



Krasnoyarsk State Medical University Named After Professor V.F. Voyno-Yasenetsky
Department of Pathological Anatomy Named After Professor P.G.Podzolkov

Lecture 4. IMMUNE SYSTEM PATHOLOGY ADAPTATION PROCESSES

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Hypersensitivity

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Hypertrophy

Hyperplasia

Atrophy

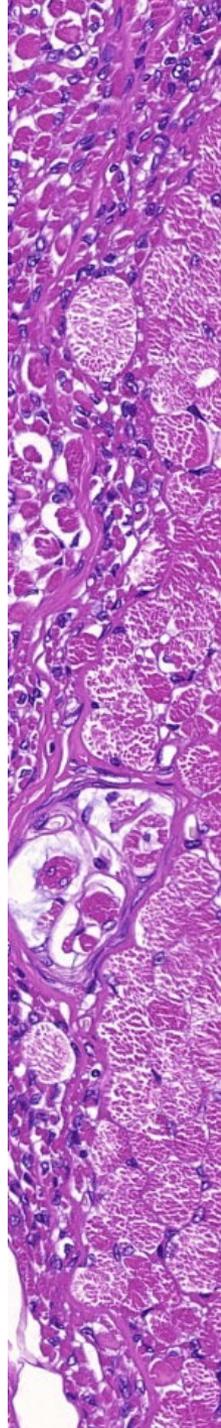
Metaplasia

Dysplasia

Lector: Vladimir A. Khorzhevskii

Candidate of Medical Sciences (PhD),

Head of Pathology Department named after professor P.G. Podzolkov





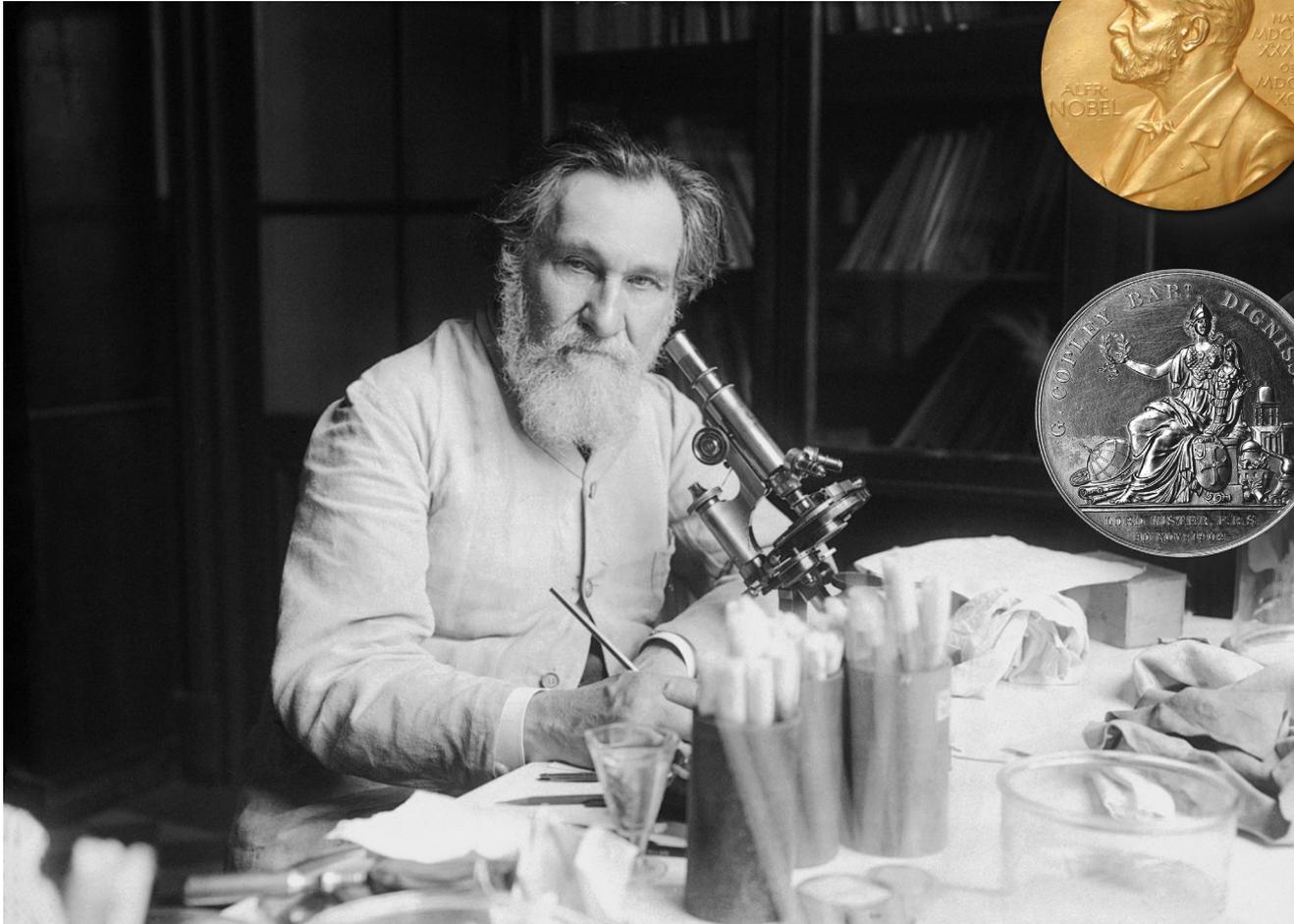
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Ilya Ilyich Mechnikov

(3 May 1845 – 15 July 1916)



Karl Ernst von Baer
prize in 1867

Nobel Prize in
Physiology or Medicine
in 1908

awarded honorary
degree from
the University of
Cambridge in
Cambridge, UK, and
the Copley Medal of
the Royal Society in
1906

honorary
memberships in the
Academy of Medicine
in Paris and the
Academy of Sciences
and Medicine in St.
Petersburg

Honored as the "father of innate immunity"

Mechnikov was the first to discover a process of immunity called phagocytosis and the cell responsible for it, called phagocyte, specifically macrophage, in 1882.

Immune system

(definition)

The organ system that is involved in protecting the organism from infection, infestation, and other potential harm from the presence of foreign (non-self) bodies

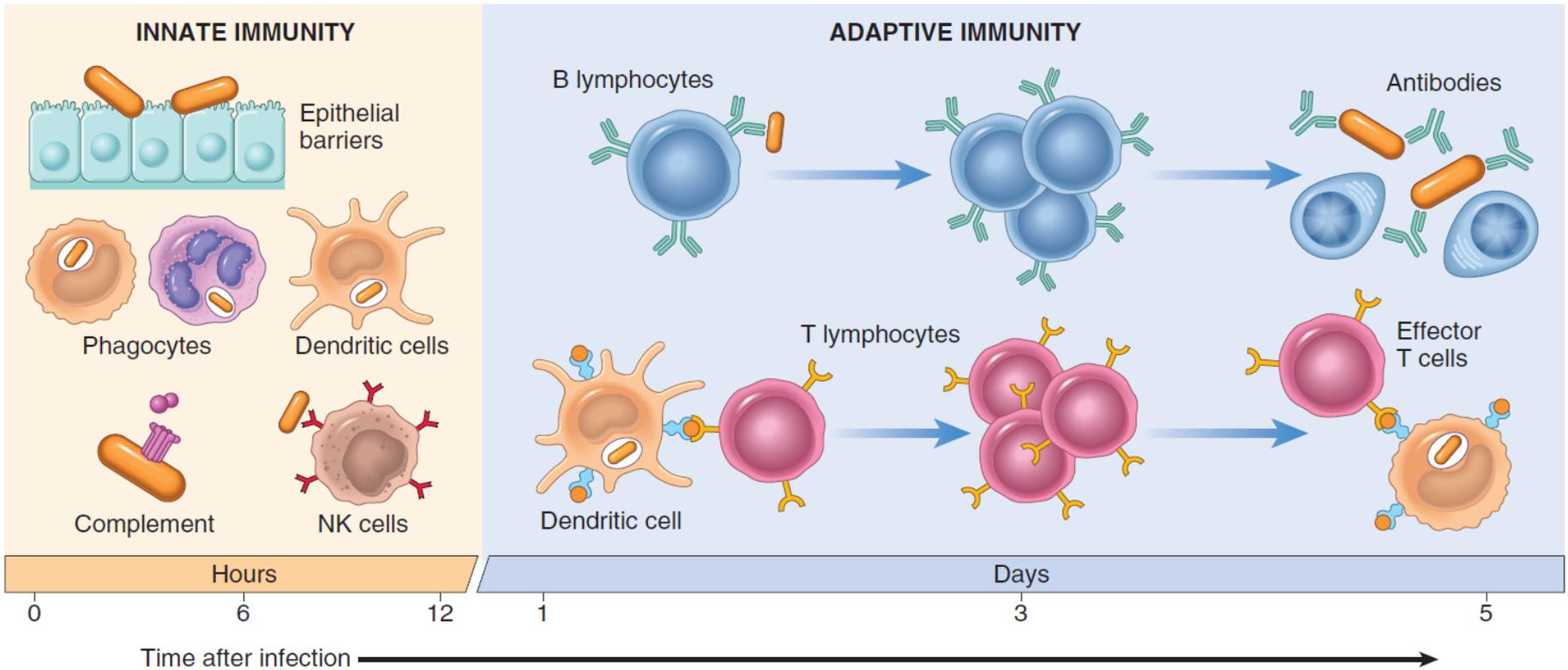
<https://www.biologyonline.com/dictionary/immune-system>

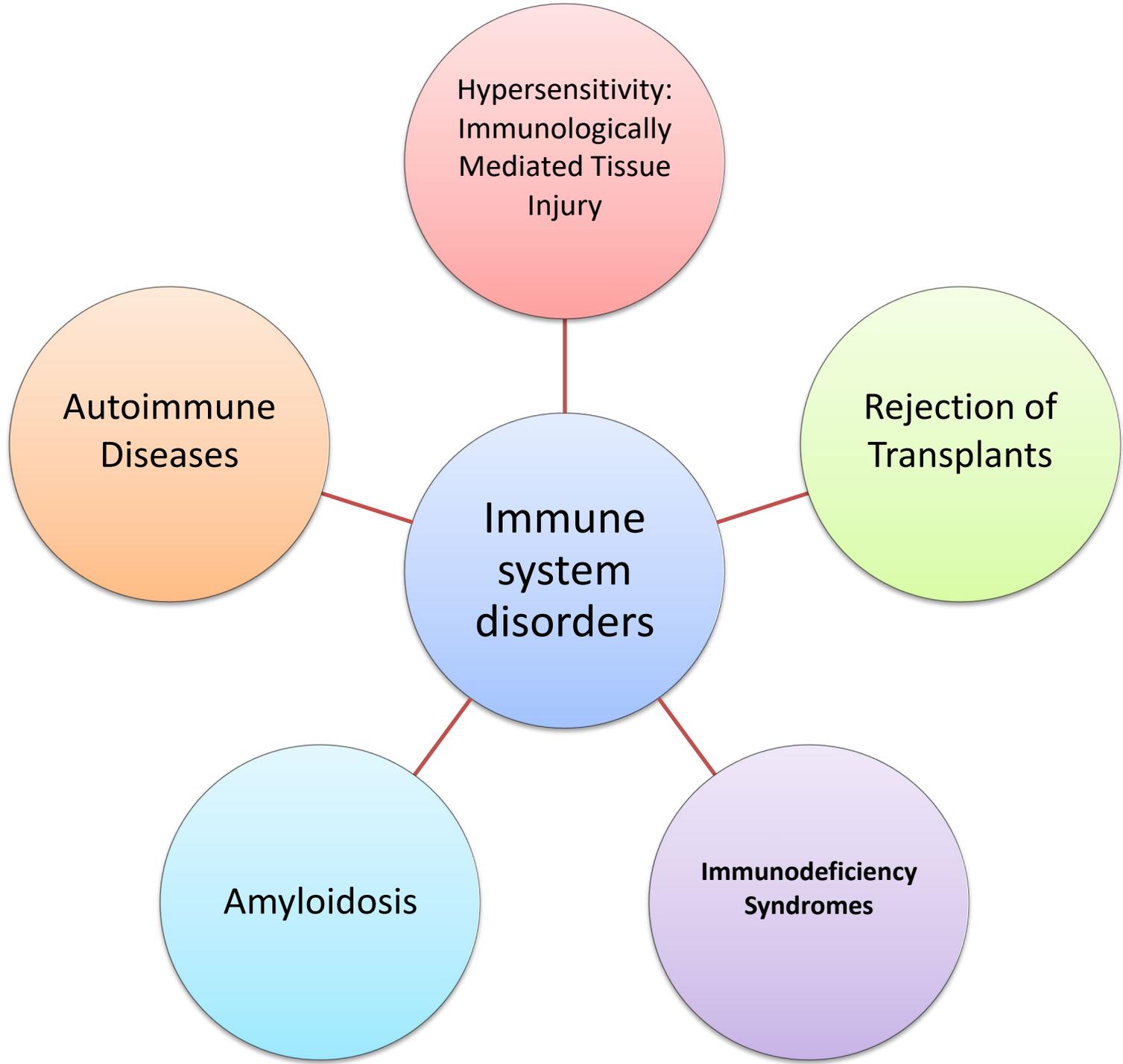
A complex network of cells, tissues, organs, and the substances they make that helps the body fight infections and other diseases. The immune system includes white blood cells and organs and tissues of the lymph system, such as the thymus, spleen, tonsils, lymph nodes, lymph vessels, and bone marrow.

<https://www.cancer.gov/>

 **The immune system** is a complex of organs, tissues and cells that protect the body from infectious agents and objects foreign in their antigenic properties.

THE NORMAL IMMUNE RESPONSE





Hypersensitivity: Immunologically Mediated Tissue Injury

Immune responses that normally are protective also are capable of causing tissue injury. Injurious immune reactions are grouped under *hypersensitivity*, and the *resulting* diseases are called *hypersensitivity diseases*.

Causes of Hypersensitivity Reactions

*Autoimmunity:
reactions against self
antigens.*

*Reactions against
microbes*

*Reactions against
environmental
antigens*

Classification of Hypersensitivity Reactions

Type	Immune Mechanisms	Histopathologic Lesions	Prototypical Disorders
Immediate (type I) hypersensitivity	Production of IgE antibody → immediate release of vasoactive amines and other mediators from mast cells; later recruitment of inflammatory cells	Vascular dilation, edema, smooth muscle contraction, mucus production, tissue injury, inflammation	Anaphylaxis; allergies; bronchial asthma (atopic forms)
Antibody-mediated (type II) hypersensitivity	Production of IgG, IgM → binds to antigen on target cell or tissue → phagocytosis or lysis of target cell by activated complement or Fc receptors; recruitment of leukocytes	Phagocytosis and lysis of cells; inflammation; in some diseases, functional derangements without cell or tissue injury	Autoimmune hemolytic anemia; Goodpasture syndrome
Immune complex-mediated (type III) hypersensitivity	Deposition of antigen-antibody complexes → complement activation → recruitment of leukocytes by complement products and Fc receptors → release of enzymes and other toxic molecules	Inflammation, necrotizing vasculitis (fibrinoid necrosis)	Systemic lupus erythematosus; some forms of glomerulonephritis; serum sickness; Arthus reaction
Cell-mediated (type IV) hypersensitivity	Activated T lymphocytes → (1) release of cytokines, inflammation and macrophage activation; (2) T cell-mediated cytotoxicity	Perivascular cellular infiltrates; edema; granuloma formation; cell destruction	Contact dermatitis; multiple sclerosis; type I diabetes; tuberculosis

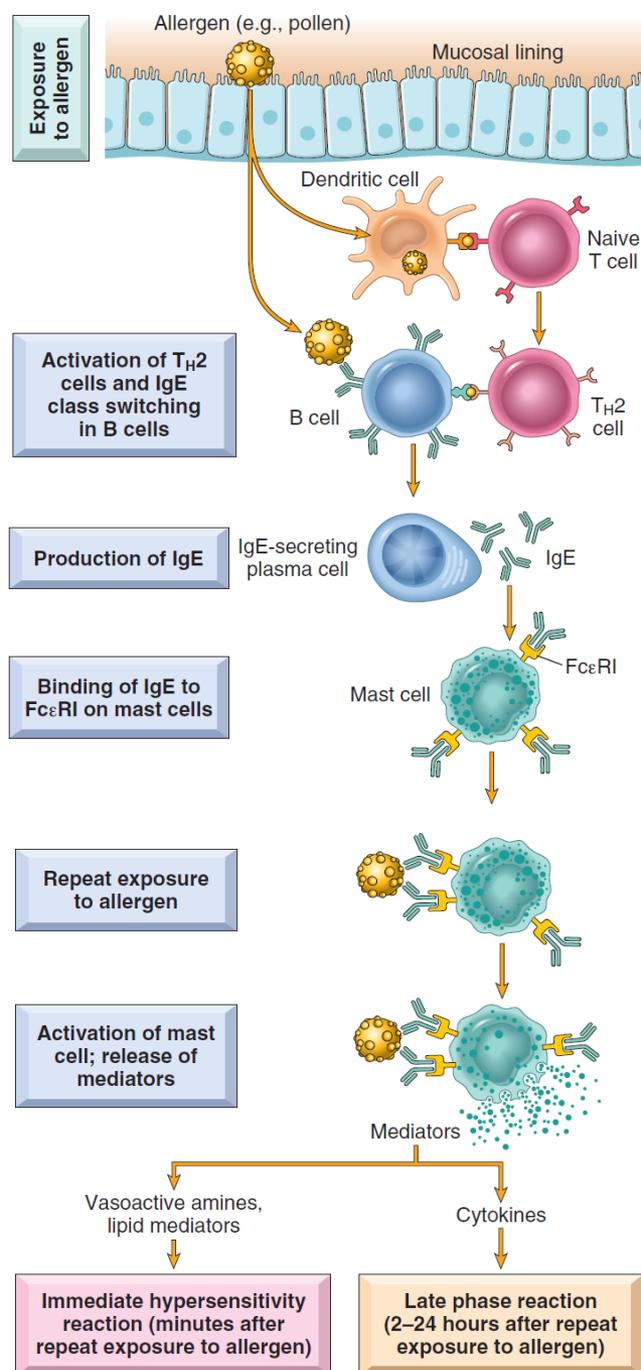
Ig, Immunoglobulin.

