like to participate. I will firstly check whether you are on a high fat diet or not. This will be done by checking the breaking down of fat levels on your urine using urine testing strips. The researcher will explain the reason for the drawing of blood. Blood will be drawn to measure your cholesterol and to view your cells in the blood under the microscopy. Fasting blood will be taken for lipid profiles, ten ml of blood will be drawn (two ml will be used for total cholesterol, as to measure your blood Cholesterol, four ml for SEM and flow cytometry and four ml for Thromboelastography (TEG) which will be used for microscopic work. Your blood will be used for this study only, but remaining blood will be stored in the -80°C freezer in case the experiments needs to be repeated. If you have any questions, which are not fully explained in this leaflet, do not hesitate to ask me. You should not agree to take part unless you are completely happy about all the procedures involved.

Purpose of the study?

The purpose of the study is to investigate the effect of a high-fat diet on the structure of red blood cells, platelets and fibrin (cells within your blood) and measuring your cholesterol. Low-carbohydrate, high-fat diet is the eating of fewer carbohydrates with a higher proportion of fat. High-fat diet is known to disturb red blood cell function and lead to increase platelet activity which can both lead to narrowing of your blood vessels. In order to do the study, blood samples will be needed. The blood will be

analyzed via three procedures: (1) SEM (looking under a microscope that looks at the structure of the cells in your blood), (2) Thromboelastography which is a method of testing the efficiency of blood clotting and (3) Flow cytometry, which measures functions of the platelets. A blood sample will also be sent to National Health Laboratory Service (NHLS) where your serum cholesterol will be measured.

Who will draw the blood?

Dr Soma will draw the blood.

Description of your involvement

If you agree to be part of the research study, I will ask you to provide personal details like your name, surname gender and your age. I will also ask about your health e.g. are you on chronic medication, smoking and alcohol intake. You will be asked to confirm your high-fat diet (questions on diet) or confirm your participation in the Banting diet.

Has the study received ethical approval?

The Faculty of Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee, University of Pretoria, approved this protocol (366/16) and written approval has been granted by that committee. The study has been structured in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki (last updated: October 2013), which deals with the recommendations guiding doctors in biomedical research involving human/participants. A copy of the Declaration may be obtained from the investigator should you wish to review it.

Risks and Discomforts of Participation.

There may be some risks or discomfort from your participation in this research. The risks of taking blood include pain, a bruise at the site where the blood is taken, redness and swelling of the vein and infection, and a rare risk of fainting and bleeding from the site. For your protection, the procedures will be performed under sterile conditions by a qualified medical doctor.

What are your rights as a patient/participant in this study?

Participating in this study is completely voluntary. Even if you decide to participate now, you may change your mind and stop at any time without stating any reason. Even if you decide to withdraw before the study is completed, it will be acceptable. The investigator retains the right to withdraw you from the study if it is considered to be in your best interest.

Confidentiality

I plan to publish the results of this study in medical journals. I will not include any information that would identify you. Your privacy will be protected, and your research records will be confidential. Once we have analysed the information no one will be able to identify you. Research reports and articles in scientific journals will not include any information that may identify you.

Contact information for the study

For the duration of the study, should you have any questions during the study, please do not hesitate to contact me. My telephone number is 078025 2326 through which you can reach me or contact the REC Secretary 012-356 3085.

Informed Consent

I hereby confirm that I have been informed by my doctor about the nature, conduct, benefits and risks of this study. I have also received, read and understood the above written information (Patient Information Leaflet and Informed Consent) regarding the study. By signing this document, you are agreeing to be in the study. I am aware that the results of the study, including personal details regarding gender, age, date of birth, initials and diagnosis will be anonymously processed into a research report. I may, at any stage, without prejudice, withdraw my consent and participation in the study. I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and (of my own free will) declare myself prepared to participate in the trial

Patient's name.....

(Please print)

Patient's signature.....**Date**.....

I, Dr,.....herewith confirm that the above patient has been informed fully about the nature, conduct and risks of the above trial.

Investigator's name (Babalwa Jobela)

Investigator's signature

.....**Date**.....

Information filled by the investigator

Age	
Gender	
Education/ occupation	
Does the patient take alcohol?	Y / N
Are you on acute medicines?	Y / N
(Contact Details)	

Smoking	Y / N
Blood pressure (mmHg)	
Height /weight..... BMI (kg/m ²)	
how long have you been on a diet	

Questionnaire for Self-reported diet

Should be on Banting diet at least 3 months **Y** **N**

Eggs **1 or more**

Animal Protein **sausages** **g / day**

Grilled fish, grilled fish .. g / day

Fats

Meat Free range, grass fed, Biltong, steak. g / d

Cheese and yoghurt g / day

Dairy full cream g/day

Vegetables Broccoli, tomatoes, mushrooms, onions, avocado
green leafy veggie g /day

Macadamia, walnuts g/ day

Nuts almonds g / day

Apples, oranges g/day

Fruit /Snack Greek yoghurt g/ day

Water cups

Drinks coffee, soft drinks cups

Three, twenty-four-hour dietary data of which two will be weekdays and one a weekend

Day	Details of diet
1. Weekday	
2. Weekday	
3. Weekends	

Disclosure statement: (Regarding consumption of high energy food like Carbohydrates or deviate from Banting (non-Banting moments).

.....

.....

.....

.....

Appendix 2: Ethics approval letter

The Research Ethics Committee, Faculty Health Sciences, University of Pretoria complies with ICH-GCP guidelines and has US Federal wide Assurance.

- FWA 00002567, Approved dd 22 May 2002 and Expires 28 August 2018.
- IRB 0000 2235 IORG0001762 Approved dd 22/04/2014 and Expires 22/04/2017.



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Faculty of Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee

13/10/2016

Approval Certificate New Application

Ethics Reference No.: 366/2016

Title: The effect of a high-fat diet on the morphology of the coagulation profile and on the lipogram

Dear Babalwa Jobela

The **New Application** as supported by documents specified in your cover letter dated 12/10/2016 for your research received on the 12/10/2016, was approved by the Faculty of Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee on its quorate meeting of 12/10/2016.

Please note the following about your ethics approval:

- Ethics Approval is valid for 1 year
- Please remember to use your protocol number (**366/2016**) on any documents or correspondence with the Research Ethics Committee regarding your research.
- Please note that the Research Ethics Committee may ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modification, or monitor the conduct of your research.

Ethics approval is subject to the following:

- The ethics approval is conditional on the receipt of **6 monthly written Progress Reports**, and
- The ethics approval is conditional on the research being conducted as stipulated by the details of all documents submitted to the Committee. In the event that a further need arises to change who the investigators are, the methods or any other aspect, such changes must be submitted as an Amendment for approval by the Committee.

We wish you the best with your research.

Yours sincerely

Dr R Sommers; MBChB, MMed (Int); MPharMed, PhD
Deputy Chairperson of the Faculty of Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee, University of Pretoria

The Faculty of Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee complies with the SA National Act 61 of 2003 as it pertains to health research and the United States Code of Federal Regulations Title 45 and 46. This committee abides by the ethical norms and principles for research, established by the Declaration of Helsinki, the South African Medical Research Council Guidelines as well as the Guidelines for Ethical Research: Principles Structures and Processes, Second Edition 2015 (Department of Health).

☎ 012 356 3084 ✉ deepeka.behari@up.ac.za / fnsethics@up.ac.za 🌐 <http://www.up.ac.za/healthethics>
✉ Private Bag X323, Arcadia, 0007 - Tswelopele Building, Level 4, Room 60, Gezina, Pretoria

The Research Ethics Committee, Faculty Health Sciences, University of Pretoria complies with ICH-GCP guidelines and has US Federal wide Assurance.