Immediate (Type I) Hypersensitivity

Immediate hypersensitivity is a tissue reaction that occurs rapidly after the interaction of antigen with IgE antibody bound to the surface of mast cells.

Key points:

- Immediate (type I) sensitivity is also called an *allergic reaction*.
- induced by environmental antigens that stimulate strong TH2 responses and IgE production in genetically susceptible individuals.
- IgE coats mast cells by binding to the FcεRI receptor; reexposure to the allergen leads to cross-linking of the IgE and FcεRI, activation of mast cells.
- Principal mediators are histamine, proteases, and other granule contents; prostaglandins, leukotrienes; and cytokines.
- Mediators are responsible for the immediate vascular and smooth muscle reactions and the late-phase reaction (inflammation).
- The clinical manifestations may be local or systemic, and range from mildly annoying rhinitis to fatal anaphylaxis. 9



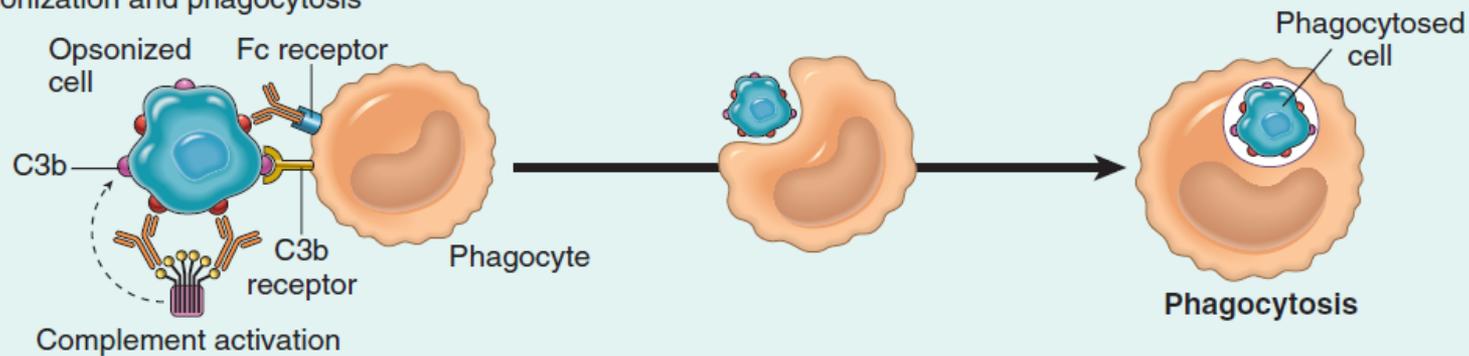
Antibody-Mediated Diseases (Type II Hypersensitivity)

Antibody-mediated (type II) hypersensitivity disorders are caused by antibodies directed against target antigens on the surface of cells or other tissue components.

Disease	Target Antigen	Mechanisms of Disease	Clinicopathologic Manifestations
Autoimmune hemolytic anemia	Red blood cell membrane proteins	Opsonization and phagocytosis of red blood cells	Hemolysis, anemia
Autoimmune thrombocytopenic purpura	Platelet membrane proteins (GpIIb/IIIa integrin)	Opsonization and phagocytosis of platelets	Bleeding
Pemphigus vulgaris	Proteins in intercellular junctions of epidermal cells (desmogleins)	Antibody-mediated activation of proteases, disruption of intercellular adhesions	Skin vesicles (bullae)
Vasculitis caused by ANCA	Neutrophil granule proteins, presumably released from activated neutrophils	Neutrophil degranulation and inflammation	Vasculitis
Goodpasture syndrome	Protein in basement membranes of kidney glomeruli and lung alveoli	Complement- and Fc receptor-mediated inflammation	Nephritis, lung hemorrhage
Acute rheumatic fever	Streptococcal cell wall antigen; antibody cross-reacts with myocardial antigen	Inflammation, macrophage activation	Myocarditis, arthritis
Myasthenia gravis	Acetylcholine receptor	Antibody inhibits acetylcholine binding, down-modulates receptors	Muscle weakness, paralysis
Graves disease (hyperthyroidism)	TSH receptor	Antibody-mediated stimulation of TSH receptors	Hyperthyroidism
Pernicious anemia	Intrinsic factor of gastric parietal cells	Neutralization of intrinsic factor, decreased absorption of vitamin B ₁₂	Abnormal erythropoiesis, anemia

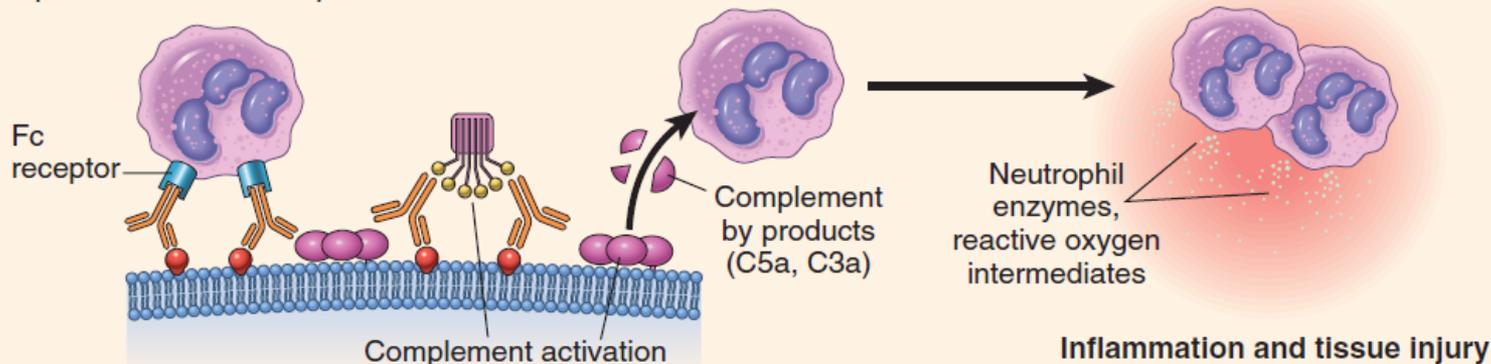
ANCA, Anti-neutrophil cytoplasmic antibodies; TSH, thyroid-stimulating hormone.

Opsonization and phagocytosis



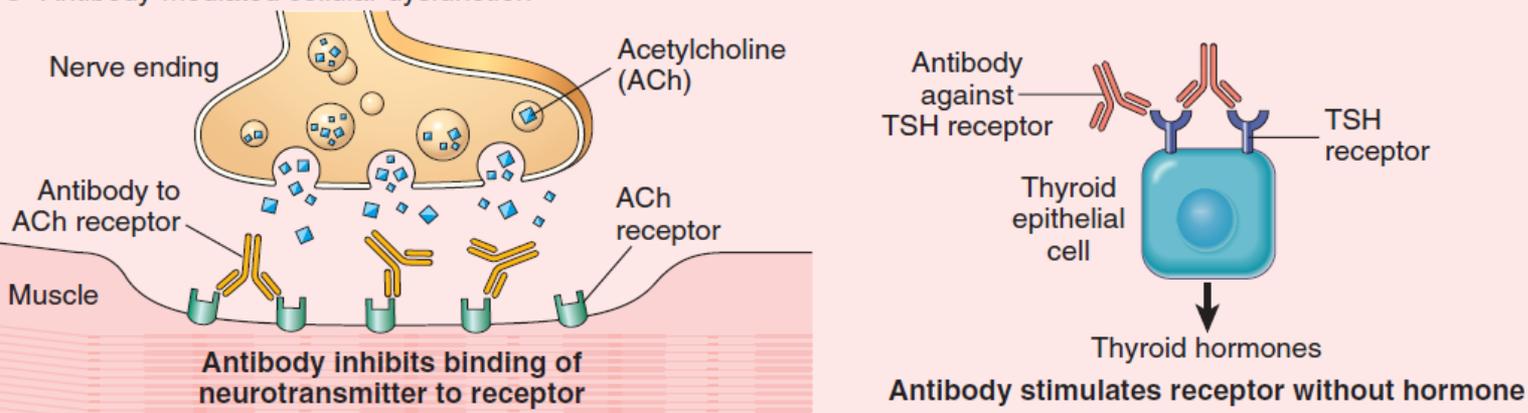
Opsonization
and
phagocytosis

Complement- and Fc receptor-mediated inflammation



Inflammation

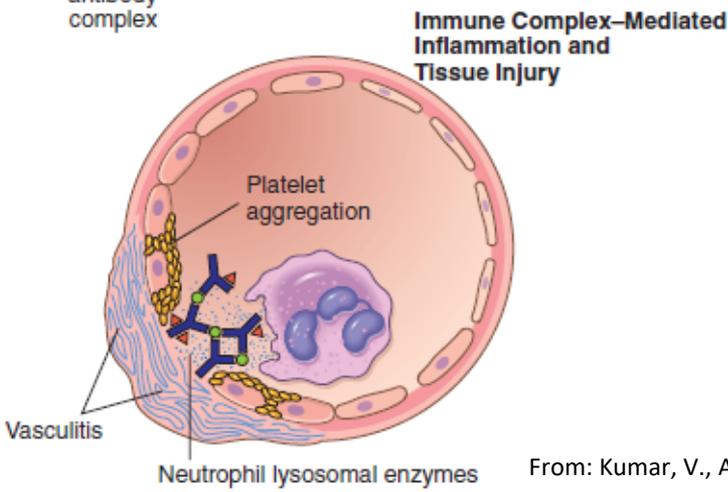
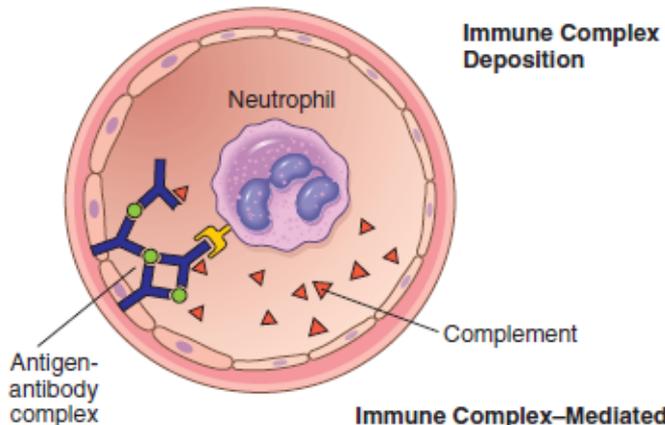
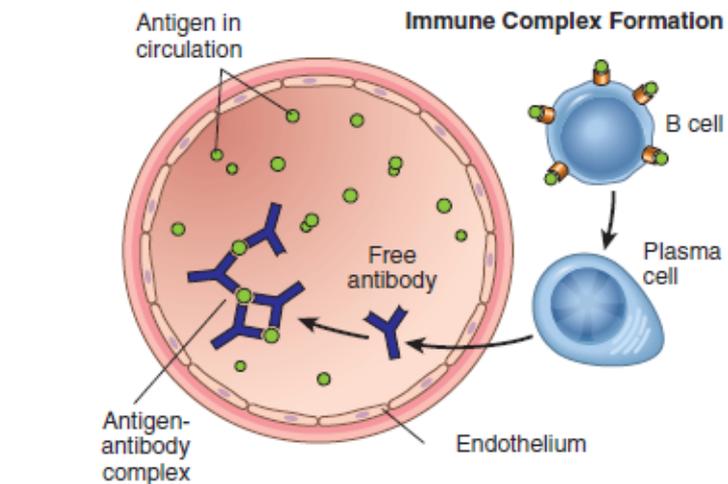
C Antibody-mediated cellular dysfunction



Antibody-
mediated
cellular
dysfunction

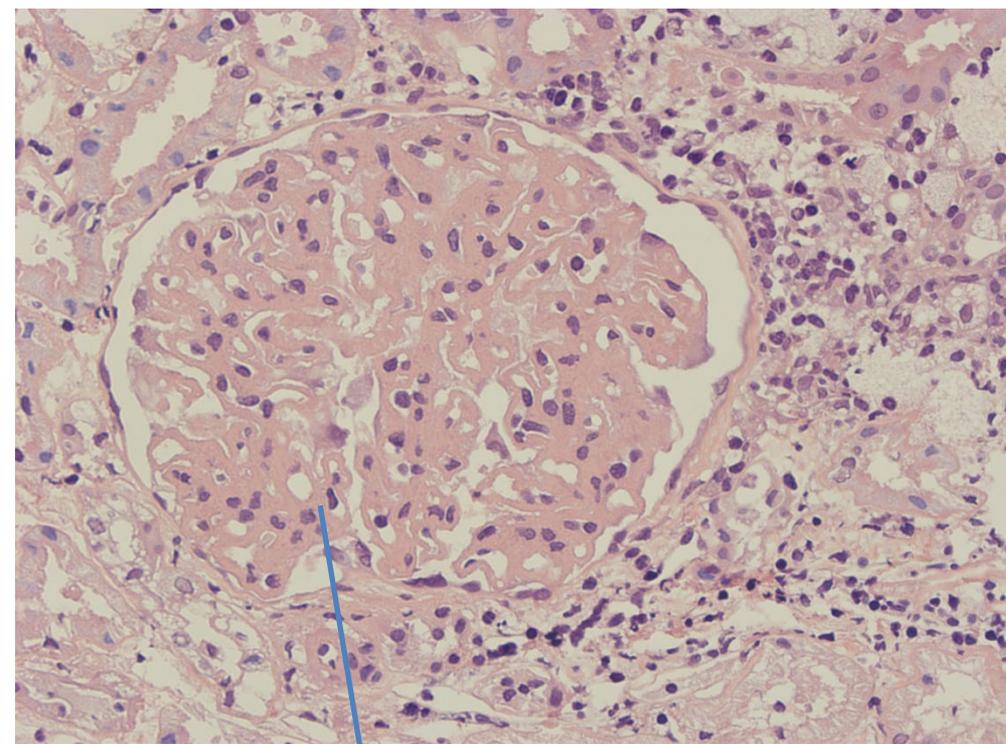
Immune Complex–Mediated Diseases (Type III Hypersensitivity)

Antigen–antibody (immune) complexes that are formed in the circulation may deposit in blood vessels, leading to complement activation and acute inflammation.