- FWA 00002567, Approved dd 22 May 2002 and Expires 03/20/2022.
- IRB 0000 2235 IORG0001762 Approved dd 22/04/2014 and Expires 03/14/2020.



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Faculty of Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee

28/04/2017

**Approval Certificate
Amendment**

(to be read in conjunction with the main approval certificate)

Ethics Reference No.: 366/2016

Title: The morphological and physiological effects of a low-carbohydrate high-fat diet on coagulation parameters

Dear Babalwa Jobela

The **Amendment** as described in your documents specified in your cover letter dated 31/03/2017 received on 31/03/2017 was approved by the Faculty of Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee on its quorate meeting of 26/04/2017.

Please note the following about your ethics amendment:

- Please remember to use your protocol number (**366/2016**) on any documents or correspondence with the Research Ethics Committee regarding your research.
- Please note that the Research Ethics Committee may ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modification, or monitor the conduct of your research.

Ethics amendment is subject to the following:

- The ethics approval is conditional on the receipt of **6 monthly written Progress Reports**, and
- The ethics approval is conditional on the research being conducted as stipulated by the details of all documents submitted to the Committee. In the event that a further need arises to change who the investigators are, the methods or any other aspect, such changes must be submitted as an Amendment for approval by the Committee.

We wish you the best with your research.

Yours sincerely

Dr R Sommers; MBChB; MMed (Int); MPharmD; PhD
Deputy Chairperson of the Faculty of Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee, University of Pretoria

The Faculty of Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee complies with the SA National Act 61 of 2003 as it pertains to health research and the United States Code of Federal Regulations Title 45 and 46. This committee abides by the ethical norms and principles for research, established by the Declaration of Helsinki, the South African Medical Research Council Guidelines as well as the Guidelines for Ethical Research: Principles Structures and Processes, Second Edition 2015 (Department of Health).

☎ 012 356 3084 ✉ deepeka.behari@up.ac.za / fhsethics@up.ac.za 🌐 <http://www.up.ac.za/healthethics>
✉ Private Bag X323, Arcadia, 0007 - Tswelopele Building, Level 4, Room 60, Gezina, Pretoria



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Faculty of Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee

29/03/2018

Babalwa Jobela
Department of Physiology
University of Pretoria

Dear Babalwa Jobela

RE.: 366/2016 ~ Letter dated 22 February 2018

366/2016	Jobela
Protocol Title	The effect of a high-fat diet on the morphology of the coagulation profile and on the lipogram.
Principal Investigator	Babalwa Jobela Tel: 078 025 2326 Email: babalwajobela@gmail.com Dept: Physiology

We hereby acknowledge receipt of the following document:

- Extension of study until the end of November 2018

which has been approved at 28 March 2018 meeting.

With regards

Dr R Sommers; MBChB; MMed (Int); MPharMed; PhD
Deputy Chairperson of the Faculty of Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee, University of Pretoria

☎ 012 356 3085 🌐 fhsethics.up.ac.za 🌐 <http://www.up.ac.za/healthethics>
✉ Private Bag X323, Arcadia, 0007 - Tswelopele Building, Level 4-59, Gezina, Pretoria

8. References

1. Kaur J. A comprehensive review on metabolic syndrome. *Cardiol Res Pract.* 2014; 2014:943162.
2. Hauner H, Bechthold A, Boeing H, Bronstrup A, Buyken A, Leschik-Bonnet E, et al. Evidence-based guideline of the german nutrition society: Carbohydrate intake and prevention of nutrition-related diseases. *Ann Nutr Metab.* 2012; 60 Suppl 1:1-58.
3. Brouns F. Overweight and diabetes prevention: Is a low-carbohydrate-high-fat diet recommendable? *Eur J Nutr.* 2018; 57(4):1301-12.
4. DeSalvo KB, Olson R, Casavale KO. Dietary guidelines for americans. *Jama.* 2016; 315(5):457-8.
5. Feinman RD, Pogozelski WK, Astrup A, Bernstein RK, Fine EJ, Westman EC, et al. Dietary carbohydrate restriction as the first approach in diabetes management: Critical review and evidence base. *Nutr.* 2015; 31(1):1-13.
6. Volek JS, Phinney SD, Forsythe CE, Quann EE, Wood RJ, Puglisi MJ, et al. Carbohydrate restriction has a more favorable impact on the metabolic syndrome than a low fat diet. *Lipids.* 2009; 44(4):297-309.
7. Chang CK, Borer K, Lin PJ. Low-carbohydrate-high-fat diet: Can it help exercise performance? *J Hum Kinet.* 2017; 56:81-92.
8. Bueno NB, de Melo IS, de Oliveira SL, da Rocha Ataide T. Very-low-carbohydrate ketogenic diet v. Low-fat diet for long-term weight loss: A meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. *Br J Nutr.* 2013; 110(7):1178-87.
9. Hu T, Mills KT, Yao L, Demanelis K, Eloustaz M, Yancy WS, Jr., et al. Effects of low-carbohydrate diets versus low-fat diets on metabolic risk factors: A meta-analysis of randomized controlled clinical trials. *Am J Epidemiol.* 2012; 176 Suppl 7:S44-54.
10. Noakes TD, Windt J. Evidence that supports the prescription of low-carbohydrate high-fat diets: A narrative review. *Br J Sports Med.* 2017; 51(2):133-9.
11. Paoli A, Bianco A, Grimaldi KA. The ketogenic diet and sport: A possible marriage? *Exerc Sport Sci Rev.* 2015; 43(3):153-62.
12. Adam-Perrot A, Clifton P, Brouns F. Low-carbohydrate diets: Nutritional and physiological aspects. *Obes Rev.* 2006; 7(1):49-58.
13. Puchalska P, Crawford PA. Multi-dimensional roles of ketone bodies in fuel metabolism, signaling, and therapeutics. *Cell Metab.* 2017; 25(2):262-84.

14. Hession M, Rolland C, Kulkarni U, Wise A, Broom J. Systematic review of randomized controlled trials of low-carbohydrate vs. Low-fat/low-calorie diets in the management of obesity and its comorbidities. *Obes Rev.* 2009; 10(1):36-50.
15. Pretorius E, Olumuyiwa-Akeredolu OO, Mbotwe S, Bester J. Erythrocytes and their role as health indicator: Using structure in a patient-orientated precision medicine approach. *Blood Rev.* 2016; 30(4):263-74.
16. Bester J, Pretorius E. Effects of il-1 β , il-6 and il-8 on erythrocytes, platelets and clot viscoelasticity. *Sci Rep.* 2016; 6:32188.
17. Kell DB, Pretorius E. The simultaneous occurrence of both hypercoagulability and hypofibrinolysis in blood and serum during systemic inflammation, and the roles of iron and fibrin(ogen). *Integr Biol (Camb).* 2015; 7(1):24-52.
18. Calder PC, Ahluwalia N, Brouns F, Buetler T, Clement K, Cunningham K, et al. Dietary factors and low-grade inflammation in relation to overweight and obesity. *Br J Nutr.* 2011; 106 Suppl 3:S5-78.
19. Calder PC, Ahluwalia N, Albers R, Bosco N, Bourdet-Sicard R, Haller D, et al. A consideration of biomarkers to be used for evaluation of inflammation in human nutritional studies. *Br J Nutr.* 2013; 109 Suppl 1:S1-34.
20. Giugliano D, Ceriello A, Esposito K. The effects of diet on inflammation: Emphasis on the metabolic syndrome. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2006; 48(4):677-85.
21. Esposito K, Giugliano D. Diet and inflammation: A link to metabolic and cardiovascular diseases. *Eur Heart J.* 2006; 27(1):15-20.
22. Pears AT, Rankin JW. Inflammatory response to a high-fat, low-carbohydrate weight loss diet: Effect of antioxidants. *Obesity (Silver Spring, Md.).* 2008; 16(7):1573-8.
23. Ceriello A, Motz E. Is oxidative stress the pathogenic mechanism underlying insulin resistance, diabetes, and cardiovascular disease? The common soil hypothesis revisited. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol.* 2004; 24(5):816-23.
24. Ajuwon KM, Spurlock ME. Palmitate activates the nf-kappab transcription factor and induces il-6 and tnfalpha expression in 3t3-l1 adipocytes. *J Nutr.* 2005; 135(8):1841-6.

25. Bradley RL, Fisher FF, Maratos-Flier E. Dietary fatty acids differentially regulate production of tnf-alpha and il-10 by murine 3t3-l1 adipocytes. *Obesity* (Silver Spring, Md.). 2008; 16(5):938-44.
26. Wang X, Cheng M, Zhao M, Ge A, Guo F, Zhang M, et al. Differential effects of high-fat-diet rich in lard oil or soybean oil on osteopontin expression and inflammation of adipose tissue in diet-induced obese rats. *Eur J Nutr.* 2013; 52(3):1181-9.
27. Medzhitov R. Toll-like receptors and innate immunity. *Nat Rev Immunol.* 2001; 1(2):135-45.
28. Shi H, Kokoeva MV, Inouye K, Tzameli I, Yin H, Flier JS. Tlr4 links innate immunity and fatty acid-induced insulin resistance. *J Clin Invest.* 2006; 116(11):3015-25.
29. Kim F, Pham M, Luttrell I, Bannerman DD, Tupper J, Thaler J, et al. Toll-like receptor-4 mediates vascular inflammation and insulin resistance in diet-induced obesity. *Circ Res.* 2007; 100(11):1589-96.
30. Maloney E, Sweet IR, Hockenbery DM, Pham M, Rizzo NO, Tateya S, et al. Activation of nf-kappab by palmitate in endothelial cells: A key role for nadph oxidase-derived superoxide in response to tlr4 activation. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol.* 2009; 29(9):1370-5.
31. Davis N, Katz S, Wylie-Rosett J. The effect of diet on endothelial function. *Cardiol Rev.* 2007; 15(2):62-6.
32. Vogel RA, Corretti MC, Plotnick GD. Effect of a single high-fat meal on endothelial function in healthy subjects. *Am J Cardiol.* 1997; 79(3):350-4.
33. Unruh D, Srinivasan R, Benson T, Haigh S, Coyle D, Batra N, et al. Red blood cell dysfunction induced by high-fat diet: Potential implications for obesity-related atherosclerosis. *Circulation.* 2015; 132(20):1898-908.
34. Connor J, Pak CC, Schroit AJ. Exposure of phosphatidylserine in the outer leaflet of human red blood cells. Relationship to cell density, cell age, and clearance by mononuclear cells. *J Biol Chem.* 1994; 269(4):2399-404.
35. Rankin JW, Turpyn AD. Low carbohydrate, high fat diet increases c-reactive protein during weight loss. *J Am Coll Nutr.* 2007; 26(2):163-9.
36. Ruth MR, Port AM, Shah M, Bourland AC, Istfan NW, Nelson KP, et al. Consuming a hypocaloric high fat low carbohydrate diet for 12 weeks lowers c-reactive

protein, and raises serum adiponectin and high density lipoprotein-cholesterol in obese subjects. *Metabolism*. 2013; 62(12):1779-87.

37. Hotamisligil GS, Shargill NS, Spiegelman BM. Adipose expression of tumor necrosis factor- α : Direct role in obesity-linked insulin resistance. *Science*. 1993; 259(5091):87-91.

38. Ahima RS, Flier JS. Adipose tissue as an endocrine organ. *Trends Endocrinol Metab*. 2000; 11(8):327-32.

39. Emanuela F, Grazia M, Marco de R, Maria Paola L, Giorgio F, Marco B. Inflammation as a link between obesity and metabolic syndrome. *J Nutr Metab*. 2012; 2012:476380.

40. Trayhurn P, Wood IS. Adipokines: Inflammation and the pleiotropic role of white adipose tissue. *Br J Nutr*. 2004; 92(3):347-55.

41. Paoletti R, Bolego C, Poli A, Cignarella A. Metabolic syndrome, inflammation and atherosclerosis. *Vasc Health Risk Manag*. 2006; 2(2):145-52.

42. Castell JV, Gomez-Lechon MJ, David M, Fabra R, Trullenque R, Heinrich PC. Acute-phase response of human hepatocytes: Regulation of acute-phase protein synthesis by interleukin-6. *Hepatology (Baltimore, Md.)*. 1990; 12 (5):1179-86.

43. van Rooy MJ, Pretorius E. Obesity, hypertension and hypercholesterolemia as risk factors for atherosclerosis leading to ischemic events. *Curr Med Chem*. 2014; 21(19):2121-9.

44. Esser N, Legrand-Poels S, Piette J, Scheen AJ, Paquot N. Inflammation as a link between obesity, metabolic syndrome and type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract*. 2014; 105(2):141-50.

45. Xu H, Barnes GT, Yang Q, Tan G, Yang D, Chou CJ, et al. Chronic inflammation in fat plays a crucial role in the development of obesity-related insulin resistance. *J Clin Invest*. 2003; 112(12):1821-30.

46. Ritchie SA, Ewart MA, Perry CG, Connell JM, Salt IP. The role of insulin and the adipocytokines in regulation of vascular endothelial function. *Clin Sci (Lond)*. 2004; 107(6):519-32.

47. Levi M, van der Poll T, Buller HR. Bidirectional relation between inflammation and coagulation. *Circulation*. 2004; 109(22):2698-704.

48. Demetz G, Ott I. The interface between inflammation and coagulation in cardiovascular disease. *Int J Inflam*. 2012; 2012:860301.
49. Lipinski S, Bremer L, Lammers T, Thieme F, Schreiber S, Rosenstiel P. Coagulation and inflammation. Molecular insights and diagnostic implications. *Hamostaseologie*. 2011; 31(2):94-102, 4.
50. Osterud B. Tissue factor expression by monocytes: Regulation and pathophysiological roles. *Blood Coagul Fibrinolysis*. 1998; 9 Suppl 1:S9-14.
51. Choi G, Schultz MJ, Levi M, van der Poll T. The relationship between inflammation and the coagulation system. *Swiss Med Wkly*. 2006; 136(9-10):139-44.
52. Levi M, van der Poll T. Two-way interactions between inflammation and coagulation. *Trends Cardiovasc Med*. 2005; 15(7):254-9.
53. Gale AJ. Continuing education course #2: Current understanding of hemostasis. *Toxicol Pathol*. 2011; 39(1):273-80.
54. Verstraeten L, Francois P, Dinant JP. [the physiology of primary hemostasis]. *J Pharm Belg*. 1989; 44(4):302-7.
55. Offermanns S. Activation of platelet function through g protein-coupled receptors. *Circ Res*. 2006; 99(12):1293-304.
56. Jurk K, Kehrel BE. Platelets: Physiology and biochemistry. *Semin Thromb Hemost*. 2005; 31(4):381-92.
57. Varga-Szabo D, Pleines I, Nieswandt B. Cell adhesion mechanisms in platelets. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol*. 2008; 28(3):403-12.
58. Brass LF. Thrombin and platelet activation. *Chest*. 2003; 124(3 Suppl):18s-25s.
59. Butenas S, Mann KG. Blood coagulation. *Biochemistry (Mosc)*. 2002; 67(1):3-12.
60. Kirchhofer D, Nemerson Y. Initiation of blood coagulation: The tissue factor/factor viia complex. *Curr Opin Biotechnol*. 1996; 7(4):386-91.
61. Dahlback B. Blood coagulation. *Lancet*. 2000; 355(9215):1627-32.
62. Norris LA. Blood coagulation. *Best Pract Res Clin Obstet Gynaecol*. 2003; 17(3):369-83.
63. Swanepoel AC, Nielsen VG, Pretorius E. Viscoelasticity and ultrastructure in coagulation and inflammation: Two diverse techniques, one conclusion. *Inflammation*. 2015; 38(4):1707-26.
64. Versteeg HH, Heemskerk JW, Levi M, Reitsma PH. New fundamentals in hemostasis. *Physiol Rev*. 2013; 93(1):327-58.