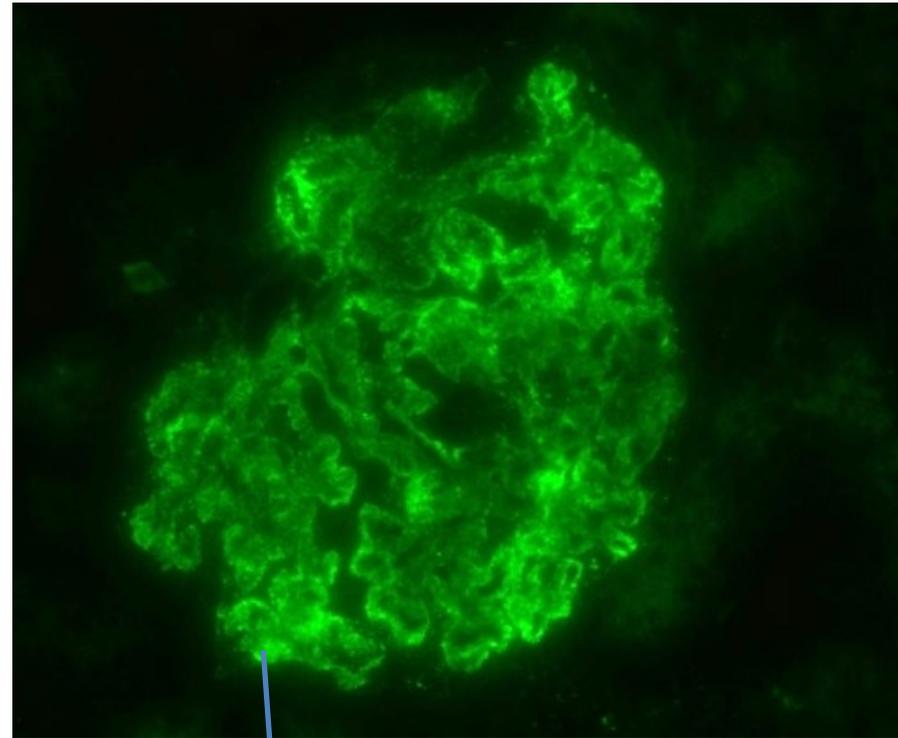


Disease
Systemic lupus erythematosus
Poststreptococcal glomerulonephritis
Polyarteritis nodosa
Reactive arthritis
Serum sickness
Arthus reaction (experimental)

Membranous nephropathy

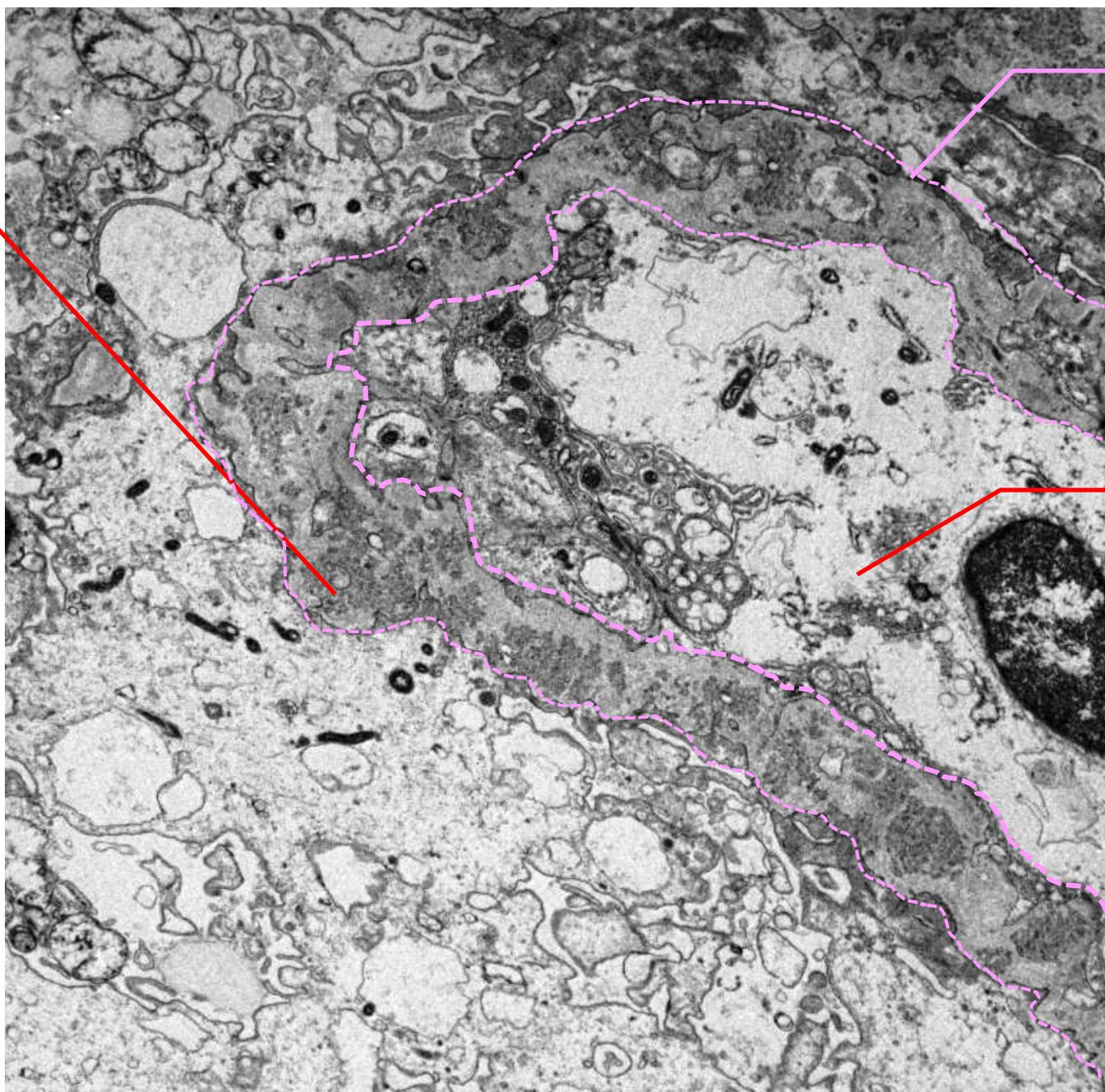


thinning of the basement
membranes of the
glomerular capillaries



deposition of
immunoglobulin G

ID



Basement membrane

Capillary lumen

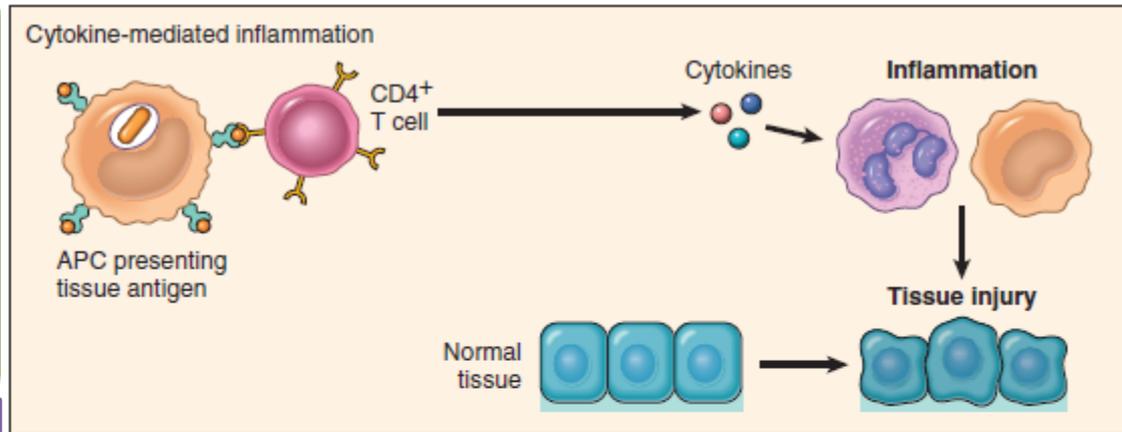
Electron microscopy: in the basement membrane of the glomerular capillaries, electron-dense deposits of immunoglobulins are determined. In the picture, they look like dark areas of irregular shape (denoted - ID). Magnification – x 2500.

T Cell–Mediated Diseases (Type IV Hypersensitivity)

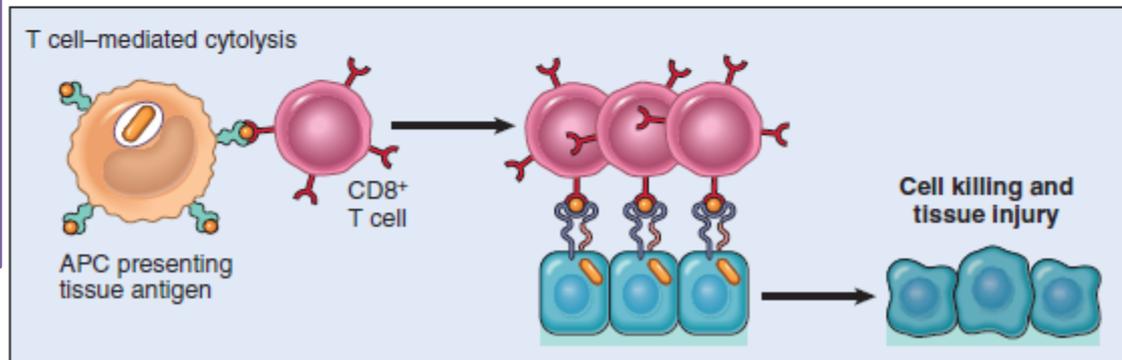
Several autoimmune disorders, as well as pathologic reactions to environmental chemicals and persistent microbes, are now known to be caused by T cells.

Two types of T cell reactions:

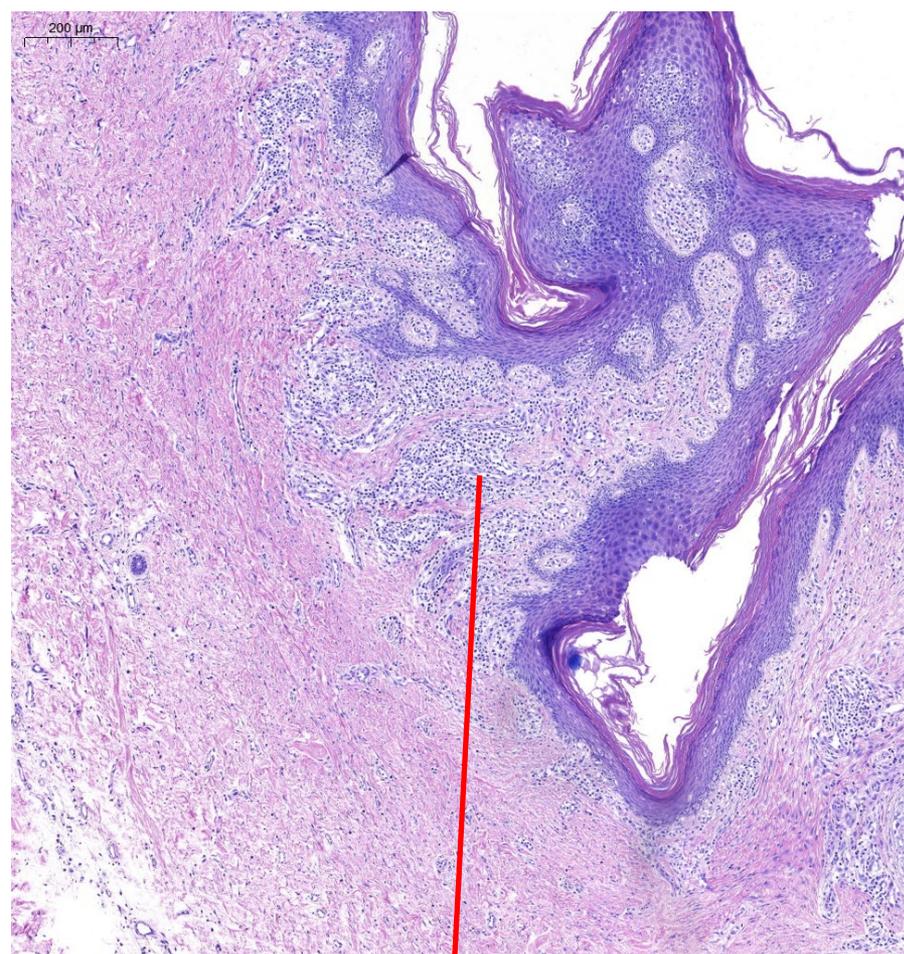
- (1) **Cytokine-mediated** inflammation, cytokines are produced mainly by CD4+ T cells,
- (2) **Direct cell cytotoxicity**, mediated by CD8+ T cells.



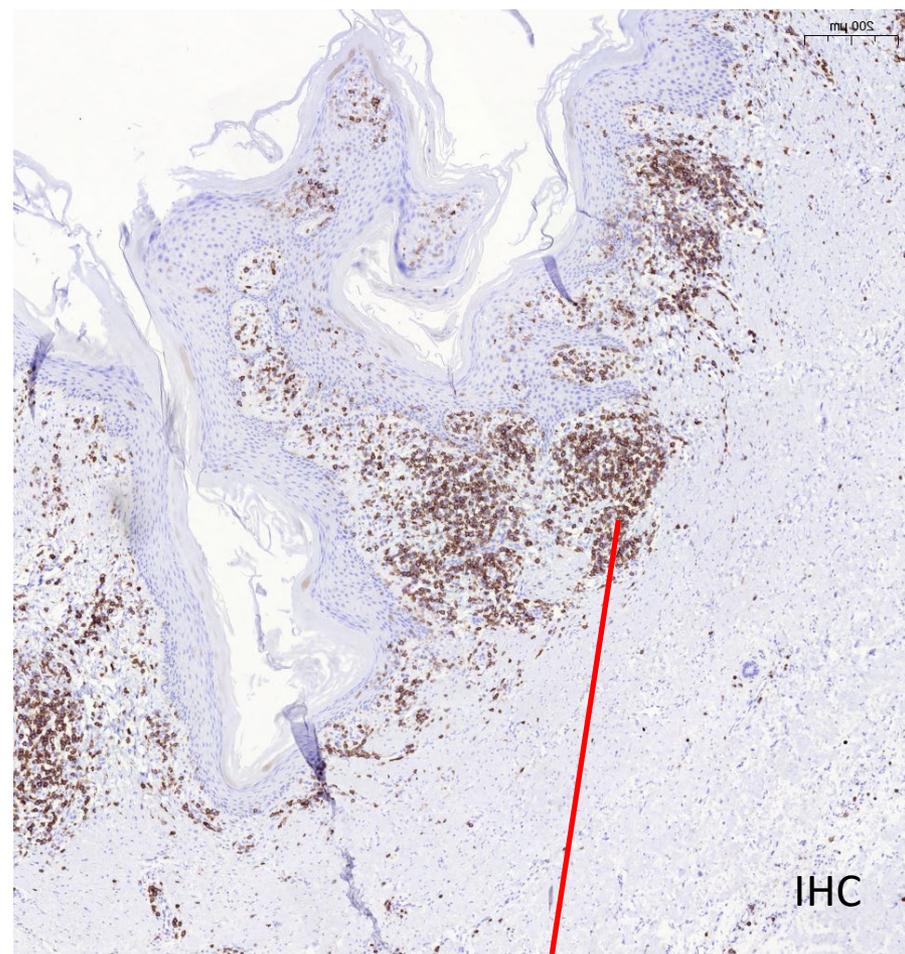
Rheumatoid arthritis
Multiple sclerosis
Type 1 diabetes mellitus
Inflammatory bowel disease
Psoriasis
Contact sensitivity



Example of delayed hypersensitivity reaction in the skin with accumulation of mononuclear inflammatory cells (lymphocytes and macrophages), with associated dermal edema and fibrin deposition. Immunoperoxidase staining (IHC) reveals a predominantly perivascular cellular infiltrate that marks positively with anti-CD4 antibodies



Lymphocytes



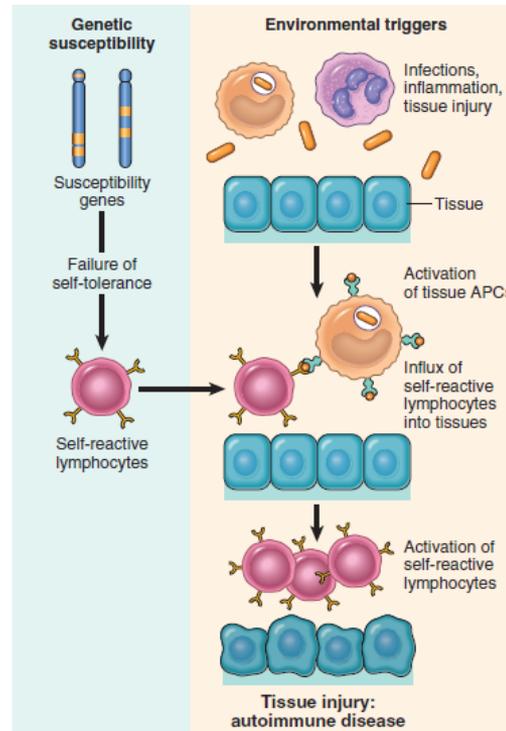
CD4+ T-cells

AUTOIMMUNE DISEASES

- *Autoimmunity refers to immune reactions against self (“auto”) antigens.*

Autoimmune diseases may be **organ-specific**, in which the immune responses are directed against one particular organ or cell type and result in localized tissue damage, or **systemic**, characterized by lesions in many organs

Organ-Specific	Systemic
Diseases Mediated by Antibodies	
Autoimmune hemolytic anemia	Systemic lupus erythematosus
Autoimmune thrombocytopenia	
Autoimmune atrophic gastritis of pernicious anemia	
Myasthenia gravis	
Graves disease	
Goodpasture syndrome	
Diseases Mediated by T Cells[†]	
Type I diabetes mellitus	Rheumatoid arthritis
Multiple sclerosis	Systemic sclerosis (scleroderma) [†] Sjögren syndrome [†]
Diseases Postulated to Be Autoimmune	
Inflammatory bowel diseases (Crohn disease, ulcerative colitis) [†]	
Primary biliary cirrhosis [†]	Polyarteritis nodosa [†]
Autoimmune (chronic active) hepatitis	Inflammatory myopathies [†]



Autoimmunity results from multiple factors, including susceptibility genes that may interfere with self-tolerance and environmental triggers (such as infections, tissue injury, and inflammation) that promote lymphocyte entry into tissues, activation of self-reactive lymphocytes, and tissue damage.