65. Prezelj A, Anderluh PS, Peternel L, Urleb U. Recent advances in serine protease inhibitors as anticoagulant agents. *Curr Pharm Des.* 2007; 13(3):287-312.
66. Iba T, Saitoh D. Efficacy of antithrombin in preclinical and clinical applications for sepsis-associated disseminated intravascular coagulation. *J Intensive Care.* 2014; 2(1):66.
67. Zhou B, Pan Y, Yu Q, Zhai Z. Fibrinogen facilitates atherosclerotic formation in sprague-dawley rats: A rodent model of atherosclerosis. *Exp Ther Med.* 2013; 5(3):730-4.
68. Kamath S, Lip GY. Fibrinogen: Biochemistry, epidemiology and determinants. *QJM.* 2003; 96(10):711-29.
69. Kattula S, Byrnes JR, Wolberg AS. Fibrinogen and fibrin in hemostasis and thrombosis. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol.* 2017; 37(3):e13-e21.
70. Cahill M, Mistry R, Barnett DB. The human platelet fibrinogen receptor: Clinical and therapeutic significance. *Br J Clin Pharmacol.* 1992; 33(1):3-9.
71. Yau JW, Teoh H, Verma S. Endothelial cell control of thrombosis. *BMC Cardiovascular Disorders.* 2015; 15:130.
72. van Rooy MJ, Pretorius E. Metabolic syndrome, platelet activation and the development of transient ischemic attack or thromboembolic stroke. *Thromb Res.* 2015; 135(3):434-42.
73. Palomo I, Alarcon M, Moore-Carrasco R, Argiles JM. Hemostasis alterations in metabolic syndrome (review). *Int J Mol Med.* 2006; 18(5):969-74.
74. Konings J, Govers-Riemslog JW, Philippou H, Mutch NJ, Borisoff JI, Allan P, et al. Factor xiiia regulates the structure of the fibrin clot independently of thrombin generation through direct interaction with fibrin. *Blood.* 2011; 118(14):3942-51.
75. Lipinski B, Pretorius E, Oberholzer HM, Van Der Spuy WJ. Iron enhances generation of fibrin fibers in human blood: Implications for pathogenesis of stroke. *Microsc Res Tech.* 2012; 75(9):1185-90.
76. Rooth E, Wallen NH, Blomback M, He S. Decreased fibrin network permeability and impaired fibrinolysis in the acute and convalescent phase of ischemic stroke. *Thromb Res.* 2011; 127(1):51-6.
77. Ajjan RA, Gamlen T, Standeven KF, Mughal S, Hess K, Smith KA, et al. Diabetes is associated with posttranslational modifications in plasminogen resulting in reduced plasmin generation and enzyme-specific activity. *Blood.* 2013; 122(1):134-42.

78. Pretorius E, Akeredolu OO, Soma P, Kell DB. Major involvement of bacterial components in rheumatoid arthritis and its accompanying oxidative stress, systemic inflammation and hypercoagulability. *Exp Biol Med (Maywood)*. 2017; 242(4):355-73.
79. Smith EB. Fibrinogen, fibrin and fibrin degradation products in relation to atherosclerosis. *Clin Haematol*. 1986; 15(2):355-70.
80. Pretorius E, Oberholzer HM, van der Spuy WJ, Swanepoel AC, Soma P. Qualitative scanning electron microscopy analysis of fibrin networks and platelet abnormalities in diabetes. *Blood Coagul Fibrinolysis*. 2011; 22(6):463-7.
81. Pretorius E, Lipinski B, Bester J, Vermeulen N, Soma P. Albumin stabilizes fibrin fiber ultrastructure in low serum albumin type 2 diabetes. *Ultrastruct Pathol*. 2013; 37(4):254-7.
82. Pretorius E, Steyn H, Engelbrecht M, Swanepoel AC, Oberholzer HM. Differences in fibrin fiber diameters in healthy individuals and thromboembolic ischemic stroke patients. *Blood Coagul Fibrinolysis*. 2011; 22(8):696-700.
83. Lipinski B, Pretorius E. Novel pathway of ironinduced blood coagulation: Implications for diabetes mellitus and its complications. *Pol Arch Med Wewn*. 2012; 122(3):115-22.
84. van Rooy MJ, Duim W, Ehlers R, Buys AV, Pretorius E. Platelet hyperactivity and fibrin clot structure in transient ischemic attack individuals in the presence of metabolic syndrome: A microscopy and thromboelastography(®) study. *Cardiovasc Diabetol*. 2015; 14.
85. Pretorius E. The adaptability of red blood cells. *Cardiovasc Diabetol*. 2013; 12:63.
86. Litvinov RI, Weisel JW. Role of red blood cells in haemostasis and thrombosis. *ISBT Sci Ser*. 2017; 12(1):176-83.
87. Horne MK, 3rd, Cullinane AM, Merryman PK, Hoddeson EK. The effect of red blood cells on thrombin generation. *Br J Haematol*. 2006; 133(4):403-8.
88. Pretorius E, du Plooy JN, Bester J. A comprehensive review on eryptosis. *Cell Physiol Biochem*. 2016; 39(5):1977-2000.
89. Shi J, Shi Y, Waehrens LN, Rasmussen JT, Heegaard CW, Gilbert GE. Lactadherin detects early phosphatidylserine exposure on immortalized leukemia cells undergoing programmed cell death. *Cytometry A*. 2006; 69(12):1193-201.