IMMUNODEFICIENCY SYNDROMES

Immune deficiencies can be divided into **primary** (or congenital) immunodeficiency disorders, which are genetically determined, and **secondary** (or acquired) immunodeficiencies, which may arise as complications of cancers, infections, malnutrition, or side effects of immunosuppression, irradiation, or chemotherapy for cancer and other diseases.

Immunodeficiencies are manifested clinically by increased infections, which may be newly acquired or reactivation of latent infections.

Primary (Inherited) Immunodeficiencies

Primary immunodeficiency diseases are inherited genetic disorders that impair mechanisms of innate immunity or the humoral and/or cellular arms of adaptive immunity.

Disease	Defect
Defects in Leukocyte Function	
Leukocyte adhesion deficiency 1	Defective leukocyte adhesion because of mutations in the β chain of CD11/CD18 integrins
Leukocyte adhesion deficiency 2	Defective leukocyte adhesion because of mutations in fucosyl transferase required for synthesis of sialylated oligosaccharide (receptor for selectins)
Chédiak-Higashi syndrome	Decreased leukocyte functions because of mutations affecting protein involved in lysosomal membrane traffic
Chronic granulomatous disease	Decreased oxidative burst
X-linked	Phagocyte oxidase (membrane component)
Autosomal recessive	Phagocyte oxidase (cytoplasmic components)
Myeloperoxidase deficiency	Decreased microbial killing because of defective MPO-H ₂ O ₂ system
Defects in the Complement System	
C2, C4 deficiency	Defective classical pathway activation; results in reduced resistance to infection and reduced clearance of immune complexes
C3 deficiency	Defects in all complement functions
Deficiency of complement regulatory proteins	Excessive complement activation; clinical syndromes include angioedema, paroxysmal hemoglobinuria, and others

There is no specific morphological picture in these diseases.

Confirmation of the diagnosis requires genetic testing.

Secondary (Acquired) Immunodeficiencies

- Secondary (acquired) immune deficiencies may be encountered in individuals with cancer, diabetes and other metabolic diseases, malnutrition, chronic infection, and in patients receiving chemotherapy or radiation therapy for cancer, or immunosuppressive drugs to prevent graft rejection or to treat autoimmune diseases.

Cause	Mechanism
Human immunodeficiency virus infection	Depletion of CD4+ helper T cells
Irradiation and chemotherapy treatments for cancer	Decreased bone marrow precursors for all leukocytes
Involvement of bone marrow by cancers (metastases, leukemias)	Reduced leukocyte development due to displacement of progenitors
Protein-calorie malnutrition	Metabolic derangements inhibit lymphocyte maturation and function
Removal of spleen	Decreased phagocytosis of microbes

AIDS 

Definition: AIDS is a disease caused by the retrovirus human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) and is characterized by profound immunosuppression that leads to opportunistic infections, secondary neoplasms, and neurologic manifestations.

Every day there are 4000 new HIV infections (adults and children)
2020

- **60% are in sub-Saharan Africa**
- **10% are among children under 15 years of age**
- **90% are among adults aged 15 years and older, of whom:**
 - **51% are among women**
 - **31% are among young people (15–24)**
 - **20% are among young women (15–24)**

Regional HIV and AIDS statistics and features | 2020

	Adults and children living with HIV	Adults and children newly infected with HIV	Adult and child deaths due to AIDS
Eastern and southern Africa	20.6 million [16.8 million–24.4 million]	670 000 [470 000–930 000]	310 000 [220 000–470 000]
Western and central Africa	4.7 million [3.9 million–5.8 million]	200 000 [130 000–330 000]	150 000 [100 000–210 000]
Middle East and North Africa	230 000 [190 000–310 000]	16 000 [12 000–28 000]	7900 [6000–13 000]
Asia and the Pacific	5.8 million [4.3 million–7.0 million]	240 000 [170 000–310 000]	130 000 [87 000–200 000]
Latin America	2.1 million [1.4 million–2.7 million]	100 000 [66 000–150 000]	31 000 [20 000–46 000]
Caribbean	330 000 [280 000–390 000]	13 000 [8700–18 000]	6000 [4300–8500]
Eastern Europe and central Asia	1.6 million [1.5 million–1.8 million]	140 000 [120 000–160 000]	35 000 [28 000–43 000]
Western and central Europe and North America	2.2 million [1.9 million–2.6 million]	67 000 [53 000–81 000]	13 000 [9200–17 000]
GLOBAL	37.7 million [30.2 million–45.1 million]	1.5 million [1.0 million–2.0 million]	680 000 [480 000–1.0 million]

The ranges around the estimates in this table define the boundaries within which the actual numbers lie, based on the best available information.

Source: UNAIDS 2021 epidemiological estimates.

Transmission of HIV occurs under conditions that facilitate exchange of blood or body fluids containing the virus or virus-infected cells

Sexual transmission is the dominant mode of infection worldwide, accounting for more than **75% of all cases of HIV transmission**. Most infected individuals are men who have sex with men.

Viral spread occurs in two ways:

- (1) direct inoculation into the blood vessels breached by trauma and
- (2) infection of DCs or CD4+ cells within the mucosa. Sexual transmission of HIV is enhanced by coexisting sexually transmitted diseases, especially those associated with genital ulceration.

Parenteral transmission of HIV has occurred in intravenous drug abusers.

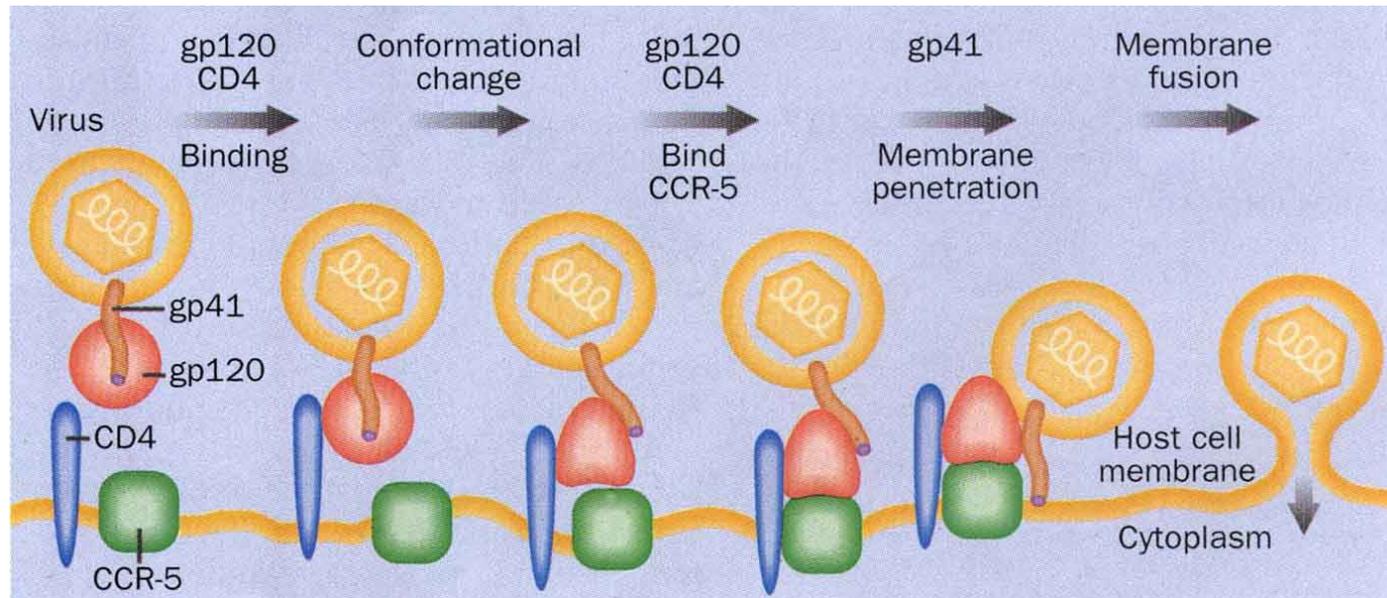
Transmission of HIV by transfusion of blood or blood products, such as lyophilized factor VIII and factor IX concentrates, has been virtually eliminated by public health measures, including screening of donated blood and plasma for antibody to HIV

Mother-to-infant transmission is the major cause of pediatric AIDS. Infected mothers can transmit the infection to their offspring by three routes:

- (1) in utero by transplacental spread;
- (2) during delivery through an infected birth canal;
- (3) after birth by ingestion of breast milk.

Fortunately, anti-retroviral therapy given to infected pregnant women has virtually eliminated mother-to-child transmission

The life cycle of HIV consists of infection of cells, integration of the provirus into the host cell genome, activation of viral replication, and production and release of infectious virus.



Wain-Hobson S. HIV. One on one meets two. *Nature*. 1996 Nov 14;384(6605):117-8. doi: 10.1038/384117a0. PMID: 8906782.

HIV infects cells by using the CD4 molecule as a receptor and various chemokine receptors as coreceptors.

Once internalized, the RNA genome of the virus undergoes reverse transcription, leading to the synthesis of doublestranded complementary DNA.

Completion of the viral life cycle in latently infected cells occurs only after cell activation, and in the case of most CD4+ T cells, virus activation results in death of the infected cells.

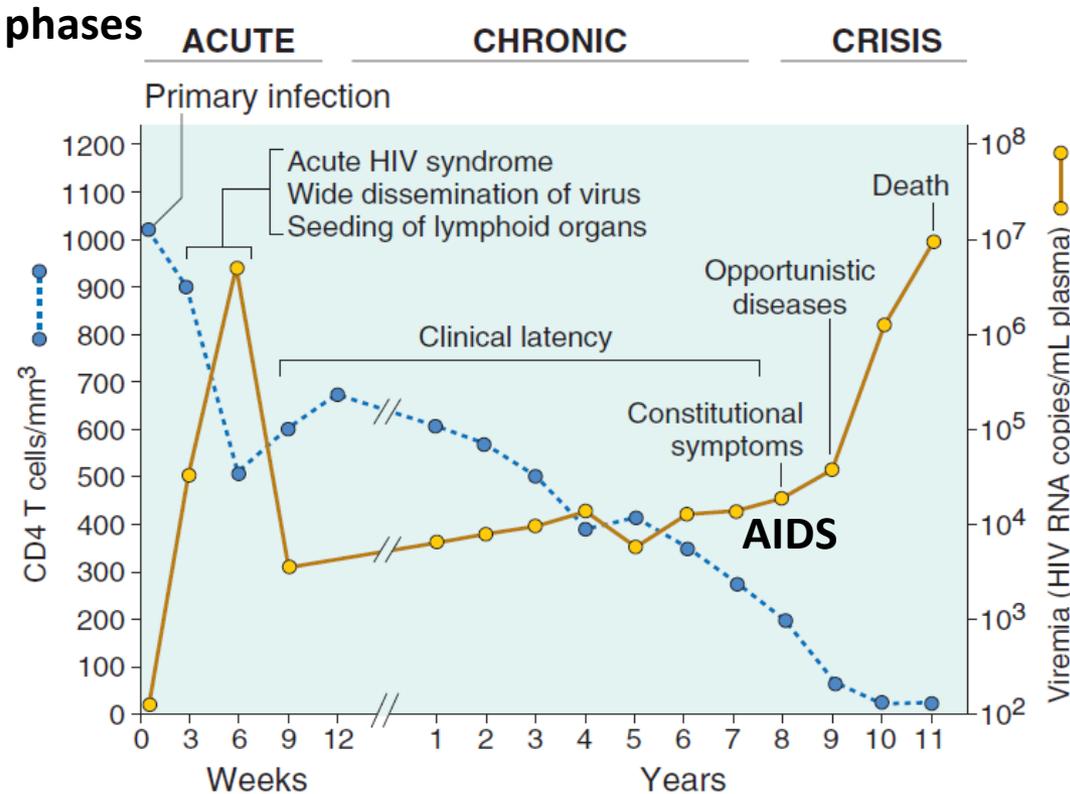
Loss of CD4+ T cells is mainly caused by the direct cytopathic effects of the replicating virus.

Low-level chronic or latent infection of T cells is an important feature of HIV infection.

Pathogenesis of Central Nervous System Involvement

- **Macrophages and microglia, cells in the CNS** that belong to the macrophage lineage, are the predominant cell types in the brain that are infected with HIV.
- HIV is carried into the brain by infected monocytes
- neurologic deficit is caused indirectly by viral products and by soluble factors produced by infected microglia, such as the cytokines IL-1, TNF, and IL-6

Clinical course of HIV infection



During the early period after primary infection, there is dissemination of virus, development of an immune response to HIV, and often an acute viral syndrome. During the period of clinical latency, viral replication continues and the CD4+ T-cell count gradually decreases, until it reaches a critical level below which there is a substantial risk for AIDS-associated diseases.

Opportunistic Infections

- **Opportunistic infections account for the majority of deaths in untreated patients with AIDS.**

Pneumocystic pneumonia - 15-30%

Candidiasis -

-is the most common fungal infection in patients with AIDS, and infection of the oral cavity, vagina, and esophagus are its most common clinical manifestations.

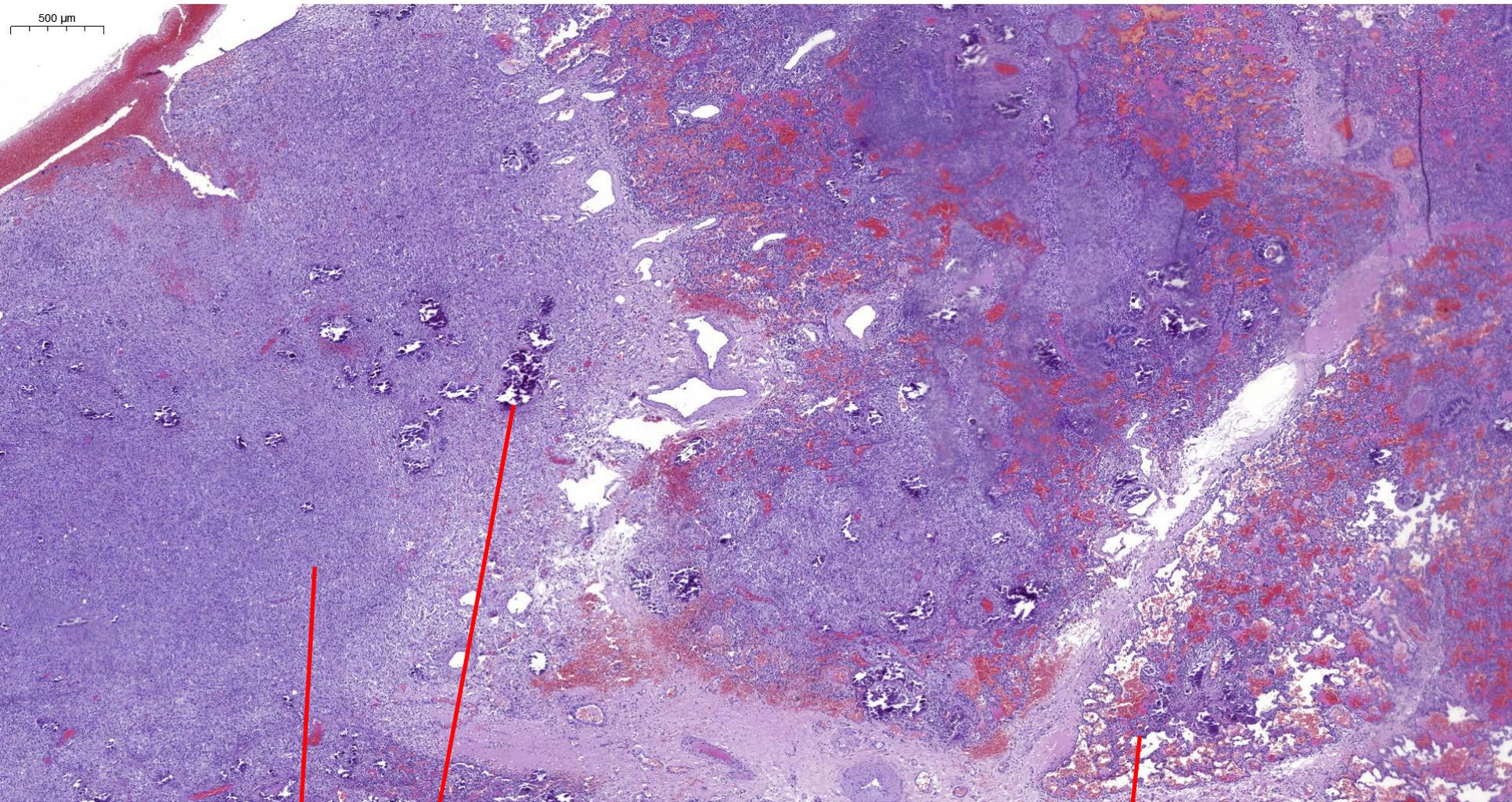
Cytomegalovirus (CMV) may cause disseminated disease, but more commonly affects the eye and gastrointestinal tract. Chorioretinitis - 25%

Disseminated bacterial infection with ***nontuberculous, or atypical, mycobacteria*** (mainly *Mycobacterium avium, intracellulare*) also occurs late, in the setting of severe immunosuppression.