90. Whelihan MF, Zachary V, Orfeo T, Mann KG. Prothrombin activation in blood coagulation: The erythrocyte contribution to thrombin generation. *Blood*. 2012; 120(18):3837-45.
91. Wohner N. Role of cellular elements in thrombus formation and dissolution. *Cardiovasc Hematol Agents Med Chem*. 2008; 6(3):224-8.
92. Carr ME, Jr., Hardin CL. Fibrin has larger pores when formed in the presence of erythrocytes. *Am J Physiol*. 1987; 253(5 Pt 2):H1069-73.
93. van Gelder JM, Nair CH, Dhall DP. The significance of red cell surface area to the permeability of fibrin network. *Biorheology*. 1994; 31(3):259-75.
94. Pretorius E, Kell DB. Diagnostic morphology: Biophysical indicators for iron-driven inflammatory diseases. *Integr Biol (Camb)*. 2014; 6(5):486-510.
95. Symeonidis A, Athanassiou G, Psiroyannis A, Kyriazopoulou V, Kapatais-Zoumbos K, Missirlis Y, et al. Impairment of erythrocyte viscoelasticity is correlated with levels of glycosylated haemoglobin in diabetic patients. *Clin Lab Haematol*. 2001; 23(2):103-9.
96. Olumuyiwa-Akeredolu OO, Soma P, Buys AV, Debushe LK, Pretorius E. Characterizing pathology in erythrocytes using morphological and biophysical membrane properties: Relation to impaired hemorheology and cardiovascular function in rheumatoid arthritis. *Biochim Biophys Acta Biomembr*. 2017; 1859(12):2381-91.
97. Gyawali P, Richards RS, Hughes DL, Tinley P. Erythrocyte aggregation and metabolic syndrome. *Clin Hemorheol Microcirc*. 2014; 57(1):73-83.
98. Simmonds MJ, Meiselman HJ, Baskurt OK. Blood rheology and aging. *J Geriatr Cardiol*. 2013; 10(3):291-301.
99. Baskurt OK, Meiselman HJ. Erythrocyte aggregation: Basic aspects and clinical importance. *Clin Hemorheol Microcirc*. 2013; 53(1-2):23-37.
100. Moriarty PM, Gibson CA. Association between hematological parameters and high-density lipoprotein cholesterol. *Curr Opin Cardiol*. 2005; 20(4):318-23.
101. Baskurt OK, Meiselman HJ. Iatrogenic hyperviscosity and thrombosis. *Semin Thromb Hemost*. 2012; 38(8):854-64.
102. Bajd F, Vidmar J, Blinc A, Sersa I. Analysis of blood clot degradation fragment sizes in relation to plasma flow velocity. *Gen Physiol Biophys*. 2012; 31(3):237-45.
103. Atici AG, Kayhan S, Aydin D, Yilmaz YA. Plasma viscosity levels in pulmonary thromboembolism. *Clin Hemorheol Microcirc*. 2013; 55(3):313-20.

104. Holsworth RE, Jr., Cho YI, Weidman JJ, Sloop GD, St Cyr JA. Cardiovascular benefits of phlebotomy: Relationship to changes in hemorheological variables. *Perfusion*. 2014; 29(2):102-16.
105. Harrison DG. Cellular and molecular mechanisms of endothelial cell dysfunction. *J Clin Invest*. 1997; 100(9):2153-7.
106. Soma P, Pretorius E. Interplay between ultrastructural findings and atherothrombotic complications in type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Cardiovasc Diabetol*. 2015; 14:96.
107. Schroit AJ, Zwaal RF. Transbilayer movement of phospholipids in red cell and platelet membranes. *Biochim Biophys Acta*. 1991; 1071(3):313-29.
108. Ahmad SS, Rawala-Sheikh R, Walsh PN. Components and assembly of the factor x activating complex. *Semin Thromb Hemost*. 1992; 18(3):311-23.
109. Ollivier V, Syvannarath V, Gros A, Butt A, Loyau S, Jandrot-Perrus M, et al. Collagen can selectively trigger a platelet secretory phenotype via glycoprotein vi. *PLoS One*. 2014; 9(8):e104712.
110. Fackler OT, Grosse R. Cell motility through plasma membrane blebbing. *J Cell Biol*. 2008; 181(6):879-84.
111. Heemskerk JWM, Kuijpers MJE, Munnix ICA, Siljander PRM. Platelet collagen receptors and coagulation. A characteristic platelet response as possible target for antithrombotic treatment. *Trends Cardiovasc Med*. 2005; 15(3):86-92.
112. Blockmans D, Deckmyn H, Vermeylen J. Platelet activation. *Blood Reviews*. 1995; 9(3):143-56.
113. Heemskerk JW, Mattheij NJ, Cossemans JM. Platelet-based coagulation: Different populations, different functions. *J Thromb Haemost*. 2013; 11(1):2-16.
114. Ghoshal K, Bhattacharyya M. Overview of platelet physiology: Its hemostatic and nonhemostatic role in disease pathogenesis. *ScientificWorldJournal*. 2014; 2014:781857.
115. Hou Y, Carrim N, Wang Y, Gallant RC, Marshall A, Ni H. Platelets in hemostasis and thrombosis: Novel mechanisms of fibrinogen-independent platelet aggregation and fibronectin-mediated protein wave of hemostasis. *J Biomed Res*. 2015; 29.
116. Harrison P. Platelet function analysis. *Blood Rev*. 2005; 19(2):111-23.
117. Michelson AD. Thrombin-induced down-regulation of the platelet membrane glycoprotein ib-ix complex. *Semin Thromb Hemost*. 1992; 18(1):18-27.

118. White JG. Interaction of membrane systems in blood platelets. *Am J Pathol.* 1972; 66(2):295-312.
119. Flaumenhaft R. Molecular basis of platelet granule secretion. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol.* 2003; 23(7):1152-60.
120. Thon JN, Italiano JE. Platelets: Production, morphology and ultrastructure. *Handb Exp Pharmacol.* 2012; (210):3-22.
121. Vizcaino-Salazar G. [platelet physiology. Advances in platelet reactivity. Review]. *Invest Clin.* 1994; 35(1):41-62.
122. McEver RP. The clinical significance of platelet membrane glycoproteins. *Hematol Oncol Clin North Am.* 1990; 4(1):87-105.
123. Moroi M, Jung SM. Integrin-mediated platelet adhesion. *Front Biosci.* 1998; 3:d719-28.
124. Kainoh M, Ikeda Y, Nishio S, Nakadate T. Glycoprotein ia/IIa-mediated activation-dependent platelet adhesion to collagen. *Thromb Res.* 1992; 65(2):165-76.
125. Blair P, Flaumenhaft R. Platelet alpha-granules: Basic biology and clinical correlates. *Blood Rev.* 2009; 23(4):177-89.
126. Crovello CS, Furie BC, Furie B. Rapid phosphorylation and selective dephosphorylation of p-selectin accompanies platelet activation. *J Biol Chem.* 1993; 268(20):14590-3.
127. Diacovo TG, Roth SJ, Buccola JM, Bainton DF, Springer TA. Neutrophil rolling, arrest, and transmigration across activated, surface-adherent platelets via sequential action of p-selectin and the beta 2-integrin cd11b/cd18. *Blood.* 1996; 88(1):146-57.
128. Hsu-Lin S, Berman CL, Furie BC, August D, Furie B. A platelet membrane protein expressed during platelet activation and secretion. Studies using a monoclonal antibody specific for thrombin-activated platelets. *J Biol Chem.* 1984; 259(14):9121-6.
129. Podrez EA, Byzova TV, Febbraio M, Salomon RG, Ma Y, Valiyaveetil M, et al. Platelet cd36 links hyperlipidemia, oxidant stress and a prothrombotic phenotype. *Nat Med.* 2007; 13(9):1086-95.
130. Rosing J, van Rijn JL, Bevers EM, van Dieijen G, Comfurius P, Zwaal RF. The role of activated human platelets in prothrombin and factor x activation. *Blood.* 1985; 65(2):319-32.