Cryptococcosis occurs in about 10% of AIDS patients. As in other settings with immunosuppression, meningitis is the major clinical manifestation of cryptococcosis.

Toxoplasma gondii, another frequent invader of the CNS in AIDS, causes encephalitis and is responsible for 50% of all mass lesions in the CNS.

Lung toxoplasmosis in AIDS

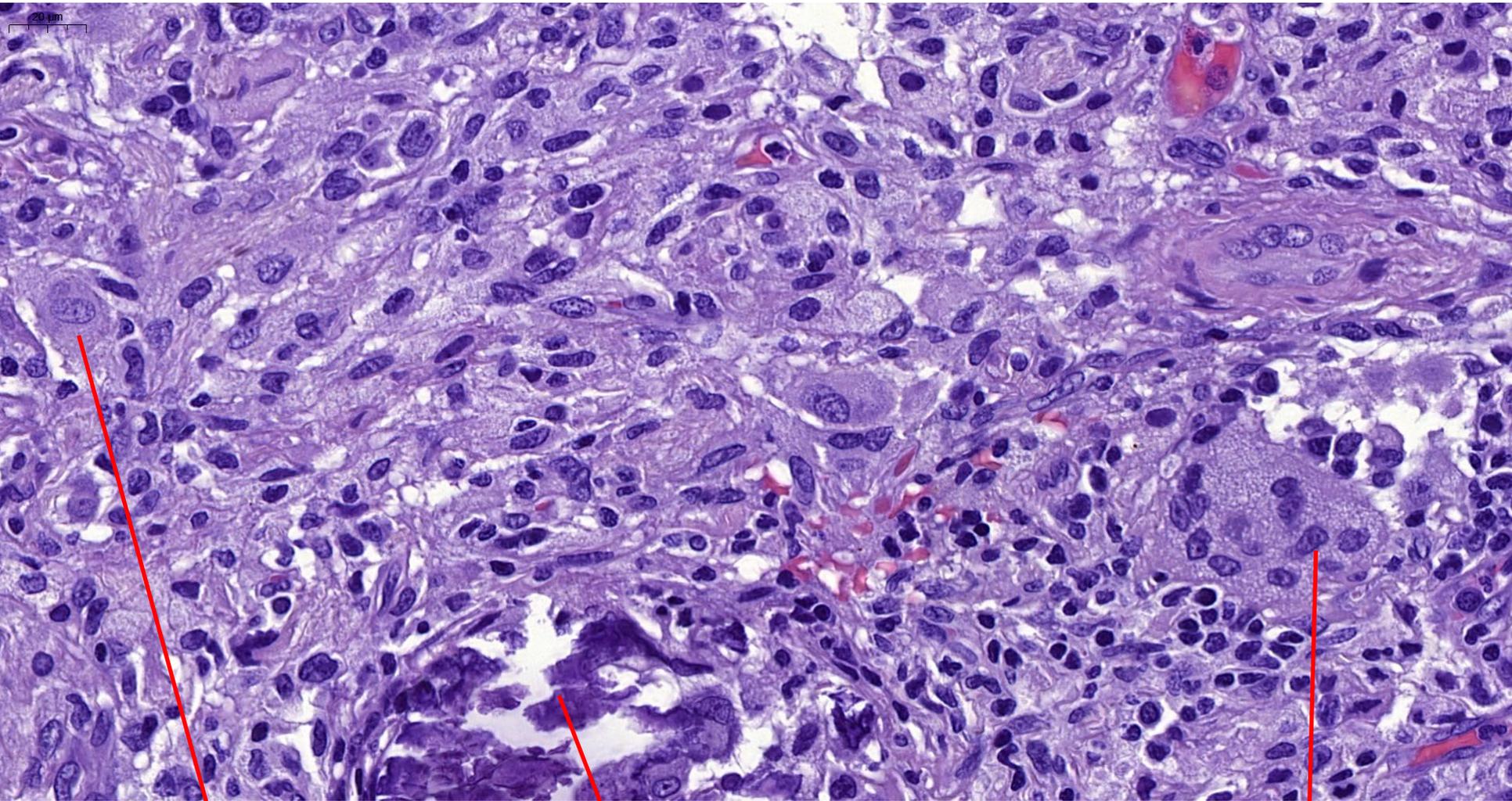


Lung
inflammation

Calcinosis

Lung parenchyma

Lung toxoplasmosis in AIDS

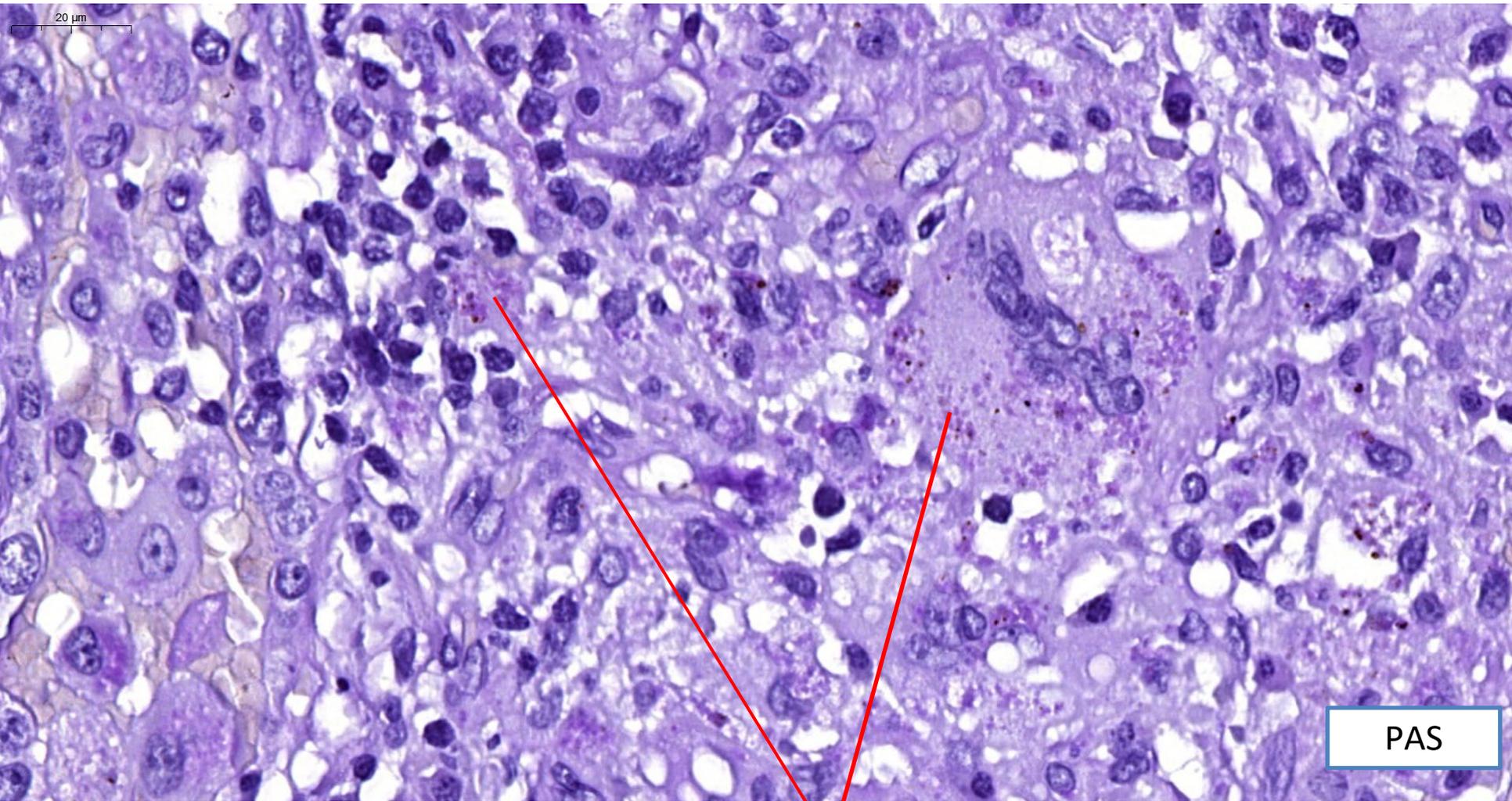


Alveolar
macrophages

Calcinosis

Giant
multinucleated
cell

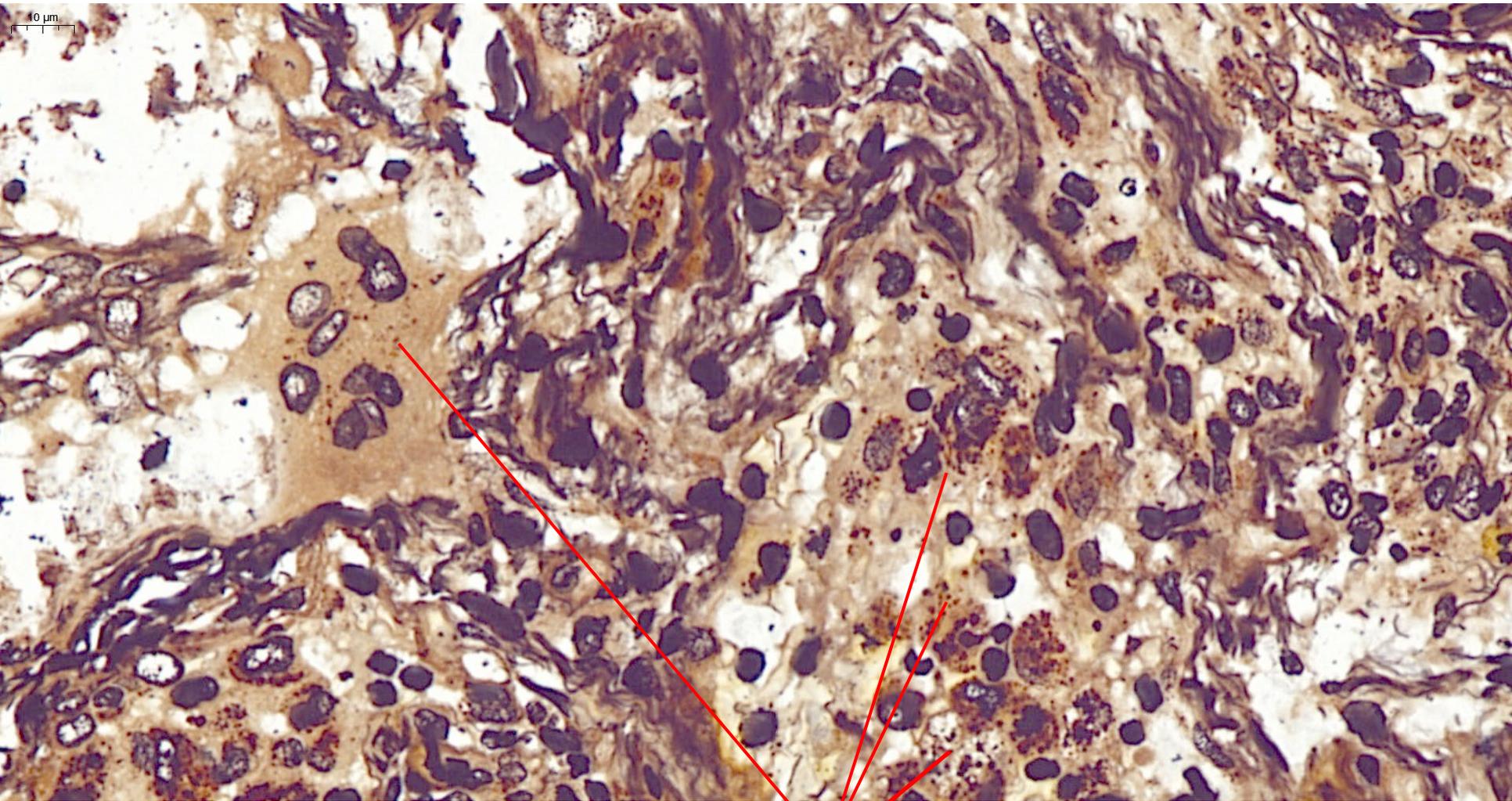
Lung toxoplasmosis in AIDS



PAS+
Toxoplasma

PAS

Lung toxoplasmosis in AIDS



Silver stain+
Toxoplasma

Tumors and AIDS

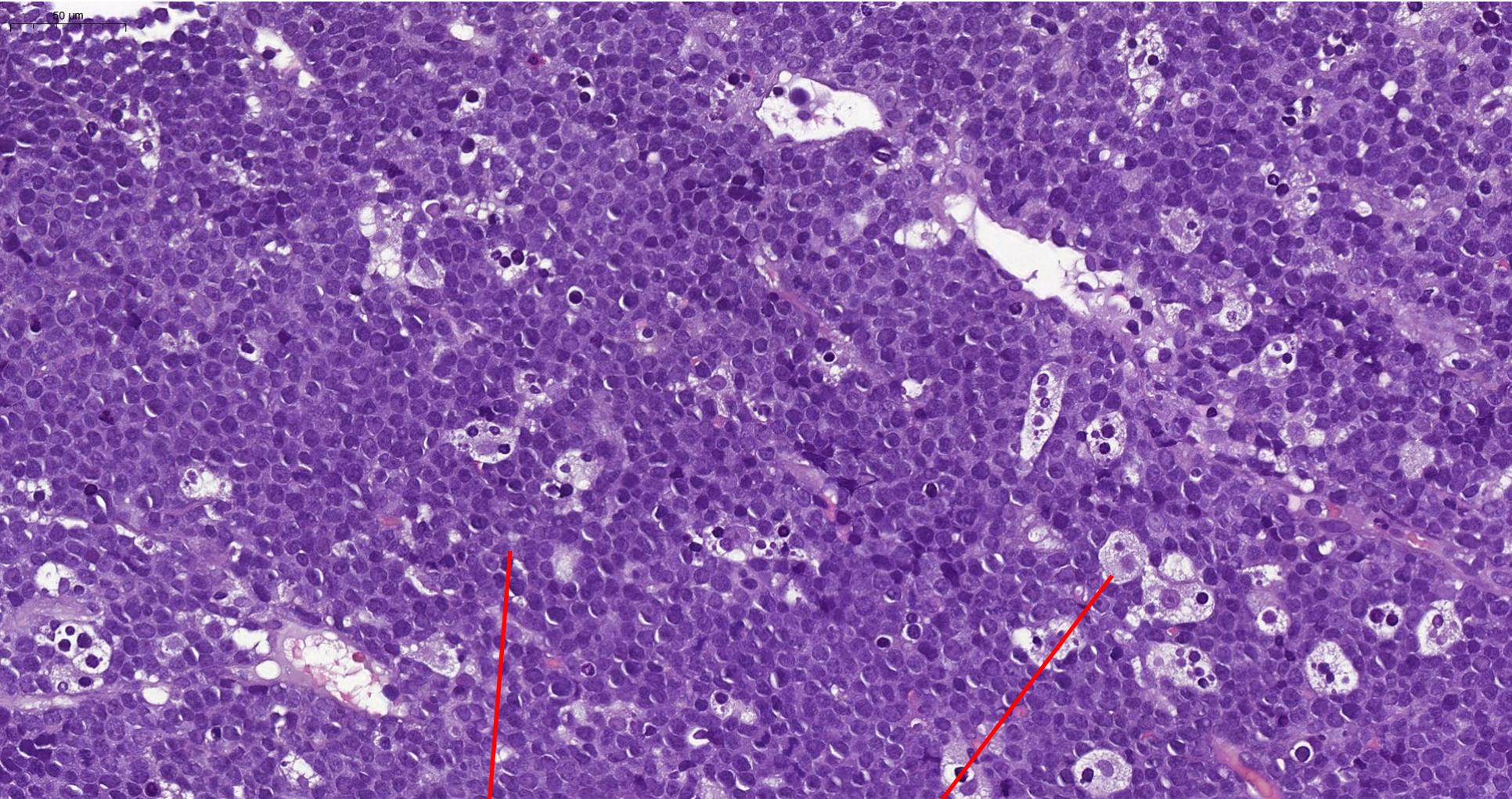
- **Patients with AIDS have a high incidence of certain tumors, notably Kaposi sarcoma, B cell lymphoma, cervical cancer in women, and anal cancer in men.**

Kaposi sarcoma herpesvirus – type 8 (HHV8)

Epstein Barr Virus (B cell lymphoma)

Papillomavirus (HPV) - (cervical and anal carcinoma)