131. Israels SJ, McMillan-Ward EM. Cd63 modulates spreading and tyrosine phosphorylation of platelets on immobilized fibrinogen. *Thromb Haemost.* 2005; 93(2):311-8.
132. Yngen M, Ostenson CG, Hu H, Li N, Hjemdahl P, Wallen NH. Enhanced p-selectin expression and increased soluble cd40 ligand in patients with type 1 diabetes mellitus and microangiopathy: Evidence for platelet hyperactivity and chronic inflammation. *Diabetologia.* 2004; 47(3):537-40.
133. Riyahi N, Tohit ERM, Thambiah SC, Ibrahim Z. Platelet-related cytokines among normal body mass index, overweight, and obese malaysians. *Asia Pac J Clin Nutr.* 2018; 27(1):182-8.
134. Chu SG, Becker RC, Berger PB, Bhatt DL, Eikelboom JW, Konkle B, et al. Mean platelet volume as a predictor of cardiovascular risk: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Thromb Haemost.* 2010; 8(1):148-56.
135. Kodiatte TA, Manikyam UK, Rao SB, Jagadish TM, Reddy M, Lingaiah HK, et al. Mean platelet volume in type 2 diabetes mellitus. *J Lab Physicians.* 2012; 4(1):5-9.
136. Lim HS, Blann AD, Lip GY. Soluble cd40 ligand, soluble p-selectin, interleukin-6, and tissue factor in diabetes mellitus: Relationships to cardiovascular disease and risk factor intervention. *Circulation.* 2004; 109(21):2524-8.
137. Israels SJ, McNicol A, Dean HJ, Cognasse F, Sellers EA. Markers of platelet activation are increased in adolescents with type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes Care.* 2014; 37(8):2400-3.
138. Lievens D, Zerneck A, Seijkens T, Soehnlein O, Beckers L, Munnix IC, et al. Platelet cd40l mediates thrombotic and inflammatory processes in atherosclerosis. *Blood.* 2010; 116(20):4317-27.
139. Merten M, Thiagarajan P. P-selectin expression on platelets determines size and stability of platelet aggregates. *Circulation.* 2000; 102(16):1931-6.
140. Gutierrez JM, Carvalho FB, Schetinger MR, Rodrigues MV, Vieira JM, Maldonado P, et al. Alterations in the extracellular catabolism of nucleotides and platelet aggregation induced by high-fat diet in rats: Effects of alpha-tocopherol. *J Physiol Biochem.* 2014; 70(2):487-96.
141. Hawley JA, Schabort EJ, Noakes TD, Dennis SC. Carbohydrate-loading and exercise performance. An update. *Sports Med.* 1997; 24(2):73-81.

142. Lee MJ, Hammond KM, Vasdev A, Poole KL, Impey SG, Close GL, et al. Self-selecting fluid intake while maintaining high carbohydrate availability does not impair half-marathon performance. *Int J Sports Med.* 2014; 35(14):1216-22.
143. Noakes T, Volek JS, Phinney SD. Low-carbohydrate diets for athletes: What evidence? *Br J Sports Med.* 2014; 48(14):1077-8.
144. Noakes TD. Low-carbohydrate and high-fat intake can manage obesity and associated conditions: Occasional survey. *S Afr Med J.* 2013; 103(11):826-30.
145. Brinkworth GD, Buckley JD, Noakes M, Clifton PM, Wilson CJ. Long-term effects of a very low-carbohydrate diet and a low-fat diet on mood and cognitive function. *Arch Intern Med.* 2009; 169(20):1873-80.
146. Rosengren A. Cardiovascular disease in diabetes type 2: Current concepts. *J Intern Med.* 2018.
147. Bogner A, Thollet G, Basset D, Jouneau PH, Gauthier C. Wet stem: A new development in environmental sem for imaging nano-objects included in a liquid phase. *Ultramicroscopy.* 2005; 104(3-4):290-301.
148. Bogner A, Jouneau PH, Thollet G, Basset D, Gauthier C. A history of scanning electron microscopy developments: Towards "wet-stem" imaging. *Micron.* 2007; 38(4):390-401.
149. Bester J, Soma P, Kell DB, Pretorius E. Viscoelastic and ultrastructural characteristics of whole blood and plasma in alzheimer-type dementia, and the possible role of bacterial lipopolysaccharides (lps). *Oncotarget.* 2015; 6(34):35284-303.
150. Lopes de Almeida JP, Oliveira S, Saldanha C. Erythrocyte as a biological sensor. *Clin Hemorheol Microcirc.* 2012; 51(1):1-20.
151. Lechuga-Sancho AM, Gallego-Andujar D, Ruiz-Ocana P, Visiedo FM, Saez-Benito A, Schwarz M, et al. Obesity induced alterations in redox homeostasis and oxidative stress are present from an early age. *PLoS One.* 2018; 13(1):e0191547.
152. Benson TW, Weintraub NL, Kim HW, Seigler N, Kumar S, Pye J, et al. A single high-fat meal provokes pathological erythrocyte remodeling and increases myeloperoxidase levels: Implications for acute coronary syndrome. *Lab Invest.* 2018; 98(10):1300-10.
153. Swanepoel AC, Pretorius E. Scanning electron microscopy analysis of erythrocytes in thromboembolic ischemic stroke. *Int J Lab Hematol.* 2012; 34(2):185-91.

154. Ciccoli L, De Felice C, Paccagnini E, Leoncini S, Pecorelli A, Signorini C, et al. Morphological changes and oxidative damage in rett syndrome erythrocytes. *Biochim Biophys Acta*. 2012; 1820(4):511-20.
155. Lesesve JF, Garcon L, Lecompte T. Finding knizocytes in a peripheral blood smear. *Am J Hematol*. 2012; 87(1):105-6.
156. Ford J. Red blood cell morphology. *Int J Lab Hematol*. 2013; 35(3):351-7.
157. Lynch EC. Peripheral blood smear. In: rd, Walker HK, Hall WD, Hurst JW, editors. *Clinical methods: The history, physical, and laboratory examinations*. Boston: Butterworths. Butterworth Publishers, a division of Reed Publishing.; 1990.
158. Vinik AI, Erbas T, Park TS, Nolan R, Pittenger GL. Platelet dysfunction in type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes Care*. 2001; 24(8):1476-85.
159. Dorsam RT, Kunapuli SP. Central role of the p2y12 receptor in platelet activation. *J Clin Invest*. 2004; 113(3):340-5.
160. Angiolillo DJ, Ueno M, Goto S. Basic principles of platelet biology and clinical implications. *Circ J*. 2010; 74(4):597-607.
161. Angiolillo DJ, Bernardo E, Ramirez C, Costa MA, Sabate M, Jimenez-Quevedo P, et al. Insulin therapy is associated with platelet dysfunction in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus on dual oral antiplatelet treatment. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2006; 48(2):298-304.
162. Wolberg AS. Thrombin generation and fibrin clot structure. *Blood Rev*. 2007; 21(3):131-42.
163. Wolberg AS, Monroe DM, Roberts HR, Hoffman M. Elevated prothrombin results in clots with an altered fiber structure: A possible mechanism of the increased thrombotic risk. *Blood*. 2003; 101(8):3008-13.
164. Aleman MM, Walton BL, Byrnes JR, Wang JG, Heisler MJ, Machlus KR, et al. Elevated prothrombin promotes venous, but not arterial, thrombosis in mice. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol*. 2013; 33(8):1829-36.
165. Fatah K, Hamsten A, Blomback B, Blomback M. Fibrin gel network characteristics and coronary heart disease: Relations to plasma fibrinogen concentration, acute phase protein, serum lipoproteins and coronary atherosclerosis. *Thromb Haemost*. 1992; 68(2):130-5.