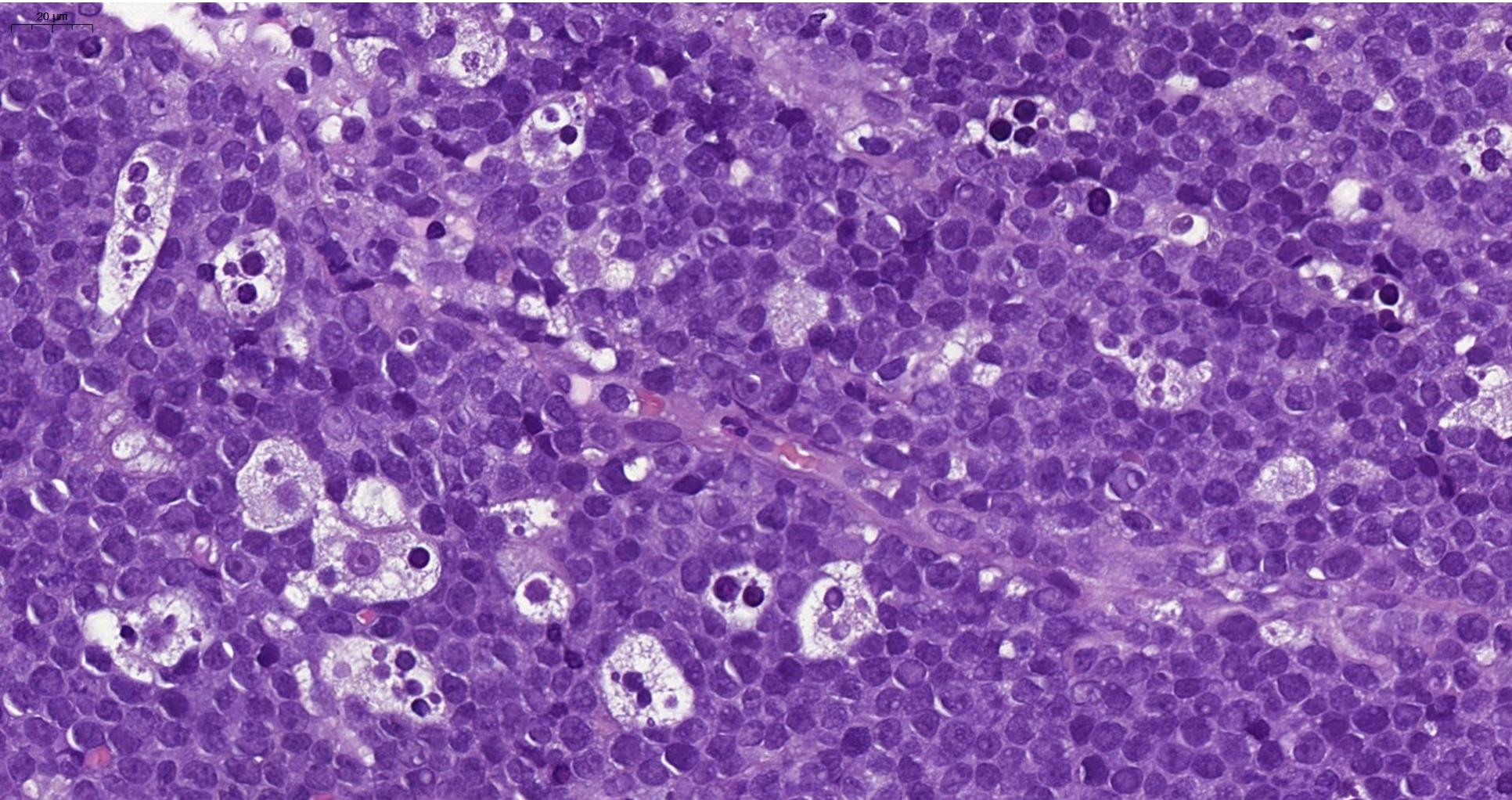
Burkitt lymphoma



Tumoral
lymphocytes

Macrophages

"starry sky"



AMYLOIDOSIS

Amyloidosis is a condition associated with a number of disorders in which extracellular deposits of fibrillar proteins responsible for tissue damage and functional compromise.

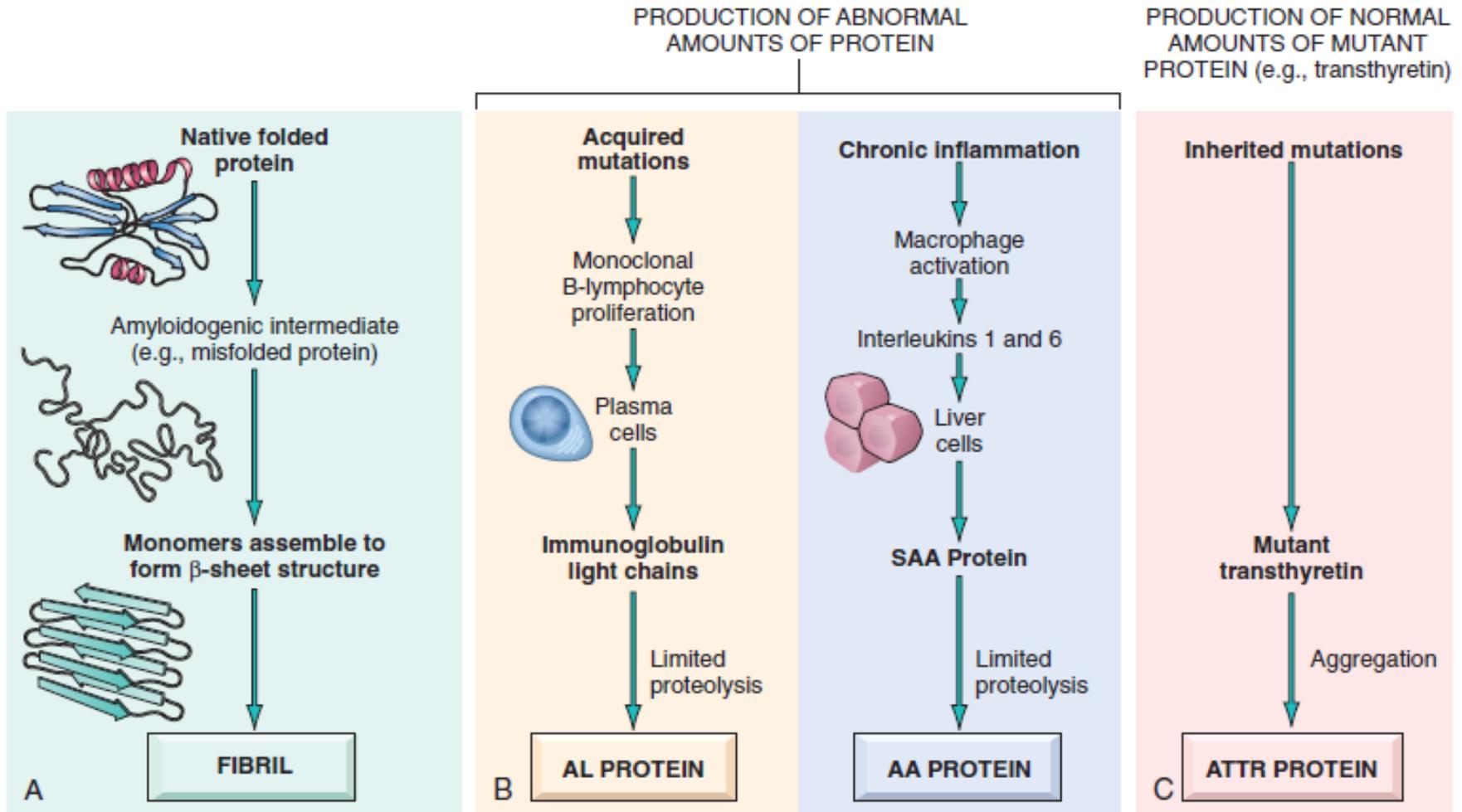
- Although amyloid always has the same morphologic appearance, it is biochemically heterogeneous. In fact, at least 30 different proteins can aggregate to form fibrils with the appearance of amyloid.

- ***AL (amyloid light chain) amyloid*** is made up of complete immunoglobulin light chains, the amino-terminal fragments of light chains, or both.

- ***AA (amyloid-associated) amyloid*** is composed of an 8500- dalton protein derived by proteolysis from a larger precursor in the blood called SAA (serum amyloid-associated) protein, which is synthesized in the liver.

- ***β -amyloid protein (A β)*** is a 4000-dalton peptide that is derived by proteolysis from a much larger transmembrane glycoprotein, called *amyloid precursor protein*.

Classification of Amyloidosis and Mechanisms of Amyloid Formation



Clinicopathologic Category

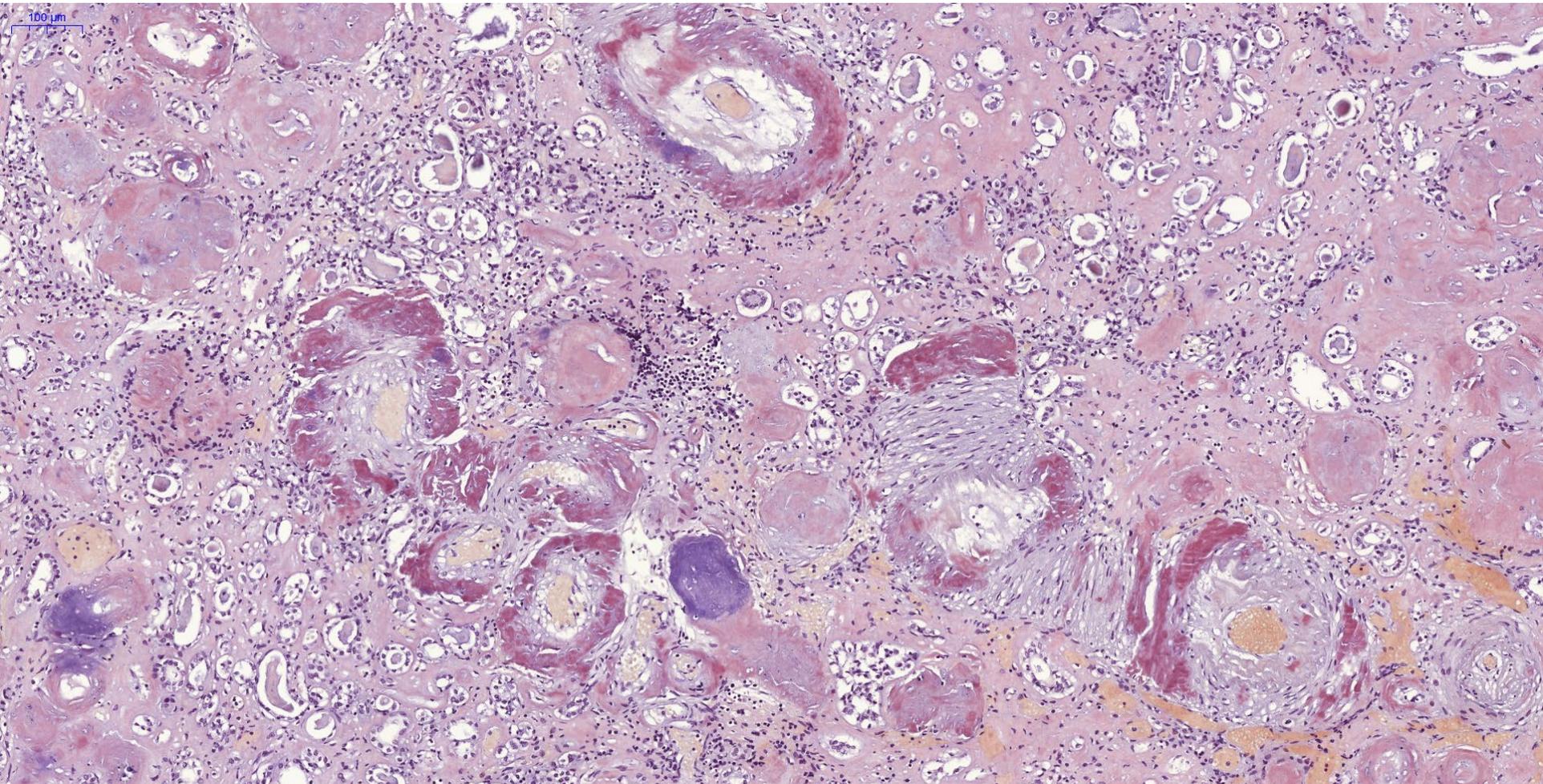
Clinicopathologic Category	Associated Diseases	Major Fibril Protein	Chemically Related Precursor Protein
Systemic (Generalized) Amyloidosis			
Plasma cell proliferations with amyloidosis (primary amyloidosis)	Multiple myeloma and other monoclonal plasma cell proliferations	AL	Immunoglobulin light chains, chiefly λ type
Reactive systemic amyloidosis (secondary amyloidosis)	Chronic inflammatory conditions	AA	SAA
Hemodialysis-associated amyloidosis	Chronic renal failure	A β_2 m	β_2 -microglobulin
Hereditary Amyloidosis			
Familial Mediterranean fever		AA	SAA
Familial amyloidotic neuropathies (several types)		ATTR	Transthyretin
Systemic senile amyloidosis		ATTR	Transthyretin
Localized Amyloidosis			
Senile cerebral	Alzheimer disease	A β	APP
Endocrine	Type 2 diabetes		
Medullary carcinoma of thyroid		A Cal	Calcitonin
Islets of Langerhans		AIAPP	Islet amyloid peptide
Isolated atrial amyloidosis		AANF	Atrial natriuretic factor

MORPHOLOGY

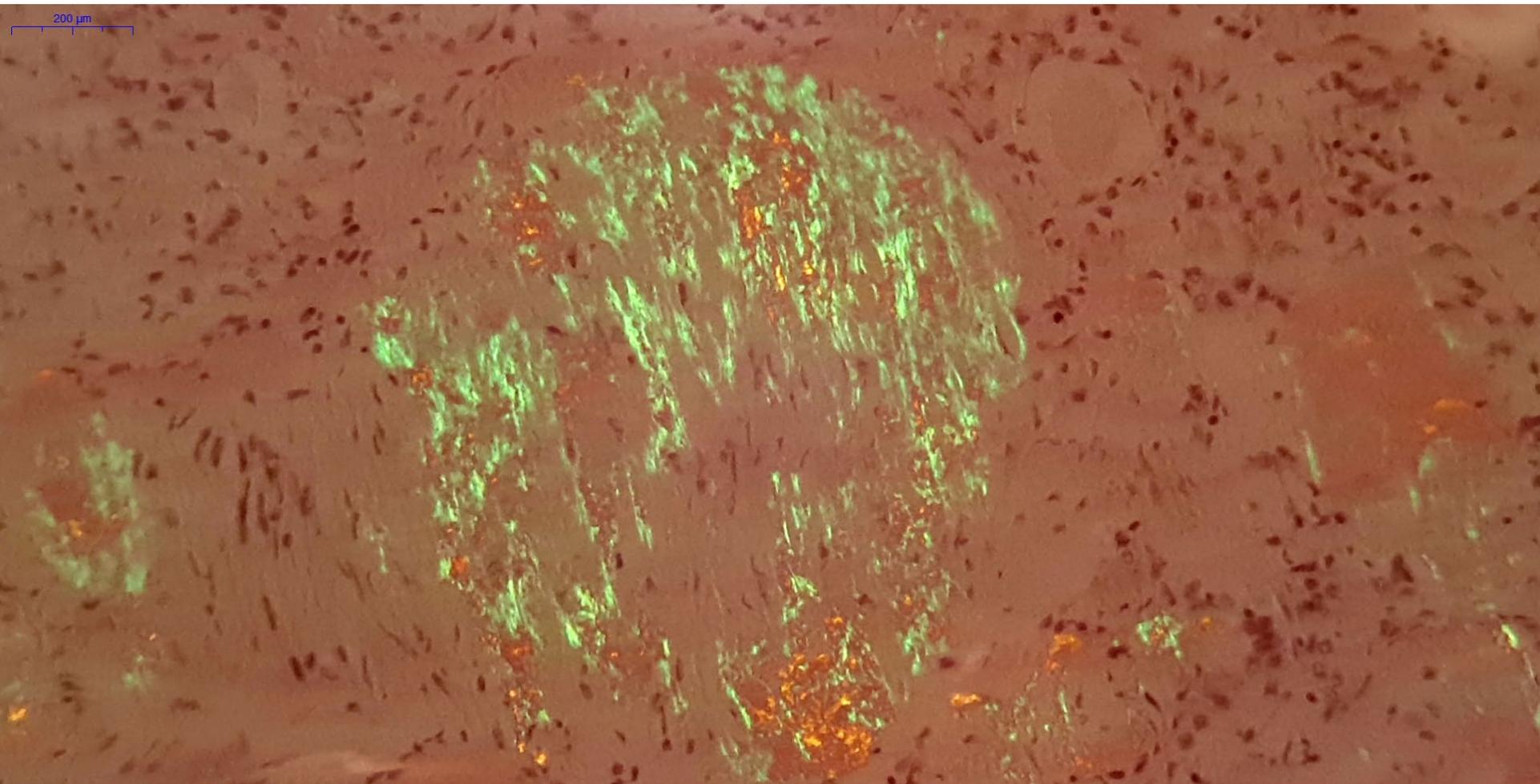
Macroscopically: the organ is frequently enlarged, and the tissue appears gray and has a waxy, firm consistency.