166. Alaba O, Chola L. Socioeconomic inequalities in adult obesity prevalence in south africa: A decomposition analysis. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. 2014; 11(3):3387-406.
167. Gyawali P, Richards RS, Uba Nwose E. Erythrocyte morphology in metabolic syndrome. *Expert Rev Hematol*. 2012; 5(5):523-31.
168. Cazzola R, Rondanelli M, Russo-Volpe S, Ferrari E, Cestaro B. Decreased membrane fluidity and altered susceptibility to peroxidation and lipid composition in overweight and obese female erythrocytes. *J Lipid Res*. 2004; 45(10):1846-51.
169. Ahmadzadeh E, Jaferzadeh K, Lee J, Moon I. Automated three-dimensional morphology-based clustering of human erythrocytes with regular shapes: Stomatocytes, discocytes, and echinocytes. *J Biomed Opt*. 2017; 22(7):76015.
170. Chien S. Red cell deformability and its relevance to blood flow. *Annu Rev Physiol*. 1987; 49:177-92.
171. Kim J, Lee H, Shin S. Advances in the measurement of red blood cell deformability: A brief review. *Journal of Cellular Biotechnology*. 2015; 1(1):63-79.
172. Evans EA. Bending resistance and chemically induced moments in membrane bilayers. *Biophys J*. 1974; 14(12):923-31.
173. Sheetz MP, Singer SJ. Biological membranes as bilayer couples. A molecular mechanism of drug-erythrocyte interactions. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 1974; 71(11):4457-61.
174. Lim HWG, Wortis M, Mukhopadhyay R. Stomatocyte-discocyte-echinocyte sequence of the human red blood cell: Evidence for the bilayer- couple hypothesis from membrane mechanics. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2002; 99(26):16766-9.
175. Pretorius E, Bester J, Vermeulen N, Lipinski B, Gericke GS, Kell DB. Profound morphological changes in the erythrocytes and fibrin networks of patients with hemochromatosis or with hyperferritinemia, and their normalization by iron chelators and other agents. *PLoS One*. 2014; 9(1):e85271.
176. Holinstat M. Normal platelet function. *Cancer Metastasis Rev*. 2017; 36(2):195-8.
177. Davi G, Patrono C. Platelet activation and atherothrombosis. *N Engl J Med*. 2007; 357(24):2482-94.
178. van Rooy MJ, Pretorius E. Platelet interaction with erythrocytes and propensity to aggregation in essential thrombocythaemia. *Lancet*. 2016; 387(10024):1210.

179. Israels SJ, McMillan-Ward EM, Easton J, Robertson C, McNicol A. Cd63 associates with the alphaIIb beta3 integrin-cd9 complex on the surface of activated platelets. *Thromb Haemost.* 2001; 85(1):134-41.
180. Jennings LK. Mechanisms of platelet activation: Need for new strategies to protect against platelet-mediated atherothrombosis. *Thromb Haemost.* 2009; 102(2):248-57.
181. Undas A, Ariens RA. Fibrin clot structure and function: A role in the pathophysiology of arterial and venous thromboembolic diseases. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol.* 2011; 31(12):e88-99.
182. Pretorius E, Bester J. Viscoelasticity as a measurement of clot structure in poorly controlled type 2 diabetes patients: Towards a precision and personalized medicine approach. *Oncotarget.* 2016; 7(32):50895-907.
183. Marti GE, Stetler-Stevenson M, Bleesing JJ, Fleisher TA. Introduction to flow cytometry. *Semin Hematol.* 2001; 38(2):93-9.
184. Adan A, Alizada G, Kiraz Y, Baran Y, Nalbant A. Flow cytometry: Basic principles and applications. *Crit Rev Biotechnol.* 2017; 37(2):163-76.
185. R. Melamed M. Chapter 1 a brief history of flow cytometry and sorting 2001.
186. Ault KA, Mitchell J. Analysis of platelets by flow cytometry. *Methods Cell Biol.* 1994; 42 Pt B:275-94.
187. Lazarus AH, Wright JF, Blanchette V, Freedman J. Analysis of platelets by flow cytometry. *Transfus Sci.* 1995; 16(4):353-61.
188. Rinder HM. Platelet function testing by flow cytometry. *Clin Lab Sci.* 1998; 11(6):365-72.
189. Saboor M, Moinuddin M, Ilyas S. New horizons in platelets flow cytometry. *Malays J Med Sci.* 2013; 20(2):62-6.
190. Huskens D, Sang Y, Konings J, van der Vorm L, de Laat B, Kelchtermans H, et al. Standardization and reference ranges for whole blood platelet function measurements using a flow cytometric platelet activation test. *PLoS One.* 2018; 13(2):e0192079.
191. Bagamery K, Kvell K, Landau R, Graham J. Flow cytometric analysis of cd41-labeled platelets isolated by the rapid, one-step optiprep method from human blood. *Cytometry A.* 2005; 65(1):84-7.

192. McNicol A, Israels SJ. Beyond hemostasis: The role of platelets in inflammation, malignancy and infection. *Cardiovasc Hematol Disord Drug Targets*. 2008; 8(2):99-117.
193. Dovlatova N. Current status and future prospects for platelet function testing in the diagnosis of inherited bleeding disorders. *Br J Haematol*. 2015; 170(2):150-61.
194. Gawaz M, Langer H, May AE. Platelets in inflammation and atherogenesis. *J Clin Invest*. 2005; 115(12):3378-84.
195. Klein B, Faridi A, von Tempelhoff GF, Heilmann L, Mittermayer C, Rath W. A whole blood flow cytometric determination of platelet activation by unfractionated and low molecular weight heparin in vitro. *Thromb Res*. 2002; 108(5-6):291-6.
196. Zhang J, Varas F, Stadtfeld M, Heck S, Faust N, Graf T. Cd41-yfp mice allow in vivo labeling of megakaryocytic cells and reveal a subset of platelets hyperreactive to thrombin stimulation. *Exp Hematol*. 2007; 35(3):490-9.
197. Henry M, Davidson L, Cohen Z, McDonagh PF, Nolan PE, Ritter LS. Whole blood aggregation, coagulation, and markers of platelet activation in diet-induced diabetic c57bl/6j mice. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract*. 2009; 84(1):11-8.
198. Furie B, Furie BC, Flaumenhaft R. A journey with platelet p-selectin: The molecular basis of granule secretion, signalling and cell adhesion. *Thromb Haemost*. 2001; 86(1):214-21.
199. Shebuski RJ, Kilgore KS. Role of inflammatory mediators in thrombogenesis. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther*. 2002; 300(3):729-35.
200. Abrams C, Shattil SJ. Immunological detection of activated platelets in clinical disorders. *Thromb Haemost*. 1991; 65(5):467-73.
201. Henn V, Slupsky JR, Grafe M, Anagnostopoulos I, Forster R, Muller-Berghaus G, et al. Cd40 ligand on activated platelets triggers an inflammatory reaction of endothelial cells. *Nature*. 1998; 391(6667):591-4.
202. Thomas MR, Storey RF. The role of platelets in inflammation. *Thromb Haemost*. 2015; 114(3):449-58.
203. Aloui C, Prigent A, Sut C, Tariket S, Hamzeh-Cognasse H, Pozzetto B, et al. The signaling role of cd40 ligand in platelet biology and in platelet component transfusion. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2014; 15(12):22342-64.
204. Andre P, Prasad KS, Denis CV, He M, Papalia JM, Hynes RO, et al. Cd40l stabilizes arterial thrombi by a beta3 integrin--dependent mechanism. *Nat Med*. 2002; 8(3):247-52.

205. van Rooy MJ, Duim W, Ehlers R, Buys AV, Pretorius E. Platelet hyperactivity and fibrin clot structure in transient ischemic attack individuals in the presence of metabolic syndrome: A microscopy and thromboelastography study. *Cardiovasc Diabetol.* 2015; 14:86.
206. Wagner DD, Burger PC. Platelets in inflammation and thrombosis. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol.* 2003; 23(12):2131-7.
207. Harrison P. Assessment of platelet function in the laboratory. *Hamostaseologie.* 2009; 29(1):25-31.
208. Kamath S, Blann AD, Lip GY. Platelet activation: Assessment and quantification. *Eur Heart J.* 2001; 22(17):1561-71.
209. Nieswandt B, Pleines I, Bender M. Platelet adhesion and activation mechanisms in arterial thrombosis and ischaemic stroke. *J Thromb Haemost.* 2011; 9 Suppl 1:92-104.
210. Sims PJ, Ginsberg MH, Plow EF, Shattil SJ. Effect of platelet activation on the conformation of the plasma membrane glycoprotein iib-iiia complex. *J Biol Chem.* 1991; 266(12):7345-52.
211. Mills DC. Adp receptors on platelets. *Thromb Haemost.* 1996; 76(6):835-56.
212. Kahner BN, Shankar H, Murugappan S, Prasad GL, Kunapuli SP. Nucleotide receptor signaling in platelets. *J Thromb Haemost.* 2006; 4(11):2317-26.
213. Murakami T, Komiyama Y, Masuda M, Kido H, Nomura S, Fukuhara S, et al. Flow cytometric analysis of platelet activation markers cd62p and cd63 in patients with coronary artery disease. *Eur J Clin Invest.* 1996; 26(11):996-1003.
214. Soma P, Swanepoel AC, du Plooy JN, Mqoco T, Pretorius E. Flow cytometric analysis of platelets type 2 diabetes mellitus reveals 'angry' platelets. *Cardiovasc Diabetol.* 2016; 15:52.
215. Taylor ML, Misso NLA, Stewart GA, Thompson PJ. Differential expression of platelet activation markers cd62p and cd63 following stimulation with paf, arachidonic acid and collagen. *Platelets.* 1995; 6(6):394-401.
216. J. Clemetson K, M. Clemetson J. Chapter 9. Platelet receptors 2013.
217. Periyah MH, Halim AS, Mat Saad AZ. Mechanism action of platelets and crucial blood coagulation pathways in hemostasis. *Int J Hematol Oncol Stem Cell Res.* 2017; 11(4):319-27.
218. Moers A, Wettschureck N, Offermanns S. G13-mediated signaling as a potential target for antiplatelet drugs. *Drug News Perspect.* 2004; 17(8):493-8.

219. Bagoly Z, Koncz Z, Harsfalvi J, Muszbek L. Factor xiii, clot structure, thrombosis. *Thromb Res.* 2012; 129(3):382-7.
220. Hartert H. [not available]. *Klin Wochenschr.* 1948; 26(37-38):577-83.
221. Mylotte D, Foley D, Kenny D. Platelet function testing: Methods of assessment and clinical utility. *Cardiovasc Hematol Agents Med Chem.* 2011; 9(1):14-24.
222. Peng HT, Rhind SG. Thromboelastographic study of psychophysiological stress: A review. *Clin Appl Thromb Hemost.* 2015; 21(6):497-512.
223. Bose E, Hravnak M. Thromboelastography: A practice summary for nurse practitioners treating hemorrhage. *J Nurse Pract.* 2015; 11(7):702-9.
224. Walsh M, Fritz S, Hake D, Son M, Greve S, Jbara M, et al. Targeted thromboelastographic (teg) blood component and pharmacologic hemostatic therapy in traumatic and acquired coagulopathy. *Curr Drug Targets.* 2016; 17(8):954-70.
225. Johansson PI, Stensballe J, Vindelov N, Perner A, Espersen K. Hypocoagulability, as evaluated by thrombelastography, at admission to the icu is associated with increased 30-day mortality. *Blood Coagul Fibrinolysis.* 2010; 21(2):168-74.
226. Park MS, Martini WZ, Dubick MA, Salinas J, Butenas S, Kheirabadi BS, et al. Thromboelastography as a better indicator of hypercoagulable state after injury than prothrombin time or activated partial thromboplastin time. *J Trauma.* 2009; 67(2):266-75; discussion 75-6.
227. Pretorius E, Swanepoel AC, DeVilliers S, Bester J. Blood clot parameters: Thromboelastography and scanning electron microscopy in research and clinical practice. *Thromb Res.* 2017; 154:59-63.
228. Pommerening MJ, Goodman MD, Farley DL, Cardenas JC, Podbielski J, Matijevic N, et al. Early diagnosis of clinically significant hyperfibrinolysis using thrombelastography velocity curves. *J Am Coll Surg.* 2014; 219(6):1157-66.
229. Spinella PC, Holcomb JB. Resuscitation and transfusion principles for traumatic hemorrhagic shock. *Blood Rev.* 2009; 23(6):231-40.
230. da Luz LT, Nascimento B, Rizoli S. Thrombelastography (teg(r)): Practical considerations on its clinical use in trauma resuscitation. *Scand J Trauma Resusc Emerg Med.* 2013; 21:29.
231. Jeger V, Zimmermann H, Exadaktylos AK. The role of thrombelastography in multiple trauma. *Emerg Med Int.* 2011; 2011:895674.

232. Abdelfattah K, Cripps MW. Thromboelastography and rotational thromboelastometry use in trauma. *Int J Surg*. 2016; 33(Pt B):196-201.
233. Schochl H, Voelckel W, Grassetto A, Schlimp CJ. Practical application of point-of-care coagulation testing to guide treatment decisions in trauma. *J Trauma Acute Care Surg*. 2013; 74(6):1587-98.
234. Johansson PI, Stissing T, Bochsén L, Ostrowski SR. Thrombelastography and tromboelastometry in assessing coagulopathy in trauma. *Scand J Trauma Resusc Emerg Med*. 2009; 17:45.
235. Nielsen VG, Audu P, Cankovic L, Lyerly RT, 3rd, Steenwyk BL, Armstead V, et al. Qualitative thrombelastographic detection of tissue factor in human plasma. *Anesth Analg*. 2007; 104(1):59-64.
236. Nielsen VG, Kirklin JK, Hoogendoorn H, Ellis TC, Holman WL. Thrombelastographic method to quantify the contribution of factor xiii to coagulation kinetics. *Blood Coagul Fibrinolysis*. 2007; 18(2):145-50.
237. Mills JD, Mansfield MW, Grant PJ. Factor xiii-circulating levels and the val34leu polymorphism in the healthy male relatives of patients with severe coronary artery disease. *Thromb Haemost*. 2002; 87(3):409-14.
238. Cleuren AC, Blankevoort VT, van Diepen JA, Verhoef D, Voshol PJ, Reitsma PH, et al. Changes in dietary fat content rapidly alters the mouse plasma coagulation profile without affecting relative transcript levels of coagulation factors. *PLoS One*. 2015; 10(7):e0131859.
239. Neergaard-Petersen S, Hvas AM, Kristensen SD, Grove EL, Larsen SB, Phoenix F, et al. The influence of type 2 diabetes on fibrin clot properties in patients with coronary artery disease. *Thromb Haemost*. 2014; 112(6):1142-50.
240. Undas A. Fibrin clot properties and their modulation in thrombotic disorders. *Thromb Haemost*. 2014; 112(1):32-42.
241. Dominighini A, Ferrero M, Crosetti D, Ronco MT, Gonzalez J, Urli L, et al. Effects of proanthocyanidin enriched extract from *ligaria cuneifolia* on plasma cholesterol and hemorheological parameters. In vivo and in vitro studies. *Clin Hemorheol Microcirc*. 2015; 60(3):317-25.
242. Chailley B, Giraud F, Claret M. Human red cell shape and membrane protein phosphorylation: Effect of cholesterol depletion. *Scand J Clin Lab Invest*. 1981; 41(sup156):285-6.

243. Pretorius E, Oberholzer HM, van der Spuy WJ, Swanepoel AC, Soma P. Scanning electron microscopy of fibrin networks in rheumatoid arthritis: A qualitative analysis. *Rheumatol Int.* 2012; 32(6):1611-5.
244. Bester J, Buys AV, Lipinski B, Kell DB, Pretorius E. High ferritin levels have major effects on the morphology of erythrocytes in alzheimer's disease. *Front Aging Neurosci.* 2013; 5:88.