Histologically **always extracellular** and begins between cells, often closely adjacent to basement membranes. In the form associated with plasma cell proliferation, perivascular and vascular deposits are common.

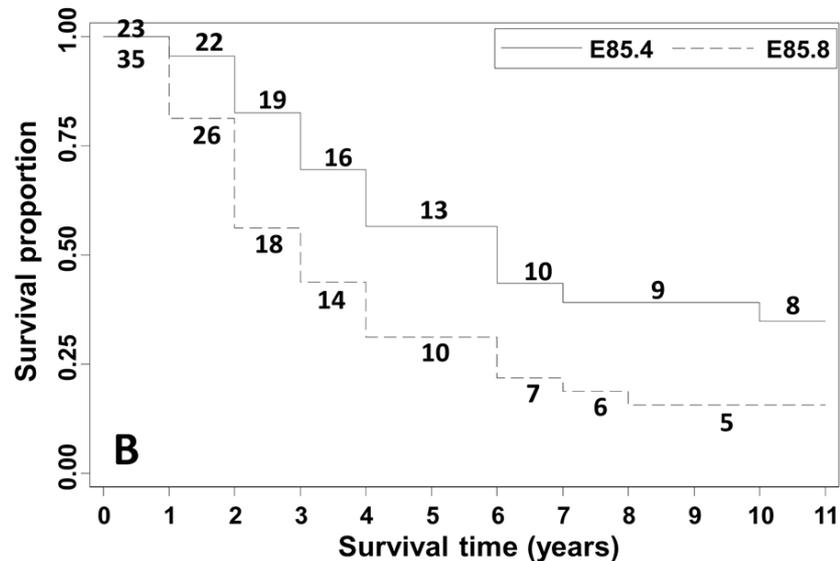
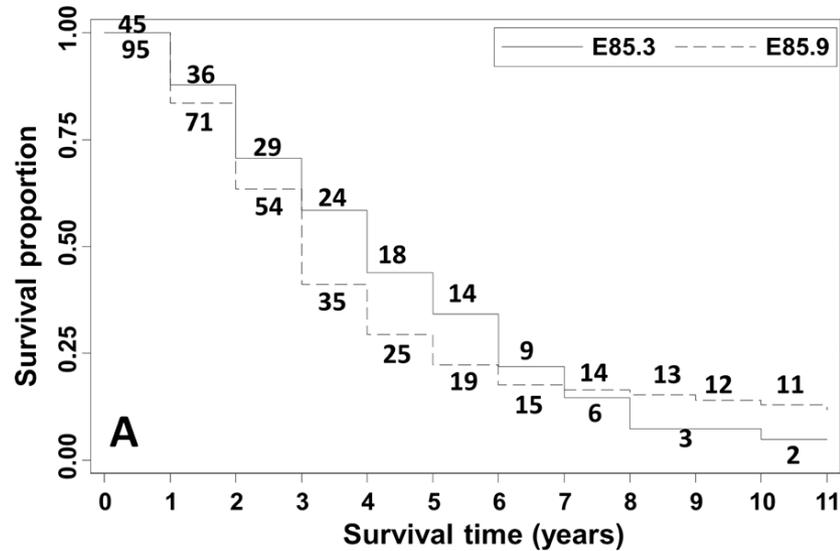
The diagnosis of amyloidosis is based on histopathology



To differentiate amyloid from other hyaline materials (e.g., collagen, fibrin), a variety of histochemical stains are used. **The most widely used is the Congo red stain, which under ordinary light gives a pink or red color to tissue deposits**



specific green birefringence of the stained amyloid when observed by polarizing microscopy



The prognosis for individuals with generalized amyloidosis is poor.

Those with AL amyloidosis have a median survival of 2 years after diagnosis. Individuals with myeloma-associated amyloidosis have an even poorer prognosis.

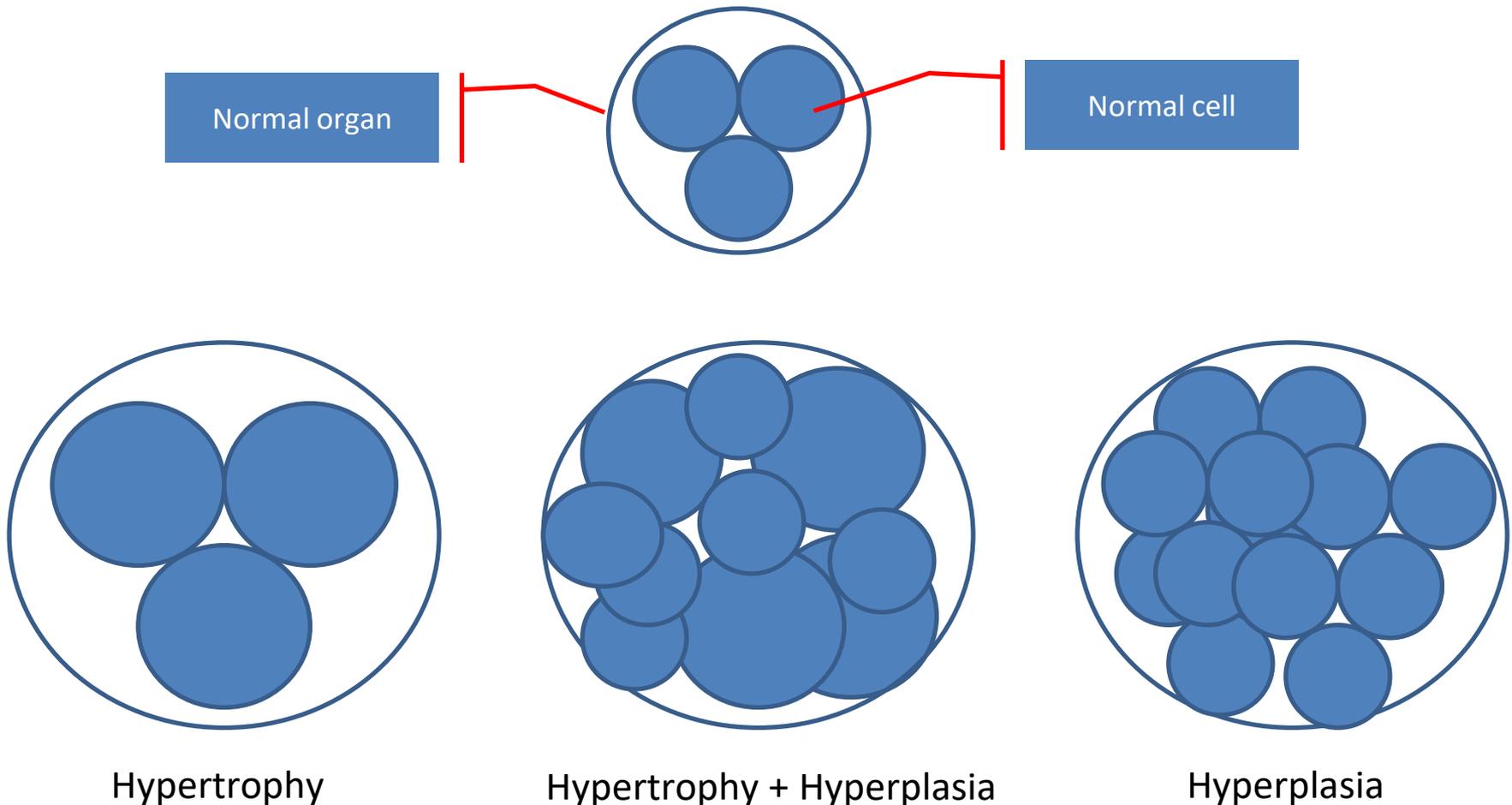
ADAPTATIONS

Adaptations

Physiologic adaptations	Pathologic adaptations
responses of cells to normal stimulation by hormones or endogenous chemical mediators or to the demands of mechanical stress.	responses to stress that allow cells to modulate their structure and function and thus escape injury, but at the expense of normal function
Example: hormone-induced enlargement of the breast and uterus during pregnancy	Example: squamous metaplasia of bronchial epithelium in smokers

Hypertrophy

- Hypertrophy is an increase in the size of cells resulting in an increase in the size of the organ.



Hypertrophy

physiologic

massive physiologic enlargement of the **uterus during pregnancy** occurs as a consequence of estrogen stimulated smooth muscle hypertrophy and smooth muscle hyperplasia

in response to **increased workload** the **striated muscle cells** in both the skeletal muscle and the heart undergo only hypertrophy because adult muscle cells have a limited capacity to divide.

pathologic

Cardiac enlargement that occurs with **hypertension** or aortic **valve disease**.

Myocardium subjected to a persistently increased workload, as in hypertension or with a narrowed (stenotic) valve, adapts by undergoing hypertrophy to generate the required higher contractile force.

An adaptation to stress such as hypertrophy can progress to functionally significant cell injury if the stress is not relieved.

Hyperplasia

- **Hyperplasia is an increase in the number of cells in an organ that stems from increased proliferation, either of differentiated cells or, in some instances, less differentiated progenitor cells.**

physiologic	pathologic
Hormonal hyperplasia , exemplified by the proliferation of the glandular epithelium of the female breast at puberty and during pregnancy	excessive hormonal or growth factor stimulation: increased estrogenic stimulation causes endometrial hyperplasia
compensatory hyperplasia , in which residual tissue grows after removal or loss of part of an organ.	Stimulation by growth factors also is involved in the hyperplasia that is associated with certain viral infections

The hyperplastic process remains controlled; if the signals that initiate it abate, the hyperplasia disappears

Atrophy

- **Atrophy** is shrinkage in the size of cells by the loss of cell substance. When a sufficient number of cells are involved, the entire tissue or organ is reduced in size, or atrophic.

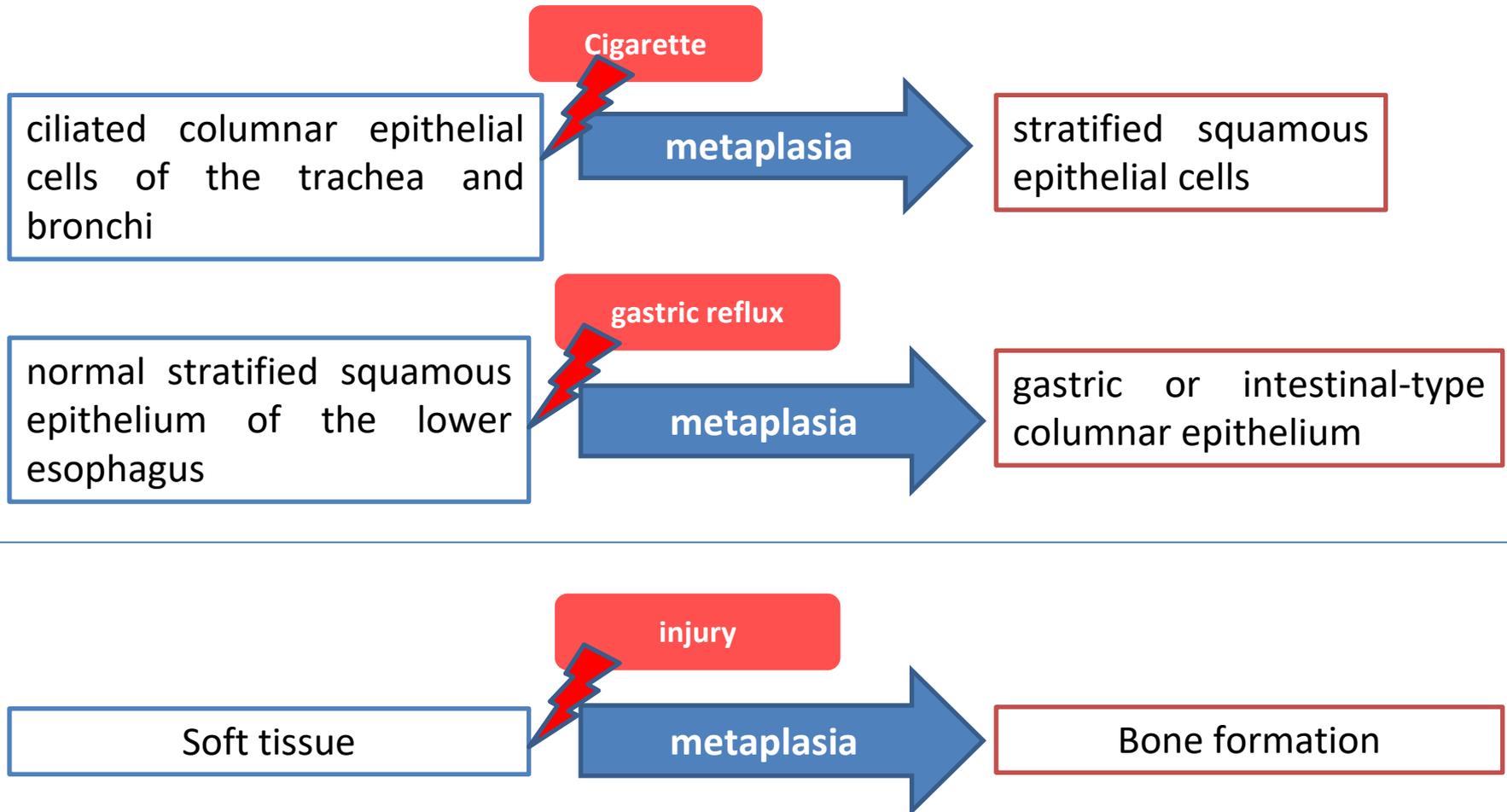
Causes of atrophy :

1. decreased workload,
2. loss of innervation,
3. diminished blood supply,
4. Inadequate nutrition,
5. loss of endocrine stimulation,
6. aging (senile atrophy).

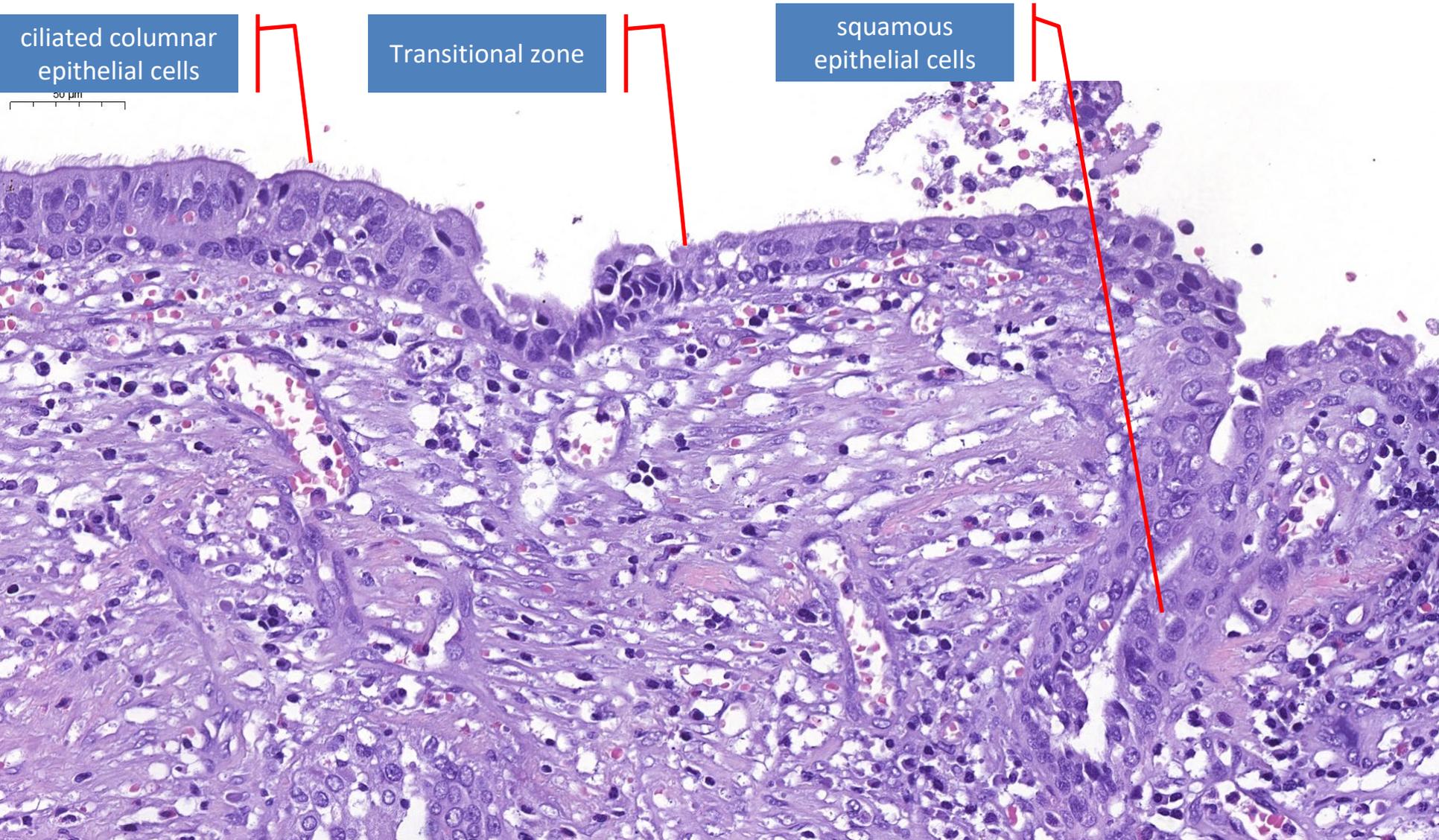
Although some of these stimuli are physiologic and others are pathologic, the fundamental cellular changes are similar.

Metaplasia

- Metaplasia** is a change in which one adult cell type (epithelial or mesenchymal) is replaced by another adult cell type.



Squamous Metaplasia



Dysplasia

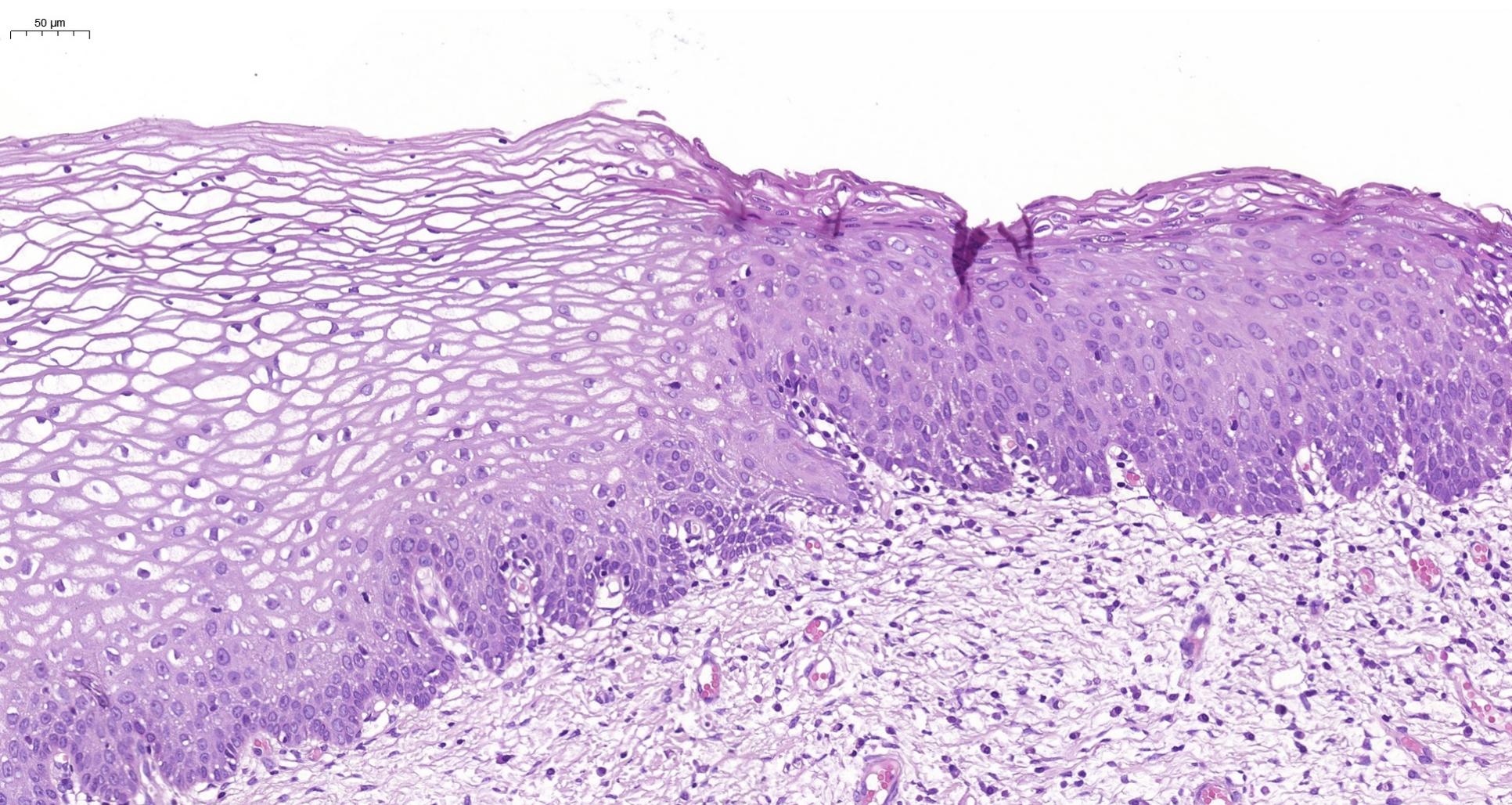
- *Dysplasia is the morphologic expression of a disturbance in growth regulation.*

Features of dysplasia

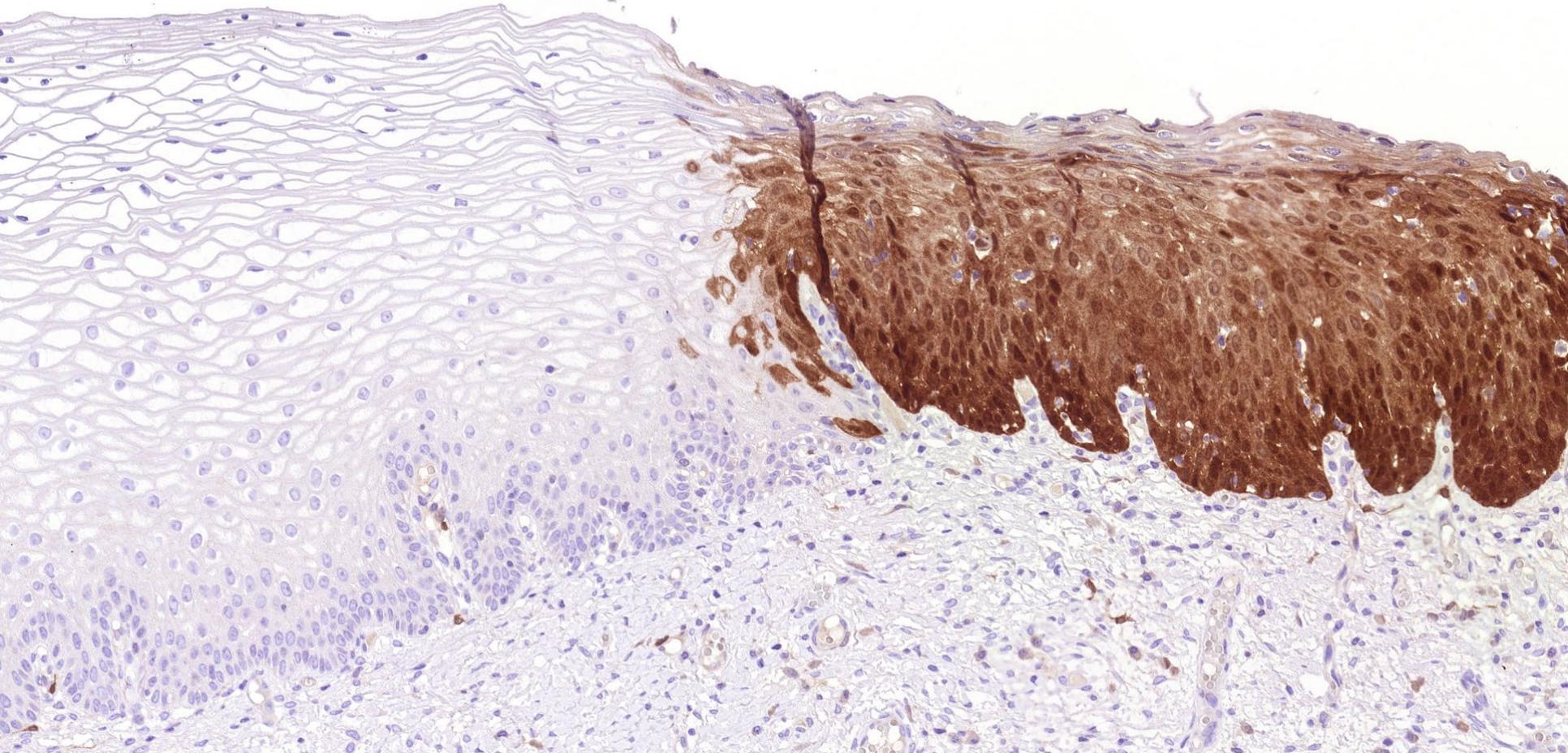
- (1) variation in cell size and shape;
- (2) nuclear enlargement, irregularity and hyperchromatism;
- (3) (3) disorderly arrangement of cells in the epithelium

Dysplasia is a preneoplastic lesion, in that it is a necessary stage in the multistep cellular evolution to cancer.

As in the development of cancer, dysplasia **results from sequential mutations in a proliferating cell population.**



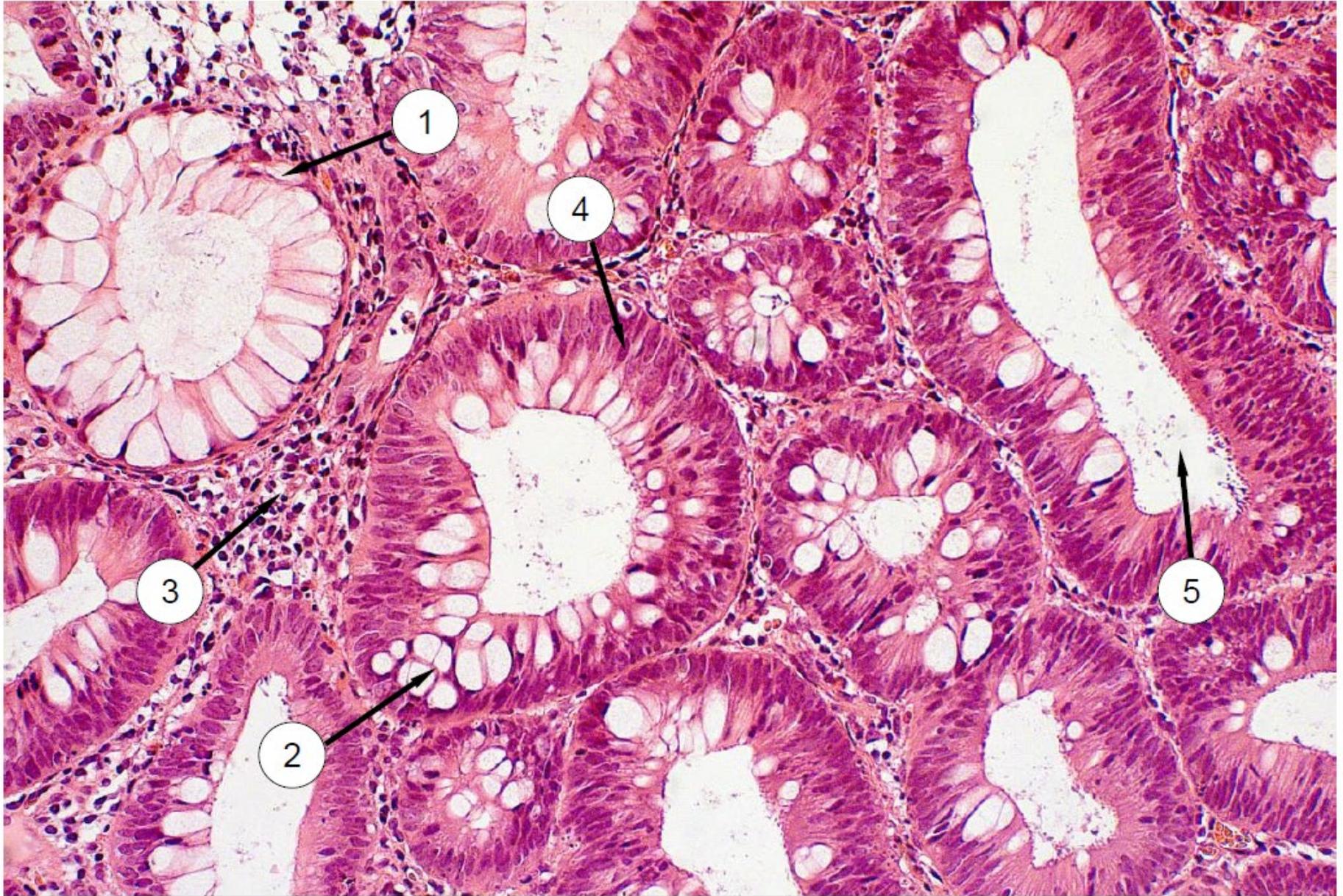
50 μ m



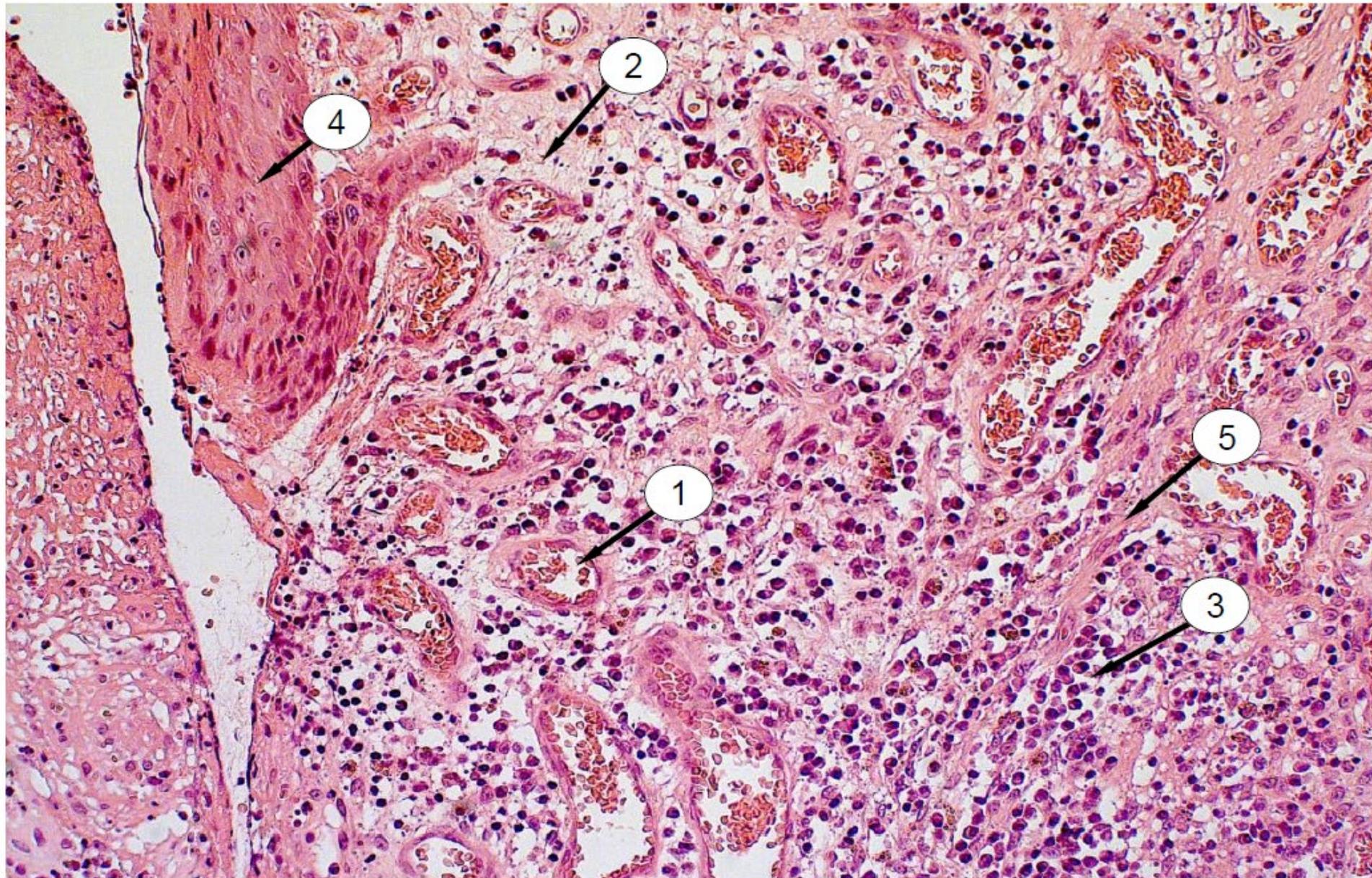


Histological slides for classroom work

Dysplasia in gastric adenoma



Granulation tissue





Thanks for attention!

